

Democratic and Popular Republic of Algeria
Ministry of Higher Education and Scientific Research
Hassiba Benbouali University Ech-Chelif
Faculty of Letters and Human Sciences
English Department

**Promoting Effective Technical English
Conversation With Non-native Speakers.
Case Study of the “ Enterprise of Cement
and Derivatives in Ech-Chelif ”**

Dissertation Submitted in Partial Fulfilment of the MA degree in ESP

Presented by

Mr. Azz-eddine BOUNADJA

Supervised by

Dr. Belabess OUERRAD

Board of Examiners

President

Supervisor

First Examiner

Second Examiner

Prof. MILIANI Mohamed

Dr. OUERAD Belabess

Dr. MELOUK Mohamed

Dr. MERBOUH Zouaoui

University of Oran

University of Belabess

University of Belabess

University of Belabess

Academic Year: 2011-2012

DEDICACY

I dedicate this work to my grandmother and mother, to the soul of my dad, to my beloved wife and children, to Dr.Abelkader SENKADI and to my respectful classmates of EDOLAS, Ech-Chlif .

Aknowledgments

First and foremost, I would like to show my faithfulness, obedience and submission to Allah for his help and guidance throughout my life. My gratitude is extended to my mum and grandmother for their continuous prayers and encouragement. My thanks also go to my brothers and sisters for their support. I am especially grateful to my wife who helped me in conducting the pilot study of this dissertation and my elder daughter Radhia who helped in typing it.

My deepest love and appreciation go to my dearest wife who not only helped me in preparing materials and statistics for this study, but also carried most of the burden in raising our children. I am also grateful to my children who provided me with a continuous source of joy and serenity to finish this work.

I would also like to express my greatest attitude to my respectful advisor Dr. Belabess OUERRAD for his patience, wise academic advice and meticulous revisions throughout all phases of this dissertation. Special thanks go to Dr. Lila BOUSENA, Dr. Fethi HADDOUCHE, Dr. Driss MARJAN from Morocco and Dr. Josephin REMON from France who have made the success of the Doctorate School possible at the English Department in Hassiba Benbouali University of Ech-Chelif. I would also like to thank the other members of my dissertation committee; Prof. Mohamed MILIANI, Dr. Mohamed MELOUK, and Dr. Zouaoui MERBOUH for serving in my committee and sharing their expertise with me.

Sincere gratitude goes to Mr. Mustapha DOUAIDIA and the head of training service, Mr. Baghdad BOUDJALTHIA who allowed me to distribute and collect the questionnaire in the 'E.C.D.E'. I am in debt to him and his secretary for their kindness and assistance.

Finally, on behalf of my classmates, I would like to thank the responsables of the ESP University project for this best opportunity that enabled us to carry on our post graduate studies at the English Department in Ech-Chelif University, Algeria.

Abstract

The study is here to investigate the ESP course project which has already been taught at the E.C.D.E (Enterprise for Cement and Derivatives in ECh-Chelif, Algeria). It tests how far the teacher has submitted to the students' oral communicative language needs. Two questionnaires are administrated to the population and targeted the challenge of learning how to orally communicating with non-natives. Furthermore, the researcher's observations are also the means to evaluate the learners' language achievements.

The present study considers the findings and draws conclusions about the need for a real ESP course design and what it means "to speak well" in order to promote an effective Technical English Conversation with non-natives at the professional settings. The subjects also perceive themselves as facing the handicap of reading technical books in relation to their works because of the lack of specific terms.

This study concludes that an implementation of teaching/learning ESP at the E.C.D.E requires a better teacher environment, serious components of the ESP course including a needs analysis, suitable authentic teaching materials designed by a real expert. Adding to this, working in collaboration with the students would give positive results of an ESP course design. The impact of which would be reaching the students purpose in promoting effective Technical English Conversation with non-natives in a professional settings.

There is also a general agreement that the speaking skill which coincides with the students' needs for specific purposes is becoming highly important at the workplace. Therefore, two questionnaires were administered to two sections of learners who are being challenged by communicating with non-natives. The researcher's observations are a third tool to evaluate the effectiveness of the ESP course performed at the (E.C.D.E) Enterprise of Cement and Derivatives of Ech-Chelif in Algeria .

At the end of this study, the reader will find a series of suggestions which can be of great help to cover the population's language needs at the E.C.D.E. Some of these are the art of conversation, conversation as communication in professional settings, listening: problems and Solutions, the use of ICT to develop the learners' communication skills using blogs, and blended learning through video blogs, and the oral fluency through telephone lessons. Besides, a telephone lesson plan. Finally, the practicability of these suggestions in need for teacher with characteristics of a good ESP expert obtained thanks to practical suggestions to a teacher-training in ESP. Without forgetting the possible authentic materials of the ESP Speaking course. All this is summed up with a Technical English Course for Civil Engineers in Spain provided as an example.

List of Acronyms

CLT: Communicative Language Teaching

DEUA: “Diplome des Etudes Universitaire Appliques”

EAP: English for Academic Purposes

EBP: English for Business Purposes

E.C.D.E: L’Entreprise du Ciment et Derivés d’Ech-Chelif

EFL: English as a Foreign Language

EGAP: English for General Academic Purposes

ELLs: English Language Learners

ELP: English for Legal Purposes

EMP: English for Medical Purposes

ESAP: English for Specific Academic Purposes

EMFE: English for Management, Finance and Economics.

EOP: English for Occupational Purposes

ESTs: English for Science and Technology

FLTs: Foreign Language Teachers

ICT: Information Communication and Technology

HSE: Health, Safety and Environment

L1: Student’s First/Native language

L2: Second language.

TV: Television

List of Tables

| | |
|--|----|
| Table 1.1: Respondents and non-respondents to question one..... | 71 |
| Table 1.2: Respondents and non-respondents to question one..... | 72 |
| Table 1.3: The syllabus allocated time | 73 |
| Table 1.4: Types of English Taught at the E.C.D.E (GE or ESP)..... | 73 |
| Table 1.5: English Course and Language Needs..... | 74 |
| Table 5: The Four Language Taught Skills | 75 |
| Table 1.6: Emphasis on language learning skills | 77 |
| Table 7: The studied content materials..... | 78 |
| Table 8: The targeted speaking skills | 80 |
| Table 9: The required listening skills | 81 |
| Table 10: The required reading skills | 82 |
| Table 11: The required writing skills | 83 |
| Table 1: Allocated duration time efficiency..... | 88 |
| Table 2: The course content and students' needs relationship | 89 |
| Table 3: Understanding a native speaker frequency | 90 |
| Table 4: Frequency of understanding a non-native speaker..... | 90 |
| Table 5: Authentic technical manuals' comprehension | 91 |
| Table 6: Carrying on telephone conversations | 92 |
| Table 7: Answering a written form of language..... | 93 |
| Table 8: A future ESP continuous formation | 94 |
| Table 9: Choice of ESP expert | 95 |
| Table 10: Suitable teaching environment | 96 |

List of Graphs:

Administrative Chart of the Cement and Derivatives Enterprise of Ech-Chelif
(E.C.D.E).

| | |
|--|-----------|
| Graph 01: Necessity of Learning English..... | 71 |
| Graph 02: Respondents and non-respondents to question one | 72 |
| Graph 1.4: Types of English Taught at the E.C.D.E (GE or ESP)..... | 74 |
| Graph 1.5: English Course and Students Language Needs..... | 75 |
| Graph 5: The Four Language Skills Taught..... | 76 |
| Graph 6: Emphasis on language learning skills..... | 77 |
| Graph 7: The studied content materials..... | 79 |
| Graph 8: The Targeted Speaking Skills..... | 80 |
| Graph 9: The Required Listening Skills | 81 |
| Graph 10: The Required Reading Skills | 82 |
| Graph 11: The Required Writing Skills..... | 84 |
| Graph 1: Allocated duration time efficiency..... | 88 |
| Graph 2: The course content and students' needs relationship..... | 89 |
| Graph 3: Understanding a Native Speaker Frequency..... | 90 |
| Graph 4: Frequency of Understanding a Non-native Speaker..... | 91 |
| Graph 5: Authentic Technical Manuals' Comprehension..... | 92 |
| Graph 6: Carrying on Telephone Conversations..... | 93 |
| Graph 7: Answering a written form of language..... | 94 |
| Graph 8: A Future ESP Continous Formation..... | 95 |
| Graph 9: Choice of ESP Expert..... | 96 |
| Graph 10: Suitable Teaching Environment..... | 97 |

List of Figures

| | |
|--|-----|
| ESP Classification by Professional Area (by Dudley-Evans & St John)..... | 30 |
| Hutchinson and Water’s Taxonomy of NA..... | 32 |
| Diagram 1: Inter-relationship of the four skills (Down Byrne 1976)..... | 41 |
| Figure: Ablended learning model for an English Speaking Course..... | 111 |
| Model for Material Design of a Speaking Course (Hutchinson and Waters 1987)..... | 121 |

Table of Contents

| | |
|--|-----|
| Dedicacy | I |
| Acknowledgments | II |
| Abstract | III |
| List of Acronyms | IV |
| List of Tables | V |
| List of Graphs | VI |
| List of Figures..... | VII |
| Table of Contents | IX |
| General Introduction | 1 |
| Chapter I: The Workplace and Research Procedure | |
| Introduction | 6 |
| I.1. The Workplace identifying the “E.C.D.E” | 7 |
| I.2. The E.C.D.E: Planning and Cement Production | 8 |
| I.2.A.The Enterprise Planning | 8 |
| I.2.B.Electrical supplying of the Enterprise | 8 |
| I.2.C. Type and proceeding of cement production | 8 |
| I.2.D. Proceeding of production | 9 |
| I.2.E. Production Norm | 9 |
| I.3. Population of study..... | 10 |
| I.4. The Participants’ Background | 13 |
| I.5. The Programme | 15 |
| I.6. Technical English Training | 16 |
| I.7. Technical English Course at the E.C.D.E | 16 |
| I.7.A. Aim of the Course | 17 |
| I.7.B. Objectives of the Course | 17 |
| I.8. People’s Need for Technical English in Algeria..... | 17 |
| I.9. Algeria’s Development in Technical Communication..... | 18 |
| I.10. Data Collection Methods for Programme Evaluation | 19 |

| | |
|---|----|
| I.10.A. Observation | 19 |
| I.10.A.1. When to use observation for Evaluation | 20 |
| I.10.A.2. How to plan for observations | 20 |
| I.10.A.3. Observation Advantages | 21 |
| I.10.A.4. Observation Disadvantages | 22 |
| I.10.B. The Researcher's Observation..... | 22 |
| 1.11. The Questionnaire..... | 25 |
| 1.11.A The Researcher's Questionnaire | 26 |
| Conclusion | 28 |
| Chapter II: The Literature Review | |
| Introduction | 30 |
| II.1. ESP and the Engineers' Oral Communication Skills | 30 |
| II.2. Definition of ESP | 32 |
| II.3. Classification of ESP | 35 |
| II.4. English Language Needs Analysis | 36 |
| II.5. Definition of English Language Needs Analysis..... | 37 |
| II.6. Syllabus and Course Design for ESP..... | 38 |
| II.7. Characteristics of ESP Course | 39 |
| A. Material Authenticity | 39 |
| B. Purpose Related Orientation..... | 40 |
| C. Self-Direction | 40 |
| II.8. The ESP Practitioner..... | 40 |
| II.9. English and Communication Skills for the Global Engineer..... | 44 |
| II.10. Speaking and Oral Communication | 45 |
| II.10.A. The Speaking Sub-Skills..... | 46 |
| II.10.B. Speaking and the Other Skills | 47 |
| II.10.B.1. Speaking Vs. Writing | 48 |
| II.10.B.2. Speaking Vs. Listening Comprehension..... | 49 |
| II.11. Need for a Communicative Use of English in Algeria | 51 |

| | |
|--|----|
| II.12. Definition and Characteristics of Conversation..... | 53 |
| II.12.A. Functions of Conversation | 55 |
| II.12.B. Conditions of conversations..... | 56 |
| II.13. The Conversational Act | 57 |
| II.14. Conversation in Foreign Language Teaching..... | 59 |
| II.15. Approaches to Teaching Conversation | 60 |
| A. The Indirect Approach..... | 60 |
| B. The Direct Approach..... | 61 |
| C. A Combination of the Direct and Indirect Approaches | 61 |
| II.16. Effective Conversation Course Content..... | 62 |
| II.17. Testing Effects on Conversation Classes..... | 63 |
| II.18. The Dichotomy in Conversation Classes..... | 64 |
| Conclusion | 66 |
| Chapter III: Data Analysis | |
| Introduction | 67 |
| III.1. The Areas of Research | 67 |
| III.2. Students' First Questionnaire | 69 |
| III.2.A. Aim of the Questionnaire | 69 |
| III.2.B. Administration of the Questionnaire | 69 |
| III.2.C. Description of the Questionnaire | 69 |
| III.2.C.1. Section One: The Importance and Type of English Language Learning..... | 70 |
| III.2.C.2. Section Two: The Content of English Course and Students' Needs (Q4-Q7) | 70 |
| III.2.C.3. Section Three: The Students' Language Requirements (Q8-Q11) | 70 |
| III.2.D. Analysis of the Questionnaire | 71 |
| III.2.E Discussion | 85 |
| III.3. Students' Second Questionnaire | 86 |

| | |
|---|-----|
| III.3.A. Aim of the Questionnaire | 86 |
| III.3.B. Administration of the Questionnaire | 86 |
| III.3.C. Description of the Questionnaire..... | 86 |
| III.3.C.1. Section 1: General Questions (Q1-Q2) | 87 |
| III.3.C.2. Section 2: The subjects' perception of an Authentic language(Q3-Q5) | 87 |
| III.3.C.3. Section 3: The Subjects' Ability to Speak up English (Q6-Q7)..... | 87 |
| III.3.C.4. Section 4: The ESP Course (Q8-Q10) | 87 |
| III.4. Analysis of the Questionnaire | 88 |
| III.5. Discusion | 79 |
| Conclusion | 97 |
| Chapter IV: Suggestions | |
| Introduction | 101 |
| IV.1. The Art of Conversation..... | 102 |
| IV.1.A. They should know: | 102 |
| IV.1.A.1. How to start and sustain a conversation | 102 |
| IV.1.A.2. How to be perceived as a good listner..... | 102 |
| IV.1.A.3. How to Participate in a conversation without talking | 103 |
| IV.1.A.4. How to gain control of a conversation | 104 |
| IV.1.A.5. How to change the subject-tactfully..... | 104 |
| IV.2. Conversation Do's and Don'ts | 104 |
| IV.2.A. Conversation Do's..... | 105 |
| IV.2.B. Conversation Don'ts | 105 |
| IV.3. Say words to be polite | 105 |
| IV.4. Conversation as Communication in Profesional Settings | 106 |
| IV.4.A. Practical Points | 106 |
| IV.4.A.1. Assertivness..... | 106 |
| IV.4.A.2. Ambiguity Avoidence | 107 |

| | |
|---|-----|
| IV.4.A.3. Confrontations | 108 |
| IV.5. Seeking Information | 108 |
| IV.6. Let Others Speak | 108 |
| IV.7. To Finish..... | 109 |
| IV.8. Meeting Management-Preparation | 109 |
| IV.9. Meeting Management-Conducting..... | 109 |
| IV.10. Maintaining Communication..... | 110 |
| IV.11. Matching Method to Purpose | 110 |
| IV.12. Responding to problems | 110 |
| IV.13. Teaching Terms Effective for Technical Conversation | 111 |
| A. Selecting Specialised vocabulary..... | 112 |
| B. Presenting Specialised vocabulary..... | 113 |
| C. Practicing New Terms..... | 114 |
| IV.14. Listening: Problems and Solutions..... | 116 |
| IV.14.A. What is Listening?..... | 117 |
| IV.14.B. Some Listening Problems | 117 |
| IV.14.B.1. The Message/Content | 117 |
| IV.14.B.2. The Speaker | 118 |
| IV.14.B.3. The Listener | 119 |
| IV.14.B.4. Physical Setting | 119 |
| IV.15. Possible Situations..... | 119 |
| IV.15.A. The Message..... | 119 |
| IV.15.B. The Speaker | 121 |
| IV.15.C. The Listener | 121 |
| IV.16. Information Communication Technology and Learner Development | 122 |
| IV.16.A. Blogging | 122 |
| IV.16.B.Types of Blogs for English Teaching | 123 |
| IV.17. Blended Learning (on-line study and teacher guidance)..... | 124 |
| IV.18. Where to Start..... | 124 |

| | |
|---|-----|
| IV.19. Blended Learning Through Video Blogs | 125 |
| IV.20. Oral Fluency Through Telephone Lessons | 126 |
| IV.21. Use Technology Effectively and Cheerfully | 127 |
| IV.21.A. Telephone Communication Do's and Don'ts | 127 |
| IV.21.A.1. Telephone Communication Do's..... | 127 |
| IV.21.A.2. Telephone Communication Don'ts | 128 |
| IV.22. Telephone Lesson Plan..... | 128 |
| IV.22.A. Practice telephone etiquette and introducing small talk..... | 129 |
| IV.22.A.1. Invite the learner to summarise orally..... | 129 |
| IV.22.A.2. Explore the topic on factual basis..... | 129 |
| IV.22.A.3. Share opinions about that topic | 130 |
| IV.22.A.4. Read the report out loud to work on pronunciation | 130 |
| IV.22.A.5. Choose words in the Glossary to retain and start using | 130 |
| IV.22.A.6. Focus on a grammar point in the English lesson..... | 130 |
| IV.22.A.7. Focus on major errors made repeatedly during the actual call or the previous one..... | 130 |
| IV.22.A.8. Put into practice, immediately, newly-learned vocabulary | 130 |
| IV.22.B. Set up the next appointment | 130 |
| IV.22.C. After the lesson | 131 |
| IV.23. The Characteristics of a Good ESP Teacher | 131 |
| IV.24. Teachers' Training in ESP | 133 |
| IV.25. Practical Suggestions to Teacher-training in ESP..... | 134 |
| IV.26. Future Communicative use of English in Algeria..... | 135 |
| IV.27. Suggestions for Teaching Materials of the ESP Speaking Course | 136 |
| IV.28. Technical English for Civil Engineers | 138 |
| IV.29. Course description..... | 138 |
| Conclusion | 144 |
| General Conclusion | 145 |
| BIBLIOGRAPHY | 147 |

APPENDICES

| | |
|--|-----|
| Appendix 1: A Questionnaire to the Learners in Need for ESP at the “E.C.D.E” in Ech- Chelif, Algeria..... | 150 |
| Appendix 2: A Questionnaire to Evaluate Students’ English Language Achievements at the ‘E.C.D.E’ in Ech- Chelif..... | 152 |
| Appendix 3: What do civil Engineers do?..... | 153 |
| Appendix 4: First Stage of Building..... | 153 |

General Introduction

'English for Specific Purposes' (ESP) refers to the teaching of a specific genre of mostly Technical English for students with specific goals, careers or fields of study. It is part of a more general movement of teaching 'Languages for Specific Purposes' (LSP) which was pioneered in the 1950s and 1960s.

In fact, ESP became a vital and innovative activity with the teaching of English in the 1970s. It was dominated by the teaching of English for Academic Purposes (students will enter an English-speaking university). Today, the teaching of ESP is gaining popularity throughout the world in response of the great demand for English in academic, vocational and professional settings. Algeria, these years, stresses the importance of English in higher learning institutions. More and more universities are offering ESP courses to meet the global trend as well as to meet the students' future career needs in terms of specific needs of English language.

The demand for ESP has led some factories in Algeria to offer ESP courses to equip its staff and working force with the technological terms appropriate to their professional contexts. The ESP focal point is that English is not taught as a subject separated from the students' real world (or wishes). Based on literature in language needs, no ESP courses in postgraduate studies in public universities or factories of the country are possible or effective if they are not based upon the students' language needs analysis. The language needs analysis is prerequisite for designing a language course in the ESP setting. A lot of ESP designers stress the importance of needs analysis of learners to design ESP courses. The primacy of needs analysis to design a language course is of a major emphasis. The ESP courses then are determined in all essentials by the prior analysis of the communicative needs of the learners. Needs analysis is the corner stone of ESP and leads to focused language course.

In line with the advancement of the economic field in Algeria and illuminated imports of essential machines is taking place for the exploitation of a great number of administrators and students belonging to the working force in the

field are in urgent need for up-to-date scientific and technological terms related to their professional settings.

Similar to other factories in Algeria, there is a quite large number of postgraduate students in the E.C.D.E (The Enterprise of Cement and its Derivatives of Ech-Chelif) are seeking for an oral English proficiency. It is believed to be an indicator of success and future promotions. To cater with its students' numerous needs for mastering the different technological terms related to mechanical, electrical and to the maintaining equipment, the formation service at the level of the E.C.D.E with the coordination of two teachers from(L' Université de la Formation Continue de Ech-Chelif) have planned an ESP course to promote an effective Technical English speaking skill. This adopted decision aimed at enabling the students to use technical English effectively in various problem-solving situations namely when meeting non-native speakers of English as spare part suppliers.

Speaking is believed to be an interactive process of constructing meaning that invokes producing, receiving and processing information. Its form and meaning are dependent on the context in which it occurs, including the participants themselves, their collective experience, the physical environment, and the purposes for speaking. Speaking requires that learners not only know how to produce specific points of language such as grammar, pronunciation, or vocabulary (linguistic competence), but they also understand when, why and what ways to produce language (sociolinguistic competence). Therefore an ESP speaking course was designed and took place during summer of 2010 at the E.C.D.E. Its aim was to prepare the students so that they can cope with the extent of English used in cement companies in terms of speaking for professional purposes.

This study investigates the improvement of the students' oral poor production to technical terms into conversation in professional settings. It aims to examine the designers' awareness of the primacy of the needs analysis to cope with the students' language needs. Therefore, three questions must be raised:

- Does the course designer make use of small team and group work to enhance conversation?
- Does he provide more opportunities for active listening to develop and allow conscious and effective conversation?
- Does he make use of authentic teaching materials to train the students to real learning situations?

According to what has been mentioned before an effective language teaching and learning ESP course may be better achieved when the designers are fully aware of their students' needs and preferences. These needs and preferences are of crucial importance in developing the learners' autonomy and are vital for designing the ESP course. In this respect the following hypotheses can be established.

- The designers should conduct a needs analysis to explore their students' urgent needs for designing an appropriate ESP course.
- The use of authentic teaching materials will allow conscious and effective conversation into real learning situations.
- Small group (3 to 4 persons) and pair work are advisable to achieve easy and self confident mastery of the technical terms into conversation.

The students will take benefit of the ESP course design and develop an efficient technical oral production with non-native speakers if the above notes are given enough care by the ESP course designers.

The researcher in this paper aims at identifying how far the designers / practitioners have submitted to the students' learning needs for acquiring an efficient level of English for science and technology(EST) appropriate to the professional setting. Moreover, testing the awareness of teacher/learner proficiency in learner relationship for the targeted success of an ESP course that took place into serious learning environment is advisable. This environment was believed by most students as being not motivating for achieving an efficient ESP teaching/learning experience at the work place. Speaking communicatively technical English in face to face

conversations in professional situations is of course a worldwide demand in today's unlimited business, economic and financial international affairs. It could be perceived as real demands for a brave scientific and technological world.

The findings of this study could be of some value for Algerian teachers and course designers in conceiving an ESP course. It could also act as a first step in designing an ESP course for students in other fields of work in the North of Algeria after it had already been widely practiced in Sonatrach in the South.

Globalization and the rising need for increasing international economic, scientific, cultural and commercial exchanges encourage both developing and developed countries to establish and improve ESP courses in every public and private institution. There is now a worldwide belief that English is the most spoken language in the world as a result to the increasing exchanges between oil producing countries of the Arab world and the developed countries of the West after WWII.

Many procedures for collecting data can be used and applied to search the learners' needs and preferences. These are interviews, observations and questionnaires. In fact, interviews, meetings or videos are more useful in helping to better understand the students' needs, but require more time and the availability of every student. Unfortunately, the students at the E.C.D.E are often busy working and cannot be free for an interview. Therefore, the researcher use more flexible and most widely data collecting instrument to apply triangulation. Questionnaires are always the most popular method followed as they can be sent for a population living in various areas through internet or telephone. Two questionnaires are administered hand in hand to the students during their courses. In addition to them, the researcher's observations taken down during a number of courses are added. In this sense, it is important to mention that the descriptive method is followed in this study as it helps the researcher to identify naturally occurring phenomena in current practice.

The present research is divided into four chapters.

The first chapter deals with the workplace and research procedure where the researcher highlights the purpose of the present study. This one is the learner's final aim to reach a oral convenient Technical English. In the second the reader will find the literature review related to ESP and oral communication. Data analysis is dealt with in the third chapter with more specific details of the two questionnaires. In the fourth one ,a series of suggestions are provided to any possible future course design so as to cover the second language learners' needs. These are the ability to enable learners express themselves freely and fluently in terms of technical meaningful English that corresponds to the workplace .

Chapter One

The Workplace Research Procedure

Chapter I: The Workplace and Research Procedure

| | |
|--|----|
| Introduction | 6 |
| I.1. The Workplace identifying the “E.C.D.E” | 7 |
| I.2. The E.C.D.E: Planning and Cement Production | 8 |
| I.2.A.The Enterprise Planning | 8 |
| I.2.B.Electrical supplying of the Enterprise | 8 |
| I.2.C. Type and proceeding of cement production | 8 |
| I.2.D. Proceeding of production | 9 |
| I.2.E. Production Norm | 9 |
| I.3. Population of study..... | 10 |
| I.4. The Participants’ Background | 13 |
| I.5. The Programme | 15 |
| I.6. Technical English Training | 16 |
| I.7. Technical English Course at the E.C.D.E | 16 |
| I.7.A. Aim of the Course | 17 |
| I.7.B. Objectives of the Course | 17 |
| I.8. People’s Need for Technical English in Algeria..... | 17 |
| I.9. Algeria’s Development in Technical Communication..... | 18 |
| I.10. Data Collection Methods for Programme Evaluation | 19 |
| I.10.A. Observation | 19 |
| I.10.A.1. When to use observation for Evaluation | 20 |
| I.10.A.2. How to plan for observations | 20 |
| I.10.A.3. Observation Advantages | 21 |
| I.10.A.4. Observation Disadvantages | 22 |
| I.10.B. The Researcher’s Observation..... | 22 |
| 1.11. The Questionnaire..... | 25 |
| 1.11.A The Researcher’s Questionnaire | 26 |
| Conclusion | 28 |

Introduction

There is a general agreement that English is the major language of international business, industry, science and technology due to the increasing number of international projects, and economic and industrial affairs. English is particularly important for engineers and graduates at the profession field. This part of the working force is required to fulfil communication skills with at least some degree of proficiency. This indicates that English is gaining a phenomenal advance around the planet.

The fact that English is the most widely spoken language on the globe is the result not of the increasing number of its native speakers, but its role as a means for communication in unlimited multinational firms.

To function more effectively in the workplace, engineers and personal graduates are required, in Algeria as well as in the world wide, to master some communication skills in English. Their employers therefore, have to plan language course training where those communication skills could be practised to enhance the working force to study the future English language.

In non-English speaking nations like Algeria, only few institutions offer in engineering courses in English. English departments at universities, private institutions and others are not fully able to supply and meet the increasing demands of industry. English for Specific Purposes is the current globalised environment contributing to the educational needs of the global engineer. A course in English for Specific Purposes (ESP) will enhance English language training and engineering student's communication skills. Unfortunately, any deficiency in this area may result in barriers for graduates' personal and professional development.

In the first chapter, the readers will find a sample of the subject study, a description of the workplace where technical English for engineers is needed. In addition to, a brief view of people's need for technical English in Algeria, Algeria's Development in Technical English Communication, the designed programme to meet the language learning needs of engineers in a cement

production factory (E.C.D.E), and three data collection methods follow in this research paper. Finally, there are features of the global engineer in the new millennium.

I.1. The Workplace “Identifying the E.C.D.E”

Ech-Chelif Cement and Derivatives Enterprise is a mono unity company, created by the decree N°2/325 on October 30th. This took place after reorganization of the national society of the construction materials. Later it became a public, economic and autonomous company on October 9th, 1989. The E.C.D.E is an exclusive property of the management society of participation.

In 1974, SNMC “La Société National du Matériaux de Construction” entrusted the Project of cement works factory to a Japanese enterprise called KAWAZAKI HEAVY INDUSTRIES (KHI). The Civil engineering hardworkings and banking were ensured by ‘La Société NORD- AFRICAINE (Société mixte)’ under the supervision of a foreign enterprise CERELAND. The electrical part was held by a Belgian enterprise named ACEC.

The E.C.D.E is located in Oued Sly industrial area 02310 at a distance of 7km West of Ech-Chelif, midway between Algiers and Oran, and exactly at a distance of 7km on the way to Oran. Tenès which is a seaside town is only 50km North of this important economic area. The head office of this cement company is in Hammadia District West of Ech-Cheliff.

Algeria is one of the richest countries in mineral resources that are of a major importance for any industrial progress. Some of these minerals are limestone, clay, sand, iron, clinker...etc. They are considered the basic elements in the production of cement and its derivatives.

Today, this country is trying to face the great national and international demands for cement. E.C.D.E (the Enterprise of Cement and Derivatives of Ech-Chelif) is doing its best to ameliorate the quality of cement production suiting the international norm ISO 9001 version 2000 since the year 2003.

To master well the production process and reach its purposes the company aims at four objectives:

- A production of 2.000.000 tones of cement with varied types
- Amelioration of quality of product and lesson (diminishing) of cost price of the product
- Increase and maintain the productively in addition to preserving the equipments in good state
- The customers' satisfaction.

I.2 The E.C.D.E: Planning and Cement Production

I.2.A. The Enterprise' Planning

The enterprise is formed of a general directorate and various assistant-managements:

- Exploiting assistant-managements.
- Finance and accountancy assistant-managements.
- Human resources assistant-managements
- Production assistant-managements.
- Each management is subdivided into different departments.

I.2.B. Electrical supplying of the Enterprise

The company is supplied into electrical energy thanks to two 60 kv hyper tension cables; one is active but the second is for relief.

Those two cables supply a general post which is equipped with three transformers (T1, T2 and T3) tension reducers of 5.5kv. These give the energy to the sub stations of the different workshops (ateliers).

I.2.C. Type and Proceeding of Cement Production

Type: The cement product by the E.C.D.E is of the type:

- CPG 45(Portland cement with extension that resist to compression during 28 days)
- CRS (Cement that resists to lime)

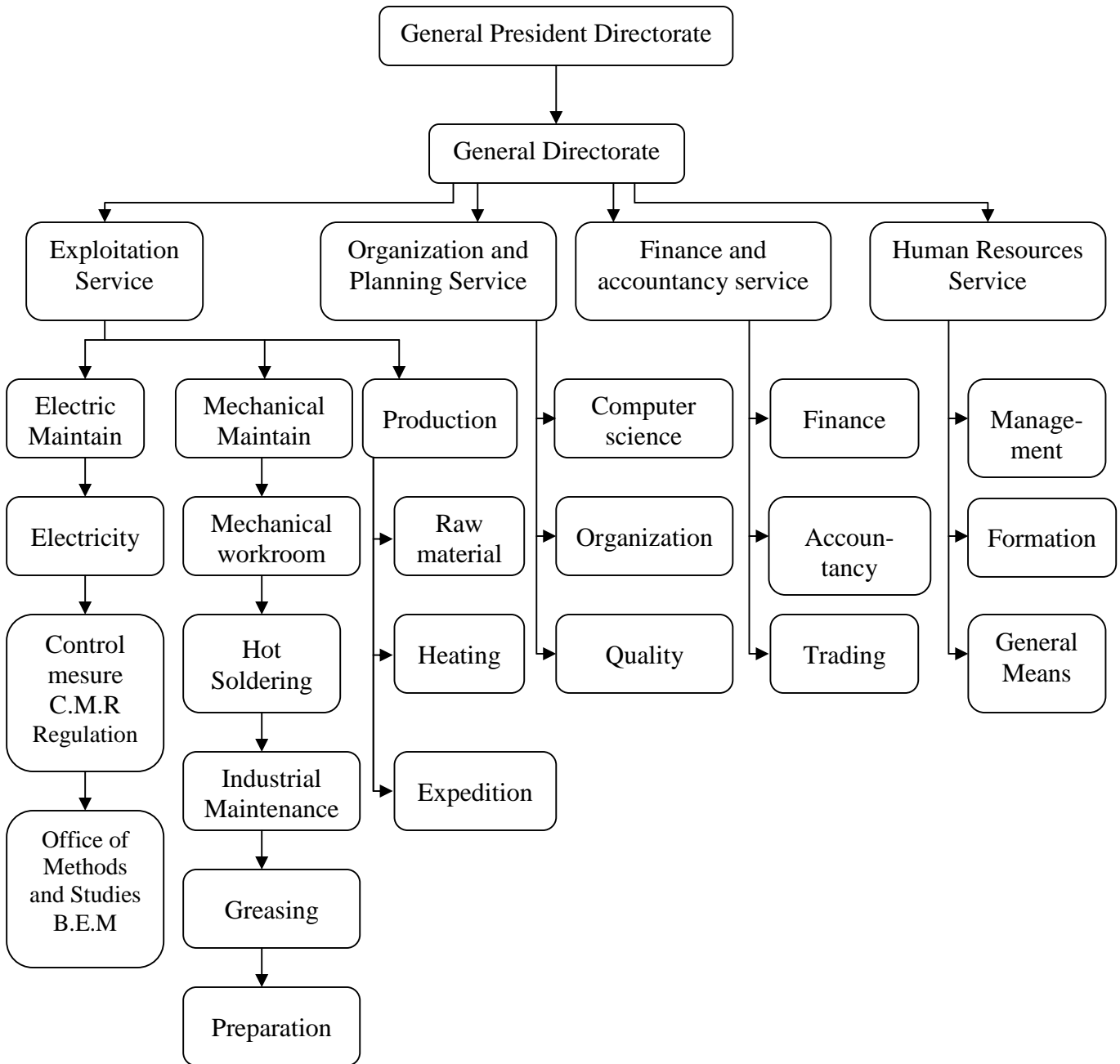
I.2.C.1. Proceeding of Production

The proceeding of production followed art the E.C.D.E is at a dry way, in which an uncooked is inserted (steamed <1%) the company has in its disposal two plants of production with a capacity of 3000t/ day for each.

I.2.C.2. Production Norm:

Suiting the Algerian norm NA442, the produced cement should answer the following normative exigencies such as:

- Cement resistance
- delicacy
- Engagement time.
- mass stability



Administrative Chart of the Cement and Derivatives Entreprise of Ech-Chelif
(E.C.D.E)

I.3. Population of study

The subjects taking part in the technical English syllabus designed by two teachers from the U.F.C (L'université de la Formation Continue) are quite aware of the importance of this syllabus. They believe that it would cover up the language

gaps that they feel whenever they listen to non-native speakers who come to the E.C.D.E in form to spare parts suppliers. These Algerian engineers and DEUA holders not only do not understand what is being said in meetings whether in the office or in the work field, but keep away from the company's library which contains more than 80 technical books. These references are according to Mr. Mustapha Dwaidia; an informed high ranked engineer in the factory, very urgent resources of knowledge concerning the various specialties dealt with at work. They include electricity, computer science, chemistry, maintenance and different steps in the cement production process.

The subjects in the ESP course at the E.C.D.E subscribe at the department manager including 72 males 8 females. They range in age, generally, between 27 and 44. They are obviously not proficient in English but wish to reach suitable level that would enable them first to acquire the necessary technical terms used in the field, then to use them during their meetings with the foreign suppliers in order to get a full communication and understanding of each others' ideas about any subject at work.

Most of the subjects are married and live at a distance of 15-50 km from the company. Every day, they arrive to work and leave it by the factory's buses. The participants share the same living conditions like any ordinary Algerian family. They live in overcrowded houses with married brothers and/ or sisters. They are in lack of time to review language notions which they had the proceeding sessions. This is mostly due to their numerous house works and family responsibilities.

The classroom is seven meters wide and nine meters long. It is equipped with a swing green boards, eight long tables in form of the letter "U" and twenty four chairs around them. The air conditioner hanged on the wall and four windows opened to the way where lorries park day and night.

The students meet for two hours twice a week; every Sunday and Tuesday afternoon from 1 to 3. Unfortunately, not all learners attend any lesson entirely. Most of them are interrupted and called out of class to repair equipment or

anything else. There are even subjects working at the administration who are sometimes sent for a training which lasts two weeks out of Ech-Chelif. Such events and others have bad effects on the learning process. Some declare “It is nonsense studying English because French is and has always been the most often language used in previous French colonies.” Some others are convinced that they are in need to review the very simple notions of English like the alphabet, cardinal and ordinal numbers, the use of definite and indefinite articles and so forth. Thus “speaking 134 million to teaching technical English for a period of 52 hours would not give measurable results.” Clearly affirms one subject of them.

According to these engineers, a lot of strong reasons prove their negative opinions about the English teaching course. First, it is just an experience of a short learning period of time. Second, the language data seen in class would be fruitless because of the absence of practice in real daily life. Third, family responsibilities are strong tights and would negatively affect the students’ language learning progress. Fourth, English as an international language mostly needed for scientific and technological purposes, an economic progress naturally deserve for more highly designed teaching materials than a board and a piece of chalk as whispers student. Finally, group of four engineers conclude, “Teaching technical English would be better grasped if it is taught in a more suitable environment, during much larger learning period of times where enough practice could be the main features using authentic teaching materials; like group/pair work, songs, and the use of conversation techniques.”

They believe that, experienced and well formed ESP practitioners would give measurable results. In the end, a depressed student sum up what his colleagues feel. “Teaching any foreign language with repeated noise from chimneys and lorries, is believed to be a discouraging factor, especially, if this program is taking place in a very hot summer season as in Ech-Chelif”

I.4. The Participants' Background

The participants in the syllabus have spent some years at the university where they have learnt technical English. In a meeting with the researcher they declare that they belong to various streams like civil engineering, computer science, mechanical hydrology and so on. English was not taught at it should be at the university. This fact is due to many reasons suiting their revealing. First, the students have English once a week for a period of one hour and half. They generally study it for two semesters. This occurs into two separated school years; either, third and fourth, fourth and fifth or second and fifth years as for civil engineering. During the first semester, a transition period of studies between general English and technical English takes place but is for most students not long (i.e., it varies from 4-8 sessions). A general review of grammar points previously seen in the secondary schools takes place. Student are provided with brief examples including tenses, active and passive forms, singular and revision, students of the above streams declare that a shift to technical English come in the form of terminology. It is the translation from French to English or vice-versa of the vocabulary specific to the students' field of study. Unfortunately, neither the reviewed notions of the secondary school nor the translated terminology are introduced into authentic materials. Such learning data need to be practiced into small groups to be more effective. The practice of the four skill (listen, speak, read and write) could be of great value to the learners. However, the students confirm that only writing and reading skills are the most often followed during their university studies of the first semester.

Testing the learners knowledge at the university generally takes the form of a scientific text, with comprehension questions, true or/ and false statement, and synonyms and antonyms to be found in the text. In the mastery of language, the students are provided with MCA, gap filling giving the right verb form ...etc. No essay writing is required at the end of the exam paper.

During the second semester, the learners are bound to prepare a “mini projet” at the end of their university English curricula. The allocated time is always one hour and half, once a week. English is viewed less important in comparison to the rest of modules. How can this international language, which scientists need in researches, students use in presentations, pilots communicate with and nearly 80% of its users are non-natives is valorized with coefficient one.

English in the scientific streams of the university studies is taught by engineers, MA Certificate holders and rarely doctors. These are the best informed in French because most of their studies have been with the first foreign language in Algeria. Few teachers had the opportunity to prepare their post graduate degrees in the UK or USA. Therefore, their knowledge of the English language both general and technical is limited. In addition to their pronunciation which is far from the native one, these teachers do their courses supported with experiments and explain the phenomenon in French. Later, they provide their students with equivalent vocabulary in English. Only one or two teachers had the chance to prepare this MA in America and encourage his learners to prepare a portfolio with the new lexis in English. These prominent teachers are aware of the role of English in the 21st century. They inform their learners that major part of their final exam will be to write a summary of their thesis in English.

When the Algerian engineer from scientific streams is poor in English and has a weak command of the world wide tool of communication it is nonsense asking him to interact positively with either native or non-native speaker at the workplace. If these students had little or no exposure to English of real situations it is foolish asking them to do miracles when they are face-to-face with people from developed countries nurtured with English language proficiency and linguistic competence. It is then, the Algerian teachers' role to solve their learners' psychological problems and give increasing efforts to select, introduce, and practice specific vocabulary in the learning process that will positively have effects on their learners.

Experience has proved that the learners, who are still acquiring a stock of basic vocabulary and simple grammatical structures, are presented with a new set of vocabulary related to the cultural topic. The challenge is then to use their precedent vocabulary knowledge in order to decode new meanings that will be stored latter on far future uses.

The question to ask at this point is: have those university teachers played their roles to enable their students to cope with new learning or vocational future situations? The answer may be unlimited number of graduate and postgraduate students who are unable to deliver a speech in English for ten minutes about a topic of social or professional context.

The participants in the ESP course at the E.C.D.E are a clear example of those people who are in constant need for technical English in order to function well at the workplace. For this purpose, the Ech-chelif has decided to have an ESP course designed by informed teachers who are aware of this students language needs at the workplace.

I.5. The Programme

After a number of sessions which the researcher has attended with the population of study, a striking revelation was made by the head of formation service. He declared that no programme was left at his desk. Curious as it is but that is the reality. The two teachers decided to divide the students into two sections. One group is going to do a whole review of the basis notes of the English language. They will go back to study again the English Alphabet, use of definite and indefinite articles, telling time, the often used tenses,...etc. On the other part, the second group who is supposed to have a remaining background from their university studies, will do a quick revision of the basic notions in General English first. Then, they will move to study more oriented scientific topics related to their field of interest.

This course is intended for students with intermediate and post intermediate levels of English proficiency. It focuses on promoting and improving basic language skills (listening and speaking) through gradual presentation of functional skills needed for technical communication.

The general goal of this course is to develop students' proficiency and bring it to a level where they can proceed to converse with non-native speakers at the workplace using specific technical terms. It is important to emphasize that this stock of active vocabulary should be directly linked to the various specialties such as mechanical and electrical maintenance, control measures,...etc.

I.6. Technical English Training

Intervening party: UFC-Ech-Chelif "Centre de Formation Universitaire de Ech-Chelif".

Date: May 16th, 2010.

Period: Three months.

Group:

Final exam: May 2011

Total amount: 1344 Kilos Algeria Dinars (134.400.000 Centimes).

Number of students: 80 People.

Student's school level: DEUA, BA and engineer.

The expected training expenses for the year 2010: 17.750 Kilos Algerian Dinars.

Actually spent: 12.029 KDA.

I.7. Technical English Course at the E.C.D.E

Technical English course for students with civil engineering and 'DEUA' university degrees working at the 'Enterprise of Cement and Derivatives of Ech-Chelif' during summer 2010.

I.D.2.Aim of the Course

The aim from the course is to encourage the students working at this cement company to do participative learning of the technical English or ESP related to their professional setting and help them in acquiring a conversational competence.

I.7.B Objectives of the Course

- To help learners improve their technical vocabulary and enable them to use those terms in different contexts.
- To familiarize learners with different rhetorical functions of technical English.
- To help learners develop listening skills for professional purposes.
- To help learners acquire the ability to speak effectively during meetings with non-natives at work.
- To help learners develop key techniques that could be adopted while reading scientific/ technical manuals.
- To develop aural competence and oral fluency of learners
- To help learners achieve proficiency in the effective technical use of language in various authentic career-related situations.

I.8. People's Need for Technical English in Algeria:

The Algerian society can now afford a lot of material goods in today's market than it used to be in the 1960s and 1970s. These materials are ranging from automobiles to cell phones. There is a nation growing, wide need for Technical English at home and among the general public, and people's need for technical skills in their daily work is then becoming more and more urgent.

Moreover, Algeria's imports are undergoing a change from simply cheap consumer goods to high-tech products, such as cars, refrigerators, TV's and DVD players. These general consumers require product instructions that are simple, clear and easy to follow. Hence, there is an increasing need for technical communicators who can write consumer-oriented documentations and instructions for those who must use the devices being manufactured and purchased for the increasing Algerian society. On the other hand, the Algerian companies must first understand

the western's exporters' of information products and spare parts for important factory's equipments and tools.

Since the products coming from advanced countries are usually accompanied by more effective user documents. So to perform their jobs correctly, the Algerian workers are involved in processes that require understanding and using technical documentation. By so doing, these workers should cope with western technical communication techniques and be able to use them at the workplace to carry out their jobs effectively.

I.9. Algeria's Development in Technical Communication

Algeria has already taken some steps in developing technical communication. This has started when Cambridge University provided language training and cultural training courses for managers from Anadarko BP who built up their operations in Algeria. Sonatrach has been an important and constant client of Language Solutions since 1997, when the instructors welcomed to their school in London the first group of students from the Oklahoma project.

The British opened their first school in the heart of the Algerian Energy industry in Hassi Messaoud in 2003, and have quickly established themselves as the training company of choice to many of the largest foreign companies and associations in Algeria, including Baker Hughes, BP/ISG, Burlington Resources, Halliburton, Schlumberger and Sonahess.

In 2004, they opened a second training centre, in Algiers, where they offer the same high quality services in private villa in a tranquil residential area.

In Algeria, the British are the only language school which has expatriate their mother-tongue English teachers who are both professionally qualified and have significant relevant experience. Those key members of staff supervise the content of all their teaching programmes, to ensure that their teaching methods and materials are right up to date.

In stead of sending students to Britain or other Anglophone countries, incurring significant travel accommodation costs, they bring Britain to their students, providing the same solutions right in the heart of Algeria:

- Basic English
- General English
- Business English
- Technical English for the oil and gas industry
- Specialist programme of English for HSE (Health, Safety and Environment)

All these programmes are taken in the form of immersion courses at the training centres, on-going training in-company, or via tutors “mise en disposition”, who are available to work on rotation on “bases de vie” through out Algeria.

In addition, they also offer a comprehensive package of training for IT (Information Technology) and HSE (Health, Safety and Environment) to complete the suite of their language training programmes.

I.10. Data Collection Methods for Programme Evaluation:

I.10.A. Observation

Observation as a research gathering tool is a way of collecting data by watching behavior, events, or noting physical characteristics in their natural setting. Observation can be overt (everyone knows they are being observed) or covert (no one knows they are being observed and the observer is concealed). The benefit of covert observation is that people are more likely to behave naturally if they do not know that they are being observed. However, a researcher will typically need to conduct over observations because of ethical problems related to concealing his/her observation.

Observation can also be either direct or indirect. Direct observation is when the researcher watches interactions, process, or behaviors as they occur in reality; for example, observing a teacher teaching a lesson from a written curriculum to determine whether they are delivering it with fidelity. Indirect observations are

when the researcher watches the results of interactions, process, or behaviors; for example, measuring the amount of plate waste left by students in a school cafeteria to determine whether a new food is acceptable to them.

I.10.A.1. When to use Observation for Evaluation

- **When trying to understand an ongoing process or situation:** Through observation the researcher can monitor or watch a process or situation that he/she is evaluating as it occurs.
- **When gathering data or individual behaviors or interactions between People:** Observation allows the researcher to watch people's behaviors and interactions directly, or watch for the results of behaviors or interactions.
- **When there is a need to know about a physical setting.** Seeing the place or environment where something takes place can help increase the understanding of the event, activity, or situation under evaluation. For example, it permits to observe whether a classroom or training facility is conducive to learning.
- **When data collection from individuals is not a realistic option.** If respondents unwilling or unable to provide data through questionnaires or interviews, observation is a method that requires little from the individuals for whom the researcher needs data.

I.10.A.2. How to Plan for Observations

- **Determine the focus.** The researcher thinks about the evaluation question (s) to be answered through observation and selects a few areas of focus for data collection.
- **Design a system of data collection:** Once the researcher has focused on his evaluation, the following step is to think about the specific items for which he/she wants to collect data and then determines how he/she will collect the information needed. There are three ways of collecting observation data. These three methods can be combined to meet the data collection needs.

- ✓ **Recording sheets and checklists** are the most standardized way of collecting observation data and include preset questions and responses. These forms are used for collecting data that can be easily described in advance.
- ✓ **Observation guides** list the interactions, process, or behaviors to be observed with space to record open ended narrative data.
- ✓ **Field notes** are the list standardized way of collecting observation data and do not include preset questions or responses. Field notes are open-ended narrative data that can be written or dictated onto a tape recorder.
- **Selection of sites.** An adequate number of sites can be selected to help ensure that they are representative of the larger population and will provide an understanding of the situation being observed.
- **Selection of observers.** The researcher can be the only observer or he/she may want to include others in conducting observations. Stakeholders, other professional staff members, graduate students, and volunteers are potential observers.
- **Training the observers.** It is critical that the observers are well trained in data collection process to ensure high quality and consistent data. The level of training will vary based on the complexity of the data collection and the individual capabilities of the observers.
- **Observation Scheduled.** Programs and process follow a sequence of events. The observation must be scheduled when observing the components of the activity that answer the evaluation questions. This requires advance planning.

I.10.A.3. Observation Advantages

- Collecting data where and when an event or activity is occurring.
- Does not consider people's willingness or ability to provide information.
- Allows to directly seeing what people do rather than relying on what people say they did.

I.10.A.4. Observation Disadvantages

- Susceptible to observer bias
- People usually perform better when they know they are being observed although indirect observation may decrease this problem.
- Can be expensive and time-consuming compared to other data collecting methods.
- Does not increase the understanding of why people behave as they do.

1.10.B. The Researcher's Observation

With the permission of both the head of the formation service at the E.C.D.E and the teachers in charge of the ESP English course, the researcher attends a number of language learning sessions. These sessions take place every Sunday and Tuesday afternoon. The first noticeable thing is that not all students attend the lessons. This fact may be due to the lack of appropriate learning materials that could reassure students and create the feeling of affective reactions towards the syllabus. The involvement of traditional teaching materials like the board, chalk, eraser and some printed exercises are certainly far from being an encouraging learning environment.

The teacher/designer needs to help students manage their anxiety and limit tensions caused by language learning. Mutual interaction, small-group work, interviews, role-plays, and practice can involve learners and motivate their interests for competitiveness and improve performance.

Many students get disappointed and lose interest in foreign language teaching except those who are well informed that the limited period of learning 2-4 hours for week is not enough to acquire the necessary technical vocabulary. Acquiring such terms would be oriented towards mastering skills for professional communication.

The content of the ESP designed course is dominated by the systematic study of grammar, the regular carrying out of translation exercises into and out of

language, the broad study of science texts. But the ability to speak the language is not emphasized as much as the ability to write, and, above all, the ability to read the language.

The collected taught English courses are duplicated with a number of courses, where the researcher makes direct observations, show that no group or pair work activities are held in the classroom. The observations together with the students' answers and written courses confirm that little or no exposure to authentic language by means of speaking activities related to the professional setting are made possible. The English teaching lessons remained teacher-centered with more teacher talk (TT) and less student talk (ST). Several courses, which the researcher attended, also indicate that the teaching/learning process during this training at work was a teacher-centered, grammar-focused.

The primary goal of the ESP course is to teach professional communicative competence that is the ability to communicate in English according to the situation, purpose and specific roles of the participants. The emphasis was on structure, grammar and translation.

The course contents reveal that the learner-centered English reform brought with ESP to enhance communication skills, professional and linguistic competence among students' attitudes are far more to be reached with the same still conducted classroom teaching in the teacher-fronted and grammar-oriented manner.

A very important point in ESP course is the necessity to teach the actual words to be studied, the topics to be discussed and learnt, and the basic grammar which must be developed suiting the learners' language needs. Unfortunately, what is taught in reality is divided into two parts for two different sections of students (A & B)

Section A: These are the majority of participants who have not mastered General English. They are now recycling the very simple grammar rules and parts of speech, using printed papers by their ESP teacher including the following:

Tue, May 24th, 2010.

- Shapes and figures: (e.g.,) Match the figure in column A with the names in column B.
- 2) Do the same with the following. Link figures to nouns
- 3) Look at the following pictures and fill in the blanks.

Sun, May 23rd, 2010

- Months of the year.
- Days of the week.
- Asking wh. questions about seasons. e.g. How many seasons are there in a year?
- Put “is” or “are” in these sentences.
- Reading numbers 6230.
- Telling the time.

Tue, June 8th, 2010

- Teaching Dimensions
 - How long, high, deep, wide, is?
- Preposition of place: to, in, at, by, on.
- Classify these words into nouns, verbs and adjectives.

Section B: This second section is the minority of participants who are supposed to have mastered General English. Now they are dealing with:

May 17th, 2010

Eight parts of speech: nouns, verb, prepositions, interjections, adverb, conjunctions, pronoun, and adjectives.

Definition of each part.

May 24th, 2010

- Definition of verbs
 - The present continuous
- Tenses
 - ob: only affirmative form is seen.

- Verb in sh, ch, o, x+ present simple Reg + Irreg verbs.
- The going to form

May 26th, 2010

- The simple Past tense.
- The Future Simple (affirmative and negative forms)
- The future continuous
- Pronouns
 1. Personal Pronouns
 2. Possessive pronouns.

May 31st, 2010

Interrogative pronouns

(who, whom, what)

3. Indefinite pronouns: all anybody nobody...etc.
4. Reflexive pronouns
Myself, yourself, ...etc.

- June 2nd, 2010

Adjectives

- The comparative
- The superlative
- similarity (as...as) → comparison of equality
- difference (not as...as) → comparison of inequality

I.11. The Questionnaire

Questionnaires are always the most widely data collecting instruments. They are always the most popular methods as they can be given hand in hand to

the respondents, or sent for a population living in various areas through telephone or internet.

Surveys are efficient expertise instruments used to convince colleagues or readers of some research hypotheses. When correctly designed, this method will be an excellent tool for both collecting and evaluating data. The following steps are to be followed whenever the survey instrument is developed

1. Establish the goals of the survey by determining the aim of what is to be learnt.
2. Determine your sampling design. In other words, who is to be asked and how will the respondents be sampled.
3. Choose your interview methodology. This means how the questions will be asked.
4. Design your questionnaire with a set of questions
5. Pre-test the questionnaire (i.e, the researcher tests the questions on a focus group).
6. Collect and enter the data (i.e, the information is gathered and converted into electronic format.
7. Clean and analyze the data. In other words, the data need to represent meaningful information rather than containing invalid values.
8. Produce and disseminate reports. (i.e, the researcher writes up the results and distributes them to his/her constituents promptly.

1.11.A. The Researcher's Questionnaire

The researcher designed first questionnaire and administrated it hand in hand to the students during a meeting at work. This is believed to be the most suitable method for data collection as prescribed by Ellis (2004). It aims at seeking the students' viewpoints concerning the importance of learning English for Specific Purposes, which is different in content and teaching techniques from that experienced in their studies of the secondary school or at the university. The students' evaluation is useful for the researcher to know whether they have played a crucial role in the design of the English curriculum or not. Moreover, the

respondents' answers when collected, would give a clear idea about the learner's language weaknesses to be covered and whether a needs analysis has been conducted before designing the ESP course and teaching materials.

The second questionnaire, however, is meant to evaluate the population's achievement at the end of the syllabus. It was administered to both students of the two sections during March 2010. It must be mentioned that after a period of one week of reflection, only 39 subjects gave their answers back. Furthermore, it is necessary to point out the students' most important need, after checking their answers, which is still to acquire a sufficient stock of technical terms often used and related to their field of work. Later, they would be confident enough to develop an efficient communicative competence. This would be prevalent in form of effective technical conversations which is of course people's most first and final objective in today's economic and scientific fields.

Conclusion

In this new millennium, people who speak English alongside other languages will outnumber those who speak it as a first language. There is also another belief of a language shift from those who speak English as foreign language (where there is no local model for English) to those who speak English as a second language. This will occur as English begins to penetrate new domains involving communication and foreign language skills not only for engineering candidates but for employers demanding new competencies. To this extent, English will be the linguistic bridge for engineers who apparently need to emphasise their communication skills.

Employers found that most graduates felt that they had gained problem solving skills, subject-specific knowledge, and improved decision-making abilities at work. Yet, much fewer felt that their graduate employers show low level of oral communication skills imparted during and after their studies. In fact, knowledge and technical know-how are clearly important, but these must be presented with convenient standards of communication skills, particularly oral.

With globalisation, communication skills training are becoming crucial especially for engineers and graduates in lack of opportunity need to have an understanding of international communication at professional settings. Therefore, the lack of sufficient communication skills serves only to undermine the status of the professional engineer. This in turn directly affects the economic and industrial progress.

English for Specific purposes has proved to be a world wide teaching movement which has come to make the students' language needs and future linguistic and professional aims come true. This language learning approach does not involve a particular kind of language teaching material or methodology. In fact, it involves the learners, the language required and the learning course content which are required on the primacy of need in ESP.

Needs analysis which is the corner stone of any ESP course helps the practitioner to design effective syllabus to cover the learners' weaknesses or prepare

them for future jobs or postgraduate studies. The learners can achieve their aims if affective classroom environment is available and authentic material is provided by the specialist to motivate his/her students.

Non-native students have not always the opportunity for English language exposure in every day situations. However, it is of the practitioner's major role to let space free for sufficient practice in precious course time.

By so doing, the ESP teacher will encourage native like language into the lessons to influence the classroom dynamic, provide a sense of security and validate the learner's experience.

Chapter Two

The Literature Review

Chapter II: The Literature Review

| | |
|---|----|
| Introduction | 30 |
| II.1. ESP and the Engineers' Oral Communication Skills | 30 |
| II.2. Definition of ESP | 32 |
| II.3. Classification of ESP | 35 |
| II.4. English Language Needs Analysis | 36 |
| II.5. Definition of English Language Needs Analysis..... | 37 |
| II.6. Syllabus and Course Design for ESP..... | 38 |
| II.7. Characteristics of ESP Course | 39 |
| D. Material Authenticity | 39 |
| E. Purpose Related Orientation..... | 40 |
| F. Self-Direction | 40 |
| II.8. The ESP Practitioner..... | 40 |
| II.9. English and Communication Skills for the Global Engineer..... | 44 |
| II.10. Speaking and Oral Communication | 45 |
| II.10.A. The Speaking Sub-Skills..... | 46 |
| II.10.B. Speaking and the Other Skills | 47 |
| II.10.B.1. Speaking Vs. Writing | 48 |
| II.10.B.2. Speaking Vs. Listening Comprehension..... | 49 |
| II.11. Need for a Communicative Use of English in Algeria | 51 |
| II.12. Definition and Characteristics of Conversation..... | 53 |
| II.12.A. Functions of Conversation | 55 |
| II.12.B. Conditions of conversations | 56 |
| II.13. The Conversational Act | 57 |
| II.14. Conversation in Foreign Language Teaching..... | 59 |
| II.15. Approaches to Teaching Conversation | 60 |
| D. The Indirect Approach | 60 |
| E. The Direct Approach..... | 61 |
| F. A Combination of the Direct and Indirect Approaches | 61 |

| | |
|---|----|
| II.16. Effective Conversation Course Content..... | 62 |
| II.17. Testing Effects on Conversation Classes..... | 63 |
| II.18. The Dichotomy in Conversation Classes..... | 64 |
| Conclusion | 66 |

Introduction

Oral communication fulfills an unlimited number of general and specific functions. These functions may be pedagogical, social or professional. Learning to speak is in fact an important goal in itself, for it equips students with a set of skills they can use for the rest of their lives. Speaking is the mode of direct communication most often practiced to express opinions, ask and offer explanations, make arguments, transmit information, and make impressions upon facts or people. Students need to speak well and convince others in their personal lives, social interactions and workplaces. They will have meetings, presentations to make, discussions and arguments to participate in, and groups to work with. If basic instruction and opportunities to practice effective speaking are available, students position themselves to accomplish a wide range of goals and be useful members of their social and workplace communities.

II.1. ESP and the Engineers' Oral Communication Skills

With globalization, calls have been made for students to be proficient in oral communication skills so that they can function effectively in professional settings. Oral communication and especially technical English conversation covers a wide area, ranging from formal to informal participation in teams and meetings in today's international affairs. Therefore, an English course for Science and Technology is included at the E.C.D.E; an Algerian cement company where students need technical terms and ways of including them in conversational competence at the workplace. Unfortunately, there appears to be little research available that provides a more precise understanding of the methods and approaches of teaching oral communication for students in professional contexts.

English teachers have been working with language learners (ELLS) all over the world. Their teaching is not efficient concerning the speaking skills. They provide the students with long lists of vocabulary and grammar with no effect in

real life. It is as if they were giving their students the tools but not the choice and the chance to use them.

In teaching grammar rules, teachers always provide the students with innumerable tests to measure the extent to which they have internalized those rules. This is obviously not enough. The next step should always encourage the students to use the tools ;(grammar, vocabulary...etc) they have been given to speak up and produce the language themselves. The idea is to find a more active way and adapt it to real life situations in order to satisfy the students' language needs.

The important thing to do to achieve such aim is to prepare highly motivating speaking activities for the students, with the teacher there only to provide them with information they might need. This mostly on vocabulary, and to clear up any doubts regarding pronunciation, intonation, etc.

English for Specific Purposes (ESP) is the language learning/teaching approach which focuses the learners' attention on the particular terminology/language and a communication skills required for a particular purpose. This purpose in ESP is always a professional career. They should be able to express or speak about them fluently. Engineers in the current globalised environment are in a clear necessity for effective English communication skills. A course in English for Specific Purposes (ESP) will enhance English language training and engineering students' communicative skills required in international professional field. In deed, deficiency in communication skills may result in barriers for graduates' personal and professional development. It will undermine the image of the engineer in various business and economic fields.

Engineers can relate the same theories of mathematics, mechanics, and technology, but the modern engineer must also be to communicate effectively in a shared tongue. This is especially important given that engineering projects are now planned and implemented across national and cultural borders.

The concept of ESP achieves more in the education of engineering students by focusing the learners' attention on the particular terminology and

communicative skills required in the professional settings. Various examples in the engineering field can be found, including computer science, maritime engineering's sea speaks, aviation's air speaks and the railway's rail speaks.

Teaching English to engineers is a delicate and demanding matter in terms of content, methods and techniques, and deciding which better suit this particular area of engineering and English. That is the aim of any interdisciplinary course to develop using English as a means to master relevant communication and professional skills.

To achieve this goal, the ESP practitioners have to plan the course they teach and provide authentic materials for it. Their role is to work closely and collaborate with the learners, who are in fact more aware about the specialised subjects they study.

These practitioners are left free to develop original materials and choose directly the most appropriate for their learners' needs. Finally, the ESP experts are likely to be involved in evaluation and testing to measure the effectiveness of the language course content which was based on the primacy of need in ESP.

II.2. Definition of ESP:

ESP (English for Specific Purposes) has been defined by a lot of writers and researchers. Makay and Mountfold (1978) suggested that the term ESP is generally used to refer to the teaching and learning of English for a clear specific utilitarian purpose. EL Minway (1984) discovered that ESP courses are based completely upon the need to express the ideas and facts of some special subjects. The learners are exposed to learning specific skills and language needed for a particular purpose. The Purpose in ESP is always a professional purpose- a set of skills that these learners currently need in their work or will need in their professional careers. They should be able to express or speak about them fluently. This definition can be taken to include business skills, such as English for job-hunting or presentation but many ESP teachers see their field as distinct from mainstream

business English. Preparation for an exam (such as the Cambridge PET or First Certificate) is not usually considered to be ESP (even though there is a particular reason for studying). ESP exams do exist, of course, but they tend to focus on the learners' ability to function effectively at work, rather than their level of English. In addition, ESP was better defined by Hutchinson and Waters in (1987) as an approach to language teaching in which all decisions as to content and method are based on the learners' need for learning. They added that the term ESP implies that, it is English which is peculiar to the range of principles and procedures which define that peculiar profession.

Stevens' (1988) definition of ESP is more comprehensive when he makes a distinction between four absolute characteristics and two variable characteristics. The absolute characteristics are that ESP consists of English Language Teaching which is:

- § Designed to meet specified needs of the learners;
- § Related in content (that is in its themes and topics) particular disciplines, occupation and activities;
- § Centred on language appropriate to those activities in syntax, lexis, discourse semantics and so on , and analysis of the discourse;
- § In contrast with 'General English'

The variable characteristics are that ESP

- § May be restricted as to the learning skills to be learned (for example reading only);
- § May not be taught according to any pre-ordained methodology.

Robinson (1991) also accepts the primacy of needs analysis in defining ESP. Her definition found to be true of ESP. Her first key criterion is that ESP is 'normally goal-directed. Her second one is that ESP courses develop from a needs analysis, which aims to specify as closely as possible what exactly it is the students have to do through the medium of English' (Robinson, 1991:3) Her characteristics are that ESP courses are generally constrained by a limited time period, in which

objectives have to be achieved, and are taught to adults in homogenous classes in terms of the work or specialist studies that the students are involved in.

Each definition has validity but also weakness; either in the definition or in the features described. Strevens' definition is the most comprehensive one but it can lead to certain confusion. By referring to content I the second absolute characteristics it may confirm the wrong impression held by many teachers that ESP is always and necessarily related directly to subject content. On his turn Robinson sees that homogenous classes as a characteristic of ESP may lead to the same conclusion.

Dudley-Evans and St. John stress two aspects of ESP methodology in his definition ;(all ESP teaching should select the methodology of the disciplines and profession it serves; and in more specific ESP teaching the nature of the interaction between the teacher and learner may be very different from that in a general English class. This is what we mean that when we say that specific ESP teaching has its own methodology (1998:4). Both emphasise that the use of language is a defining feature of ESP. In addition, the activities related to students' needs analysis generate and depend on registers, genres and associated language the students need to manipulate in order to carry out the activity. They use absolute and variable characteristics in their definition.

1. Absolute characteristics

§ ESP is designed to meet specific needs for the learner;

§ ESP makes use of the underlying methodology and activities of the discipline it serves;

2. Variable characteristics

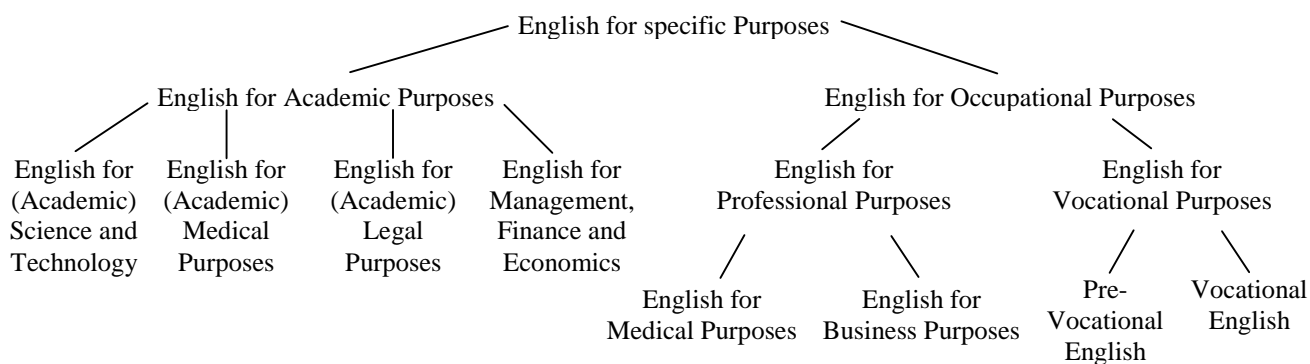
§ ESP may be related to or designed for specific discipline;

§ ESP may use, in specific teaching situations, a different methodology from that of General English;

- § ESP is likely to be designed for adult learners, either at tertiary level in situation or in a professional work situation. It could, be however, be used for learners at secondary school level;
- § ESP is generally designed for intermediate or advanced students. Most ESP courses assume basic knowledge of the language System, but it can be used with beginners. (1998, pp.4.5).

II.3. Classification of ESP:

The ESP specialists have agreed upon many abbreviations that have been used in describing ESP terms, such as EAP, EOP, EST, and EDP. ESP has traditionally been divided into two main areas: English for Academic Purposes (EAP) and English for Occupational Purposes (EOP). The classification of ESP is generally presented in a tree diagram and divides EAP and EOP according to discipline or professional areas as shown in the following:



ESP classification by Professional Area (by Dudley-Evans & St.John)

In EAP, English for Science and Technology (EST) has been the main area, but English for medical Purposes (EMP) and English for legal Purposes (ELP) have always had their place. In recent years and due to the word Economic flourish and seek for progress, the academic study of business, finance, banking, economics and accounting has become increasingly important, especially on Masters in Business

Administration (MBA) courses, but no specific acronym has been established for such courses.

The term EOP does not refer to academic purposes. It includes professional Purposes in administration, medicine, law and business, & vocational purposes for non-professionals in work or pre-work situation. The distinction between studying the language and discourse of, for example, medicine for academic purposes designed for medical students, and studying for occupational (professional) purposes designed for practising doctors is obvious. English for Business Purposes is always seen as a category belonging to EOP. EBP is sometimes viewed as separate from EOP as it involves a lot of General English as well as English for Specific Purposes, and may be because it is also seen as a large and important category. A business purposes is, of course, an occupational purposes and logically belongs to EOP.

This classification also distinguishes between two sections of English for Vocational Purposes (EVP). Vocational English which is concerned with the language for training for specific trades or occupations, and Pre-Vocational English concerned with finding a job and interview skills.

Another distinction should be made between common-core English for General Academic Purposes (EGAP) and English for Specific Academic Purposes (ESAP) (Blue, 1988 a). A similar distinction can be made between English for General Business Purposes (EGBP) and English for Specific Business Purposes (ESBP) (Dudley-Evans and St John, 1996).

II.4. English Language Needs Analysis

This section discusses the definition of language needs analysis, types of English language needs, methods of collecting data of need analysis, English for specific purposes (ESP) syllabus, and course design for ESP.

Needs Analysis (also known as needs assessment) is the corner stone of ESP and has a vital role in the process of designing and carrying out any language course. In the field of language program planning, needs analysis generally refers to

systematic and ongoing process of collecting information about learners' needs, interpreting the information and then making course decision for developing a curriculum that will meet the needs of a particular group of students. In fact, it is the teachers' or practitioners most important duty to do this investigation to pave the way for a suitable course design and an effective language learning/ teaching process.

II.5. Definition of Language Needs Analysis

Needs analysis is a very precious tool in identifying where the learners are and where they should be.

A lot of practitioners define language needs analysis is based on the work of Nunan (1991), Bachman and Paler (1992), and Brown (1995), in which they define it is a set of tools, techniques and procedures for determining the language needs content and learning process that invokes systematic gathering of specific information about the language needs to meet the learning needs of a particular group of learners. These needs must be satisfied by suitable teaching methods based on curriculum and context.

Needs analysis is a method where much time and effort are spent by practitioners in gathering responses that will be interpreted to know exactly what they are trying to find out and what they will do with answers before they start (Berwick, 1989:6). This section discusses the types of needs related to the group of learners.

The first two types of needs taken into account for needs analysis of an ESP course design are target needs and learning needs (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987).

1.a Target needs refer to what the learner needs to do with language in the target situation. Hutchinson and Water describe the target needs in terms of necessities, lacks and wants. Necessities are what the learner has to know in order to perform effectively in the target situation. Thus, it is a matter of observing the exiting proficiency of the learners i.e., the learner needs to know the linguistic features- discursal, functional, structural, and lexical- which is usually used in such

situation. The ESP teacher needs to know what the learner already knows to decide which of the necessities the learner lacks. These lacks are what the learner already knows. In other words, lacks are the gaps between the target proficiency and the existing proficiency of the learners. Wants can be considered as the learner perception of his or her needs or what the learner feels he needs.

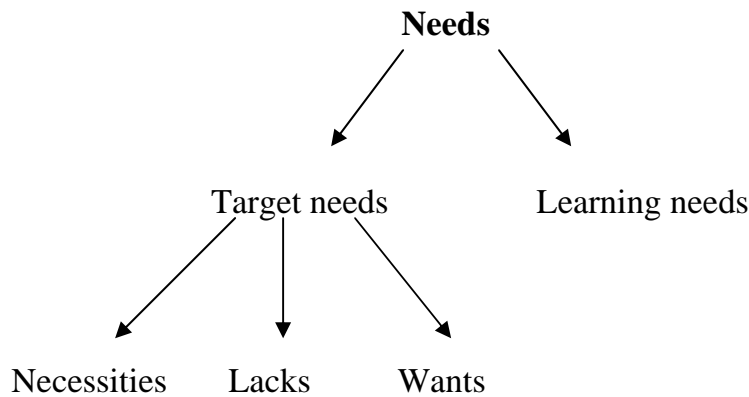


Fig2: Hutchinson and Water's Taxonomy of NA.

1.b. Learning needs are known as what the learners need to do in order to learn. The learning needs include all factors in relation to the process of learning, such as attitudes, motivation and awareness, personality, learning styles and strategies, and social background.

Both target situation needs and learning needs are crucial for ESP course design. They have an influence on the nature of the syllabus, materials, methodology, and evaluation procedures. In research studies, the researcher can examine needs, problems, wants and other implementation factors by investigating the target situation and learning situation in order to adjust the new information for learners.

II.6. Syllabus and Course Design for ESP

An ESP syllabus is a plan of work or a guideline and context which is essential for the planner in learning content. When the learners are shown the syllabus this may contribute in driving a clear idea in their minds about how the individual lessons fit together.

Robinson (1991) has a similar point of view about ESP course design. He maintains that the course design is the product of a dynamic interaction of a number of elements such as: the results obtained from the needs analysis, the course designers, although there can be constraints by previous practices institutional exigencies, and personal predilection. An ESP course generally requires appropriate managerial as well as pedagogical expertise. The syllabus design stage should be viewed as a step forward in the total process of course design. Syllabus design must experience a whole development in learning materials and methodology.

II.7. Characteristics of ESP Courses

Carter (1983 as cited in Gatehouse 2001) identifies three characteristics of an ESP course-which will be discussed below.

- a) Authentic material,
- b) Purpose-related orientation, and
- c) Self-direction

A. Material Authenticity

Authenticity of text or teaching materials is the production of either written or spoken real texts. These are designed by native speakers for a real audience (Morrow, 1977, p.13) to convey a real message of some sort. (Harmer, 1983, p146) A rule of thumb for authenticity here is any material which has not been specifically produced for the purpose of language teaching, but for the speakers of the language in question. (Nunan, 1989, p.54) points out that a recent trend in language teaching and learning has been the growing concern with authentic texts (Lyench1982). Authentic texts have been proved to be effective teaching/learning materials mostly used by ESP course designers.

B. Purpose related Orientation

If refers the simulation of communicative tasks required of the target setting. Carter (1983) cites student simulation of a conference, involving the preparation of papers, reading, note-taking, and writing.

C. Self-Direction

It is a characteristic of ESP courses The“... point of including self-direction...is that ESP concerned with turning learning into users” (Carter, 1983,p-134 as cited in Gatehouse 2001). To let space free for self direction to occur, the learners must have a certain degree of freedom to decide when, what and how they will study.

II.8. The ESP Practitioner:

The role of the ESP teacher or expert differs from those of the General English teacher .He has additional roles. With some reasonable justifications, Swales (1985) prefers to use the term of ESP practitioners instead of ESP teachers to reflect this specific scope. Several researchers regard ESP teaching as extremely varied, and for this reason they use the term practitioners rather than teachers to emphasize that ESP teaching involves much more than writing. According to Dudley-Evans and St John (1998), the ESP practitioner has five key roles:

- Teacher
- Collaborator
- Course designer and material provider
- Evaluator.

Robinson(1991)stated that the ESP teacher does not only teach, very often, he is involved in designing, setting up and administering the ESP course-During and at the end of the course, the ESP expert is likely to be involved in evaluation and testing.

At the beginning of any project of teaching an ESP course, there is a question of choosing native or non-native expert or teacher. The decision to select an expert is mainly on the basis of his/her willingness and ability to cooperate in a language – oriented project.

The primary requirement in the choice of non-native speaker as a teacher is a peer-recognized ability to perform his/her duty satisfactory in English. The emphasis is than put on communicative ability rather than on correctness, although correct communication is, of course, the assigned goal. As noted by Mohan (1981:28) “What matters in language acquisition is the competence to produce acceptable sentences and to weave them into meaningful pieces of composition”.

Teachers nowadays are much more aware of the importance of their role as ESP practitioners. They are no more the slaves of the published textbooks available for a particular discipline. ESP teachers use an ESP approach which differs totally from General English. They conduct a needs analysis to find out what is necessary to actually be achieved. The published textbooks have improved dramatically allowing the practitioners to select materials which closely match the goals of their learners. Perhaps this demonstrates the influence that the ESP approach has had on English teaching in general. The line between where ‘General English’ courses stop and ESP courses start has become very vague indeed.

Basing their syllabi on their learners’ needs analysis and their own specialist knowledge of using English for real communication, many so-called ESP teachers are using an approach furthest from that described above. They are usually unable to rely on their personal experiences when evaluating materials and considering course goals. This fact is often obvious with teachers who often come from a background unrelated to the discipline in which they are asked to teach. At the university level, for example, they are also unable to rely on the views of the learners, who tend not to know what English abilities are required by the profession they hope to enter. The result is that many ESP practitioners are teaching from textbook which may be quite unsuitable.

In Contrast, when the needs analysis normally conducted to reach the necessary goals which experienced practitioners have aimed at achieving with an ESP course, and effective teaching materials have been provided, the collaboration between these practitioners and their learners is often obvious. Such comprehension shows how far the learners on an ESP course know more about the subject they are dealing with better than their teachers. This is an additional fact which makes ESP different from General English. However, there are three key strategies open to ESP teachers whose knowledge of the specific subject is limited: honesty and openness, preparation and confidence.

- Honesty and openness are about managing expectation. ESP teachers never pretend to be something they are not. They are not afraid to tell their learners that they are unfamiliar with the specific subject. These specialists should have the ability to describe what they do and why in language non-specialist will understand. They are like doctors who are explaining medical procedures to their patients or engineers explaining to their clients why a project cannot be fully completed in less than six months. By doing so, the specialists are actually considered as the starting point to their learners in developing that essential skill. Learning should be a joint process based on the practitioners' expertise in language and methodology and the learners' subject knowledge.
- Preparation might include learning as much about the learners' professional field as the practitioners can: research before the course; careful planning of the language and problems that are likely to come up in a lesson; strategies to deal with vocabulary problems that can't be solved during the lesson; and a commitment to learn, actively, the learners' specialisation in order to be more prepared next time.
- Finally, ESP teachers/practitioners need to be more confident that they have the skills that will help their learners, such as knowledge of how to make learning successful, how to make language memorable, and how to motivate learners. In

other words, an ESP teacher with strong methodology but limited subject is always better and more effective than a subject specialist with no knowledge of the methodology.

Dudley Evans describes the true ESP teacher or ESP practitioner (Swales, 1988) as needing to perform five different roles. These are 1) Teacher, 2) Collaborator, 3) Course designer and material provider, 4) Researcher and 5) Evaluator. The first role as 'teacher' is synonymous with that of the 'General English' teacher. It is in the performing of the other four roles that differences between the two emerge. The ESP practitioner must first work closely with field specialists in order to meet the specific needs of the learners' methodology and activities of the target discipline. One example of the important results that can emerge from such collaboration is reported by Orr (1995). This collaboration, however, does not have to end at the development stage and can extend as far as teach teaching, a possibility discussed by John et al. (1988). When team teaching is not a possibility, the ESP practitioner must collaborate more closely with the learners, who are in fact more aware with the subject or specialized materials than the teacher him or herself.

Both 'General English' teachers and ESP practitioners are often required to design courses and provide materials. How specific should those materials be is of course one of the main controversies in the field of ESP. Hutchinson (1987:165) support materials that cover a wide range of field, arguing that the grammatical structures, functions, discourse, structures, skills, and strategies of different disciplines are identical. More recent research has shown that this is not always to be the case. Hansen (1988), for example, describes clear differences between anthropology, and sociology texts, and Anthony (1988) shows unique features of writing in the field of engineering. Topics from multiple disciplines are mostly used by many ESP teachers. This makes much of the material redundant and perhaps even confusing the learners as to what is appropriate in the target field. Therefore, a lot of practitioners are left free to develop original materials. This is how the ESP

practitioners' role as 'researcher' is important in choosing directly appropriate materials for his learners' needs.

The final role as 'evaluator' has been most neglected by ESP practitioners. As John et al. (1991) describe, there have been few empirical studies that test the effectiveness of ESP course. For example, the only evaluation of the non compulsory course reported by Hall et al. (1976:158) is that despite carrying no credits, "students continue to attend despite rival pressures of a heavy programme of credit courses". On the other hand, recent work such as that of Jenkins et al. (1993) suggests increasing interest in this area of research.

II.9. English and Communication Skills for the Global Engineer

English has become the most widespread accepted language in the world. It is the first language for many countries such as the United Kingdom, Ireland, USA, Canada, Australia, New Zealand, Guyana, Jamaica and others. As a second language, is also widespread in countries in Central and Eastern Europe, and English is taught as part of multilingual education in India; South Africa, Singapore and others.

This phenomenal advance around the planet shows why it is most widely spoken and/or the most widespread. The number of people who speak English with at least some degree of proficiency exceeds any other language on Earth. This is particularly important for the engineering students as this indicates that English will be more used in international business, diplomacy, and science and the professions. It is through this method that English appears to be spreading the most if compared by immigration and settlement in the past.

English is often the prime means for communication between people from different cultures even if it is not their native tongue. For example, French engineers in English during the recent building of the Cairo subway. Also, a collaboration at Airbus industries between English, French, Germany and Spanish companies utilised English as the communication medium between workers. An

unusual example is the Swedish transport manufacturer Volvo, which has made English the language for managers at its new plant in South Korea, with English lessons being taken by some employers during production breaks.

A few institutions in non-English speaking nations offer in engineering courses English. These include the Technical University of Denmark, the Technical University of Lodz in Poland; the Technical University of Budapest in Hungary, and several German universities. These institutions and others are meeting the demands of industry by contributing to the language needs of the global engineer. In addition, an increase in English medium distance learning programmes supplied by western countries is seen in emerging economies. This includes online education links being recently sought by Malaysia and Singapore.

II.10. Speaking and Oral Communication

Speaking a foreign language is the aim of any previous planned syllabus. Learners need to interact in social and institutional settings. They want to show their linguistic power in expressing their feelings, thoughts, beliefs and information exchange, to refer to an action or event in the past, present or future. Speaking is known to be an active productive skill. Widdowson (1978: 57) suggest that:

“Although it might be convenient to represent the language skill in this way when considering usage, it is not especially helpful, and indeed might be positively misleading to present them in this way when considering use.”

Speaking was conceived as the knowledge of linguistic rules i.e., language ‘usage’ rather than the way it realizes a full communication. However, speaking a foreign language is especially difficult for foreign language learners because effective oral communication requires the ability to use language appropriately in social interactional settings. Diversity in interaction involves not only verbal communication but also paralinguistic elements of speech such as pitch, stress, and

intonation. In addition non-linguistic elements such as gestures and body language/posture, facial expression, and so on may accompany speech or convey message directly without any accompanying speech. On the other hand, as Brown (1994: 421) states “there is tremendous variation cross-culturally and cross-linguistically in the specific interpretation of gestures and body language.

Adult EFL learners in general are relatively poor in spoken English, especially regarding fluency, control of idiomatic expression, and understanding of cultural pragmatics as a consequence to minimal exposure to the target language and contact with native speakers. Only few can achieve native like proficiency in oral communication.

II.10.A. The Speaking Sub-Skills:

Speaking has its own sub-skills which are different from other skills. A proficient speaker should be able to synthesize this array of skills and knowledge to achieve a successful interaction with participants in day-to-day situations. Finocchiaro and Brumfit (1983: 140), state that learners have to:

- a) Think of ideas they wish to express, either initiating a conversation or responding to a previous speaker;
- b) Change the tongue, lips and jaw position in order to articulate the appropriate sounds;
- c) Be aware of the appropriate functional expressions, as well as grammatical, lexical, and cultural features to express the idea;
- d) Be sensitive to any change in the 'register' or style necessitated by the person (s) to whom they are speaking and situation in which the conversation is taking place;
- e) Change the direction of their thoughts on the basis of the other person's responses.

Language teachers' role is to create a friendly atmosphere and best suitable interactive activities to facilitate learning process and enhance oral proficiency. Group work and role play are examples of real stimulating techniques for language learners. The aim is to get the students involved in oral interaction: asking and

answering questions, agreeing and disagreeing certain proposed topics. It is through such tasks that researchers believe many aspects of both linguistic and communicative competence are developed (Bright & McGregor, 1970).

Furthermore, when language teachers design cooperative skills, they provide authentic materials for their learners and help them in acquiring the above sub-skills. This leads the students to be aware of what, how, why, when and to whom they should say something.

II.10.B. Speaking and the Other Skills:

The language teacher when dealing with the four skills: speaking, listening, reading and writing focus his / her attention on one skill at a time. All language teaching courses are nearly very common. In one lesson special attention is paid to speaking more than the other skills, in another focus is on writing and so on. This reflects the objectives of the traditional methods followed by teachers to cover the apparent learners' needs in a language course. Though, the four skills seem to be often treated separately, they are interrelated. The diagram below shows how all four skills are actively related.

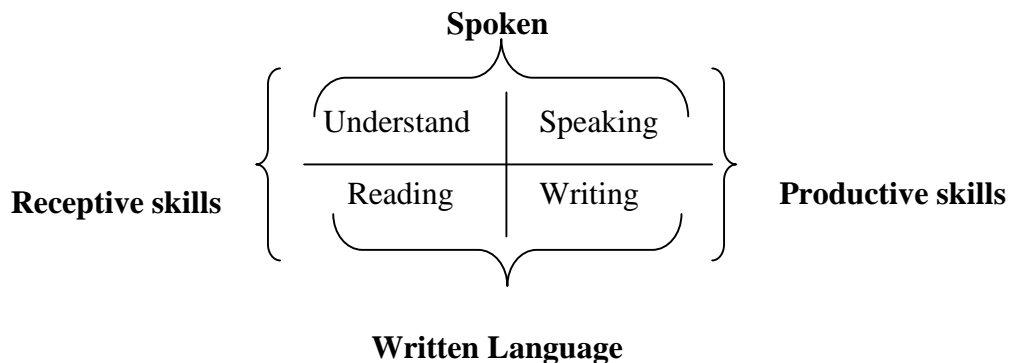


Diagram 1: Inter-relationship of the four skills (Down Byrne 1976).

Listening and reading are viewed as "receptive skills" because they are useful resources of experience. It is through them that learners acquire new knowledge. Speaking and writing are called "productive skills". As they convey

active participation and feedback from the language learners in the target language. They are necessary to foster development and reinforce learning.

II.10.B.1. Speaking Vs. Writing:

Brown and Yule (1983: 20) start discussing the nature of speaking with a distinction between spoken and written language. They point out that historically speaking language teaching has always been concerned with teaching the written language. This language is characterized by well-formed sentences integrated into highly structured paragraphs. Spoken language, on the other hand, contains short and often fragmentary utterances, in a range of pronunciation. Repetition and overlap between one speaker and another is of a great deal.

Speech is different from writing in that the speaker does not produce full sentences when speaking. These are termed utterances rather than sentences. They are short phrases and clauses usually connected with conjunctions "and", "or", "but" or may not be joined by any conjunctions but simply spoken next to each other with possible short pauses in between. The spoken language is often simpler than the written one which includes long sentences with dependent and subordinate clauses. The written language is organized into paragraphs and complete texts. Speakers in some situations use less specific vocabulary than written language. Obvious examples can be the use of 'things', 'it' and 'this'. They often use syntax in a loosely organized manner and a set of fillers such as: 'well', 'oh' and 'uh'. This makes spoken language less conceptually dense than other types of language like expository prose.

According to Harmer (2005) other important features differentiate speaking from writing. One of them can be the audience to whom one is writing is not always present and may be unknown in most cases. Another is when writing, full information has to be found on the page. The reader may not interact with another one to clarify some ambiguous ideas. However in speaking, there is often an opportunity for interaction with other participants where speech can be modified suiting the topic or reaction of the other side.

Durability is another important feature that lies between the two productive skills (speaking and writing). The writing language remains graven for years and even centuries in papers, books, magazines ... etc. This form of language lives more than any other form of spoken language in form of sounds which vanishes at the moment of speaking. It can last only when it is recorded and can have the same influence on the hearer, but still the writing lasts longer as it is a tool that records very old events.

Similarities that lie between writing and speaking as Lindsay and Knight (2006: 10) state is that people's speech differs suiting the reason why it occurs and to who it is directed.

Accordingly, with written language, the kind of writing can vary suiting the reason why it is written and for whom.

As a conclusion, it is necessary to mention that even though spoken language does not live longer and is expressed in few utterances it must not be seen as inferior to the written one because it is an important element of language learning and a tool of communication between people. It is thanks to spoken language that various interactions happen in different fields facilitating the shift of ideas and meanings between interlocutors. At the end spoken language is an unchangeable means of people's daily interactions and can never be seen as less important.

II.10.B.2. Speaking vs. Listening Comprehension :

Foreign language teachers (FLT's) should know that more class learning time must be devoted to develop oral productive skills and listening or understanding cannot be left without enough care. Avery and Ehrlich (1992: 36) distinguish in their book on listening between reciprocal and non-reciprocal listening. Information transfer is in only one direction into non-reciprocal listening when listening to radio or formal lectures. The information always moves from the speaker to the audience or listener. On the other hand, reciprocal listening occurs with tasks when there is an opportunity for the listener to interact with the speaker and to negotiate

the content of that interaction. They emphasise on the active function of listening. Byrne (1976: 8) states that the listening skill is as important as the speaking one, because there is a positive function to perform from both the speaker and listener. Since full communication is in fact an interrelationship between speaker and listener during a face-to-face interaction. Listening is an active process as states by Nunan (1989: 23).

"We do not simply take language in like a tape-recorder, but interpret what we hear according to our purpose in listening and our background language."

The listener identifies and selects precise spoken signals from a great number of surrounding sounds, to segment the signals into known words, analyses syntax and extra meaning and hem responds appropriately to what has previously said.

The listener's attention will be usually focused on the meaning rather than the produced form of sounds. Hence, listening involve two models: bottom-up and top-down model. Bottom-up models work on the received message by decoding sounds, words, clauses and sentences. Moving up from smaller to larger units in order to obtain meaning and modify one's prior knowledge.

Top-down model use background knowledge to assist in comprehending the message (Nunan, *ibid*). Receptive but not passive, listening is an active skill because it requires from the listener not simply to hear utterances but to listen and to understand what has been said.

The mother tongue experience can be useful in learning. The scope of listening comprehension should play an integral part in the speaking skills consider what will happen in case the learners try to use target language outside the classroom and where they are exposed to natural speech into a reel life situation. Understanding will break down almost immediately. Furthermore, poor

understanding of the target language often results in the listeners' nervousness which will consequently inhibit speech. This simply originates from our exposure of the learners to those samples of spoken language (dialogue or teacher talk) which is really not sufficient.

Eventually the learners are not provided with enough models of oral production. Byrne (1976: 9) gives two main reasons why this is inadequate:

- a) The learners' ability to understand a foreign language needs to be considerably extensive and comfortable and therefore they can communicate effectively. Thus, the teacher has to provide the learners with a broad receptive base.
- b) The learners need appropriate varied models of natural speech. Thus, the listeners should be taught to listen to the target language as well as to speak it.

As a summary it is necessary to say that both the listening and the speaking skills have a special moment in the communicative movement. Full communication takes place when the listening and the speaking skill develop in parallel.

II.11. Need for a Communicative Use of English in Algeria:

English enjoys a great importance not as an international but as a world language. It is spoken by 508 million people ranking in the second place as far as the number of its speakers. It is the world's language not because it is the most widely spoken as a native language - Mandarin (1 billion speakers), but because it is widely used outside its native countries either as a second or as a foreign language. The need for English rises from its overuse rather than from the number of its speakers.

"English is the major language of news and information in the world. It is the language of business and government even in some countries where it is a minority language. It is the language of maritime communication and international air traffic control, and it is used even for internal air traffic control in countries where it is not a native language. American popular culture primarily movies and music carries the English Language throughout the world." (Kitaok 1996: 1).

The above reasons and others are behind the importance of the English Language. ESP comes to cover the need to it in nearly every field everywhere in the world. In Algeria, for example, almost no faculty in the Algerian university is free from an English department. The teaching of English in this country is inspired by the national policy. It is actually taught in middle, secondary schools and most national universities. It has been taught as a first foreign language instead of French as an experience for few years in the fourth form of the primary education. The learners' parents motivated their children to learn this language, and the learners themselves achieved very efficient results with the world's most spoken language. Many teachers observed great enthusiasm at the level of both learners and parents toward English learning curriculum. English has been viewed as a worldwide tool of communication. It appears in different fields and means of communication: i.e., the web, telephone, fax, for tourist guides, academic presentation and international conferences, etc.

Algeria enjoys a linguistic plurality. The population uses both Tamazight and dialectal Arabic in everyday life, whereas classical Arabic is the national language used in administrations and media. Unfortunately this did not succeed to make French, which has settled Algeria since 1830, disappear from daily interactions of aged people in socio cultural environments. In addition to the over use of the French language in the economic context such as official documents related to factories like Sonatrach, Sonelgaz, ...etc, and technical is viewed as a foreign language in Algeria, is found mainly in schools and universities. Students embrace it and see it as an easier language to learn better than many other languages namely French, Spanish, German, ...etc. They meet English only in the classroom. However, in social settings, there appear to be a great interest in using English in various contexts including youth's communication in cybercafés, using references in English to prepare university theses and corresponding with pen-pals. Such interest may lead to reduce French interference claimed by Miliani:

“In a situation where French language has lost much of its ground in the socio cultural and educational environments of the country; the introduction of English is being heralded as the magic solution to all possible ills-including economic, technological and educational ones”

(Miliani2000:13)

“Whatever the cause may be, English is taught in state schools and universities as well as in private institutions and national factories. This has been a clearer phenomenon since the beginning of the 21st century.”

In Algeria as well as abroad, university teachers with MA degrees and aiming at getting their doctorate are in constant need to English for deep reading of new issues, which are mainly written in English. Therefore, their researches, theses, or proposals must be written and presented in this language.

This growing importance of English has increased the need for establishing new language syllabuses in vocational schools in addition to public ones in Algeria. These syllabuses prepare the students to be fluent enough in speaking and writing skills for future opportunities of job or to improve their level and get a promotion for those who are now in the field of work, such as in banks, insurances and technicians in industrial, agricultural fields, and so on. Those language teaching programs are designed to cover learners' deficiencies mainly in spoken and written English. This is obvious as the business sector has increased job competition by demanding English-skilled employees. Nonetheless, to know how to become conversationally competent, the nature of conversation teaching must be examined to better answer the ESP learners' needs. This will be discussed in the following.

II.12. Definition and Characteristics of Conversation:

Conversation is "a type to speech event" (Hymes in Richards,1980: 14) which is quite different from other types of speech such as interviews, dialogues, lectures, courtroom trial and discussion. Conversation is constructed cooperatively and is

based on the contributions, assumptions, and interpretation of the participants' utterances (Richards, 1980: 414; Gumperz, 1999: 101). Awareness of differing assumptions, expectations and interpretations would be vital to hear conversation in a cross cultural classroom. So being cooperative, conversation tends to become a negotiated, self-regulated process (Van Lier, 1989: 499; Nunan, 1999:226, Sayer,2005: 17) which is segmental created through participants' short and frequent turn-taking that consists of phrases and clauses (Cook, 1989: 51; Thornbury and Slade; 2006; 13). Active monitoring is necessary to link utterances together (Brazil, 1992:4) and it is maintained through active listening (Carter, 1998:47).In so doing, this interaction shows that there is equal right between the participants in producing utterances (Sayer; 2005: 16). However, the conversational flows may be inhibited when age differs or academic year happens between students.

Interactive rules and routines drive this cooperative discourse (Dörnyei and Thurrell, 1992: 3, 1994:42) and guide the volume, silent intonation, conventional language, information and norms of interaction organization is culture-bound as conversational routines are implemented differently in various countries (Taylor and Wolfson, 1978:272; Richards, 19980: 419). Dörnyei and Thurrell (1992 and 1994) highlight the features of conversational routines as being openings and closing, turn-taking mechanisms and adjacency pairs such as greetings and apologies.

Conversational language also enables various situations such as coming into a conversation, holding listeners' interest, subject changing, and getting out of conversation smoothly. These routines are recognized through special words and phrases to make conversation cohesive which means that conversation is made up of linguistic features (Richards and Sukwiwat, 1983: 114). Corpora data of authentic spoken language has revealed distinctive grammatical and lexical features as being the linguistic characteristic of conversation (Carter and McCarthy, 1995; Carter 1998; Thornbury and Slade; 2006: 400; O'keefee, et al, 2007:21). Some examples include ellipsis (deliberately omit chunks language),

head and tail slots prospectively and retrospectively topical moment), deixis (referential language of a shared environment), lexical repetition, vague language, and fillers (words and phrase that fill in pauses or buy time). Conversation is also typically unpredictable (Sinclair, 1992: 81) and therefore native speakers tend to have a "Linguistic repertoire" of regularly used phrases (Gumperz in Yorio, 1980:434) that helps engineer in various conversations. Hus, these linguistic features, rules and routines should always appear in a valuable conversation learning class.

Conversation is social because it establishes mutual agreement, engages emphatic communication, and modifies social identity and involves interpersonal skills (Richards,1980: 420, Thornbury and Slade,2006:17). This social element is expressed through wishes, feelings, attitudes, opinions and judgments, which may clash with the formal nature of the classroom when teaching conversation. Cook (1989: 32) illustrates how politeness and keeping face are important social aspects of conversation. Also conversation is multisensory (Mc Luhan in Came, 1989: 32). This involves paralinguistic features such as eye-contact; facial expression, body language, tempo-pauses voice quality changes, and pitch variation (Thornbury, 2005: 9) which affect conversation flow even culture is integral in how conversation is constructed. This has complications for how English conversation is taught and learned.

II.12.A. Functions of Conversation

Conversation is a way to verbal communication in most interpersonal and somewhat transactional purposes (Nunan, 1999: 228). Interactional language engages people for social reasons as illustrated previously. Transactional language is for service encounters like buying tickets or ordering food. These purposes are usually intertwined (Thornbury and Slade 2006: 20) and so the distinction between interactional and transactional language is used for language learning awareness.

Conversation facilitates initiate actions through linguistic means like speech acts or functions.

(Apologizing, promising, and inviting) (Dornyei and Thurrell, 1992). Functional language is used directly or various ways and contexts and for that reason it is neither exhaustive nor complete (Richards, 1980: 417; Cook, 1989: 28). Conversation is a way mark relationship, which suspends social distance, status, and power (Richard and Sukwiwat, 1983: 117) through linguistic neutrality, equality, sympathy, and antipathy (Cook, 1989: 87). So to generate conversation, these functions must first be present and practiced in a teaching conversation class.

II.12.B. Conditions of Conversations

Conversation generally happens between people in face-to-face situation (Van Lier, 1989: 492), where it is highly interactional and social. However, Thornbury and Slade (2006: 23) point out that now-a-days modern technology such as "computer-mediated communication". (CMC) shares many conversational characteristics where face-to-face conversation may not appear. But conversation takes place within a small group of people (Cook, 1989: 51) even with a minimum of two people. It happens within shared contexts as in situational, institutional, social and cultural environments (Thornbury and Slade, 2006: 15). Conversation usually happens in real time and needs spontaneous decision making and improvisation leading to a very dynamic discourse (Van Lier, 1989: 493; Nunan, 1999: 226).

In a sum up, conversation is a specific spoken discourse that is primarily social and is interrelated with daily/social contexts and engaged in for social purposes. Conversation carries the knowledge of the language system and the factors that can create socially cohesive discourse (Cook, 1989: 116). Therefore, in language teaching, Applegate focuses:

“Communication can only be effective when the ” student is sensitive to the social and cultural aspects of the language use and how these differ between his first and second language.” (1975: 271).

Conversation learning classes must include the previous mentioned elements of conversation and the means to generate genuine conversation. It is obviously a complex test for teachers to achieve as will be explained in the following transcripts (Carter, 1998: 52; Sayer, 2005: 15), good conversationalists (Cane, 1998: 36), and the differences between native and non-native conversation (McCarthy, 1991: 121). The direct approach has been seen to over-rely on skills and strategies at the expense of linguistics and the teaching of unnecessary functional language in particular contexts (Skehan in Thornbury and Slade, 2006: 222; Yorio, 1980: 441). Cook adds that not everything about conversation can be taught, as some mechanisms are only unconsciously accessible like pausing, overlapping, and pitch rise to signal turn-taking (1989: 117).

II.13. The Conversational Act

The need for conversing is always present in the teaching-learning process of EFL. The students ask for activities that will ensure the development of conversational skills, and it is the teacher’s duty to develop conversational competence in the target language, which is as important for the students as in grammatical competence.

The learners know how to converse in their mother tongue. They are used to meaning and exchange information in L1; they are able to negotiate meaning and action in communicating with others. But there are cross-cultural differences between L1 and 2 that make the activity of conversing in one different from the activity of conversing in the other. There are norms and convention which must be identified in one the other. There are norms and convention which must be identified in one and in the other if a speech event is viewed as conversation and not merely as talk.

Another alternative is to follow Cook's suggestion in his book *Discourse* (1989). He says that there are ways in which the "insight of conversation analysis can be exploited in the classroom" (1989: 117), and he adds that there are phrases, words, expressions, and paralinguistic features associated with particular turn types that can be taught.

In addition to this formulaic speech such as greetings, introductions, and farewell should also be explained to the students.

But it is certainly not enough for students to know how to open and close a conversation. More than once students have proved that when they are given a follow of diagram to convert into a dialogue or a piece of conversation, they follow the instructions given but the result obtained will not be qualified as a conversational event nor will it lead to one. The language chosen by the students is artificial and the language chosen by the students is artificial and they do not consider to face-to-face interaction with all that implies to solve this problem and succeed in developing conversational competence the following assumptions should be taken into account.

1. Conversation has a specific structure that is different from that of others from the oral speech, such as interviews, talks, debates, lectures, and so on, and therefore should not be studied and developed in the same way.

2. Students or participants should be stimulated to converse rather than be given ready-made formulas.

3. The interactional encounters should be emphasized, as it is the center of the conversational process, and the negotiation is stimulated between the participants on the basis of claims of utterances rather than claims of sentences.

These assumptions are the frame that holds together the design of what would stimulate the students, and they themselves would determine the type of activity they will undertake.

II.14. Conversation in Foreign Language Teaching

Conversation classes have become a major concern in today's communicative language teaching. However there is no structured, generally accepted way in which to approach the teaching of conversation. Teachers in lack of pedagogical resources for many years were forced to use their own intuitions in trying to promote learners' conversational competence. In this sense, they either provide students with tasks that are believed to develop their interactional knowledge as role play which occurs through participation, or highlight aspects they feel can be more difficult or problems experienced and reported by learners. In sum, researchers and course designers have abandoned teachers as regards enhancing students' conversational knowledge.

Richard and Schmidt (1983) point out that lack of conversational competence can have serious consequences for learners who engage in real interaction as it is closely related to the presentation of self. Such knowledge is also essential in the perception and interpretation of interlocutors' image.

While the learner acquires the principles of conversational discourse through his or her language, conversational competence is just as important a dimension of social language learning as the grammatical competence which is the focus of much formal language teaching. Transfer of features of first language conversational competence into English, however, may have much more serious consequences than errors at the level of syntax or pronunciation, because conversational competence is closely related to the presentation of self, that is, communicating an image of ourselves to others (1983: 149-150).

Empirical research confirm the serious consequences of how conversational competence (see Tomas, 1983; Riley, 1989 and Kreuzl Robert, 1993 on pragmatic failure; Kasper 1992, Bou 1998 on pragmatic transfer; and the following authors on different empirical instances of pragmatic failure: Beebe et al, 1990; Bou & Garcés, 1994; Bou et al, 1995; Bou & Gregori, 1999; Jaworksy, 1994; Kasper & Blum-Kulta, eds, 1993; Olesky, ed, 1989, among others).

More specifically, Bou & Garcé (1994) explore the presentation of self by Spanish non-native speakers of English engaged in interaction with a native speaker. Taking as objects of analysis learners' use of communication strategies, introduction of topic, use of discourse markers and degree of participation, the authors relate the emergent conversational patterns to the type of relationship established among interlocutors in terms of power and social distance and the different expectations in British and North American cultures.

It is just recently that efforts have been made at designing appropriate methodologies and structuring and sequencing the contents of conversation classes (eg. Richards, 1990; Dornyei & Thurrell, 1994; Celce. Murcia et all, 1995).

II.15. Approaches to Teaching Conversation

If conversation is depicted as social interaction, it will be treated as a process-conversation classes then range from free "agenda-less discussion" to constrained drilling exercises (Brown, 2001: 67) and tend to subscribe to one of three approaches.

1. The indirect approach.
2. The direct approach.
3. A combination of the direct and indirect approaches.

A. The Indirect Approach

The indirect approach is based on the idea that conversation competence will emerge from participating in interactive activities such as discussion, role-plays, information gaps, and problem-solving tasks (Dornyei and Thurrell, 1994: 41). Some methods that are considered indirect approaches: Oral Approach, the audio-lingual method, community language learning, and communicative language teaching. If the interaction is meaningful, conversation competence will be acquired peripherally (Brown, 2001: 276). However, Nunan (1999: 240) Claims that meaningful ideas. The indirect approach has been viewed as unstructured (Taylor

and Wolfson, 1978: 31), linguistically deprived of how to engage in authentic interaction (Cane, 1998: 33) and favorable toward stronger students (Farrington, 1981: 241). Despite the critics, students may feel that their need to practice speaking is being fulfilled through restricted and unrestricted interactive activities.

B. The Direct Approach

The direct approach is based on a systematic conversation program of micro-skills, communication strategies, language input and processes that lead to fluent conversation, which informed by conversation analysis, Second Language Acquisition and Discourse Analysis (Dornyei and Thurell, 1994: 40). Explicit instruction on conversational aspect combined with speaking opportunities is fundamental (Taylor et al., 1978: 34; McCarthy, 1991: 212; Brown, 2001: 277). This approach includes recording conversations to recognize student's deficiencies in observing real conversational transcripts (Carter, 1998: 52, Sayer, 2005: 15), good conversationalists (Cane, 1998: 36), and the differences between native and non-native conversation (McCarthy, 1991: 121). The direct approach has been seen to over-rely on skills and strategies at the expense of linguistics and the teaching of unnecessary functional language in particular contexts (Skehan in Thornbury and Slade, 2006: 222; Yorio, 1980: 441). Cook adds that not everything about conversation can be taught, as some mechanisms are only unconsciously accessible like pausing, overlapping, and pitch rise to signal turn-taking (1989: 117).

C. Combination of the Direct and Indirect Approaches

This third approach is a combination of learner-centered training, language exposure, interactional activities, and teaching conversation as a spoken discourse as seen in Thornbury and Slade's, indirect teaching plus' (2006: 295), Celce-Murcia et al. 'principal communicative approach '(Celce-Murcia et al, 1997: 148) and Jane Willis '(1996) 'task-based approach'. They are characterized as highlighting specific language input and exposure to real conversation with consciousness-raising time in

systematically sequenced activities. Explicit teaching is punctuated at strategic point in the lesson. Rearrangements of exposure, instruction and practice are its underlying elements. Teaching starts with teacher-student collaboration on concerns, needs, and abilities that generate the conversational content. This approach is seen to demand much teacher practice and skill nurturing (Gibbon in Thornbury and Slade, 2006: 313), learner-centered training and much motivation to collaborate in classroom decision. However, Thornbury (1998: 110) remarks that classrooms and textbooks are still widely grammar-driven which makes any conversational approach difficult to apply.

II.16. Effective Conversation Course Content

The ESP course designers' prime goal is to prepare the students to take part in a more advanced level course. This course should aim at enabling the learners to use the language in the real-life situations whether it is academic, social or professional situations. They will be able to develop their communication skills for specific academic and professional needs such as leadership, organizational, and interpersonal communication skills. The students meet twice in a week to acquire the following course contents.

1. The nature, purpose and characteristics of good conversation.
2. Phonological forms to use in speech.
3. Developing conversation skills with a sense of stress, intonation and meaning.
4. Use of question tags.
5. Starting, maintaining and finishing conversations.
6. Stand conversational exchange.
7. Spoken language idioms.
8. Effective listening and attention to others.
9. Gestures and body language.
10. Do's and don'ts in conversation
11. Telephonic conversation

12. Functions of English in conversation, introduction, greetings, clarifications, explanations, interruptions, opinions.
13. Agreement and disagreement, complaints, apologies.
14. Participating in informal discussions and situations.
15. Using information to make some decisions, i.e. making social arrangements with friends.
16. Reproducing information in some form (question/answer, summarizing, oral reporting, etc.)

It is important that the students become clear about the goals of the course and their relevance to the program goals which the designers have planned before. These students may be good conversationalists when they do as much listening as speaking or may be more. In reality, their strength lies in the ability to draw others into the discussion. This includes knowing what to say and when to say it. It also includes the ability to recognize when to listen attentively.

II.17. . Testing Effects on Conversation Classes

The evaluation techniques “reflect better than any lengthy statement of aims and purposes the true objective of instruction” (Valette, 1973: 407). This means testing is the best indicator of what is intended in a class. Oral interviews, for example, have been the most common way to test oral proficiency (Van Lier, 1989). However, this evaluation lacks the integrity of testing conversation competence. Interviews involve an unequal relationship, unequal chances for construction, topic constraints, and the absence of routines. This means that conversation abilities are primarily assessed on linguistic structures, which become an inaccurate assessment of their conversational capabilities (Valette 1973). This tendency is a result of communicative testing methods failing to provide precision in what conversation competence is (Savignon in Celce – Murcia et al., 1997: 143). Van Lier (1989) says that conversation can be tested but validity and reliability is difficult to attain in such evaluation. The variation involved in conversation could

be the major reason. He suggests that teachers must also become serious students of natural conversation so that the trivial could be distinguished from the fundamental and tasks which are necessary to measure skills from unfair demands. (ibid: 505). Additionally, when the construct of conversation is explicit, both students and teachers will know the specific foci for the class and test (Moritoshi, 2001: 17). Therefore, any language teaching approach must be accompanied by language tests that adequately measure the learning outcomes promoted by the particular program; otherwise the wash-back effect of tests drawn from other approaches or method will undermine the program's effectiveness (Celce-Murcia, et al., 1997: 143).

In sum, matching the test with the goals of the conversation class is necessary to maintain the integrity of learning conversation.

II.18. The Dichotomy in Conversation Classes

Conversation classes in learner-centered model differ from classes in teacher-centered one. This may be related to several reasons. First, communicative-based textbooks are used to indirectly focus on conversation (Gane, 1998), which tends to substitute interaction tasks for conversation learning. For example, Moritoshi's (2001) study on conversation classes found that the assigned textbook did not develop conversational capabilities within his Japanese students despite the dialogue practicing and free conversation activities. Consequently:

“Just because a given task calls for the students to engage in conversation, it does not mean that it will necessarily generate ‘natural’ interaction.” (Sager, 2005: 21).

Second, an unclear definition of oral proficiency (Van Lier, 1989: 492) leads to an obscure “definition of what constitutes ‘communicative competence’ for foreign language learners, (Butler, 2005: 441). This may have a role in why no proficiency levels could be set and makes it difficult to have measurable outcomes for conversation classes. Third, conversation classes tend to have vague goals like

‘promoting learner fluency’ (Sayer, 2005: 14), which generate multiple interpretations and outcomes based on personal views of what conversation classes should be. Conversation classes then might become a misnomer for general proficiency-focused classes, in which case, changing the course title would be beneficial (Mc Gregor, 1974: 349). Lastly, mismatched goals and expectations between teachers and students constrain speaking opportunities, making it difficult to get students talking (Folland and Robertson, 1978: 281; Hofstede, 1986: 303; Torps, 1991; Peacock, 1998; Littlewood 1999). Contributing to this is the conflict between the nature of the classroom and the nature of conversation (Cook: 1989: 116). The classroom has a very specific and controlled discourse (Sinclair and Coulthard, 1992), which tends not to be conducive to socially interactive conversation. Conversation is free, spontaneous, social and equal among participants whereas the classroom involves orders, planning, and an asymmetrical teacher – student relationship, which usually makes the discourse one-way.

This section revealed a continuum on which conversation is taught which illustrates how complex conversation learning is in a classroom. Learning conversation in a first language is nurtured within a socio-linguistic rich community over years and years (Lightbrown and Spada, 2006: 1-9) whereas learning conversation in an EFL classroom lacks the same intensity of language input. Therefore, the classroom seems to be a place for conversational awareness whereas conversation is developed and practiced in the world beyond the classroom.

Conclusion

The reality of the importance of the English conversation in today's economic and scientific fields cannot be overlooked. Every day and everywhere conversations takes place in business affairs between people, organization and nations. Everyone tries to convince the other with opportunities to gain much more incomes.

In relation to this importance, the role of foreign language teachers is of a great effect and influence upon the students' results and mastery of a speaking skill. The assumption that the students get a strong background and a proficiency in the productive skills in the Algerian schools is far from being true. That is obvious with thousands of university students and high diploma holders who could not hold a conversation or an interview in English for more than five or ten minutes. Instead they can better express themselves in French and keep on speaking for a longer period of time. That's why few university students or even engineers have the capacity to communicate their ideas in written and/or spoken English. The result is that these great numbers of high qualified university students have a weak background of foreign languages and can in few situations understand what a native or non-native speaker of English say. According to some researchers, these weaknesses are the logical results of the old structural language learning methods which emphasize the acquisition of the language form and rules rather than functions. However, some specialists focus on national-functional approach to make it easier for students to transmit their ideas by using the approach to make it easier for students to transmit their ideas by using the target language as a tool for communication.

This study then, is here to show the need of a group of Algerian engineers and technicians for a conversational proficiency at the workplace. What teaching materials were designed and allocated time necessary for the English course will be discussed in later stages.

Chapter Three

Data Analysis

Chapter III: Data Analysis

| | |
|--|----|
| Introduction | 67 |
| III.1. The Areas of Research | 67 |
| III.2. Students' First Questionnaire | 69 |
| III.2.A. Aim of the Questionnaire | 69 |
| III.2.B. Administration of the Questionnaire | 69 |
| III.2.C. Description of the Questionnaire | 69 |
| III.2.C.1. Section One: The Importance and Type of English Language Learning..... | 70 |
| III.2.C.2. Section Two: The Content of English Course and Students' Needs (Q4-Q7) | 70 |
| III.2.C.3. Section Three: The Students' Language Requirements (Q8-Q11) | 70 |
| III.2.D. Analysis of the Questionnaire | 71 |
| III.2.E Discussion | 85 |
| III.3. Students' Second Questionnaire | 86 |
| III.3.A. Aim of the Questionnaire..... | 86 |
| III.3.B. Administration of the Questionnaire | 86 |
| III.3.C. Description of the Questionnaire..... | 86 |
| III.3.C.1. Section 1: General Questions (Q1-Q2) | 87 |
| III.3.C.2. Section 2: The subjects' perception of an Authentic language(Q3-Q5) | 87 |
| III.3.C.3. Section 3: The Subjects' Ability to Speak up English (Q6-Q7)..... | 87 |
| III.3.C.4. Section 4: The ESP Course (Q8-Q10) | 87 |
| III.4. Analysis of the Questionnaire | 88 |
| III.5. Discussion | 79 |
| Conclusion | 97 |

Introduction

A presentation of related literature of the speaking skill and conversation as the most important needed speech type were discussed in the second chapter. The following will be to describe the different steps on a work already carried at the E.C.D.E concerning the implementation of an English curriculum during the summer of year 2010. It is important to mention that the descriptive method is the most appropriate one as it helps the researcher identify naturally occurring phenomena in current practice. Many procedures for collecting data can be used such as the researcher's observation and questionnaires to practice triangulation.

Surveys are the most widely used data collecting instruments as they can reach a biggest number of people even if they are not found in the same spot. Questionnaires can be designed and sent for a population living in various areas through internet or telephone. In this sense, they are preferred by researchers in cases where the interview, the meeting or video cannot be used. In this respect, two questionnaires were used in this study in addition to the researcher's observations made during a number of courses with this population at the E.C.D.E.

III.1. The Areas of Research

1. The importance of the ESP at the workfield: It was necessary to ask the two groups how they perceived the role of an ESP course related to their professional field. The respondents wrote phrases and choose answers by ticking the appropriate options to describe their feelings about the role of specific English. Their responses were counted to observe a collective understanding of the prime role of the ESP in today's economic exchange and face-to-face conversations.
2. The students' real language needs: The students' most common responses emphasized their urgent need to develop the listening and speaking skills. Their interpretations of conversation were similar to show the engineers' major weakness.
3. The primacy of learning technical terms: The students used words and phrases which declared with clarity that acquiring a stock of technical terms related to their

professional field in English is their first and most important interest in order to achieve an observable proficiency.

4. The English course content: The reasons for having an English course at work are to gain an understanding of the designed course content and its role in covering the students' language needs.

5. Expectation of the ESP at work. Direct questioning about expectations and beliefs are used in the second questionnaire to assess what is expected when the course is totally over. The indirect reflection of expectations may draw ideas and opinions about the efficiency of what has been taught to cope with the students' language needs.

This study is carried out in the largest and most important industrial Algerian factory, where data is collected from administrators, engineers and DEUA holders. Eighty students participate in this study at first. Then, the number diminish to forty because of some discouraging factors that are real barriers for the attendance of the total number of the learners. Two Algerian university teachers are volunteers to do the job. Those two teachers are supposed to teach ESP/EST for engineers at the workplace. They are chosen because they are believed to have more experience and thus, are able enough to provide the learners at the Enterprise of Cement and Derivatives of Ech-Chelif with much suitable up-to-date technical terms needed for professional settings.

The engineers at the 'E.C.D.E' require a certain stock of technical terms which they will use in professional interactions with non-native visitors to this factory. A certain level of language proficiency for communication skills, based on speaking and listening activities, but not grammar, is the students' main aim to achieve. The students are believed to have high (Pre. Intermediate/ Intermediate) levels. The answers' to the first questionnaire declare that the problematic with these students is the ability to converse using specific technical terms as there has been no direct speaking activities during their university programmes. These graduates are often directly trained and assessed on the written forms of language

rather than the speaking ones during their university studies. At the end, they have prepared and submitted “un mini-projet” in English.

III.2. Students' First Questionnaire

III.2.A. Aim of the Questionnaire

The first questionnaire aimed at seeking the students' views concerning the importance of learning English in a different way from that experienced in their studies of the secondary school or at the university. Their evaluation is useful for the researcher to know whether they have played a crucial role in the design of the English curriculum or not. Moreover, this questionnaire would give a clear idea about the learner's language needs and whether a needs analysis has been conducted for both: the course design and the teaching materials.

III.2.B. Administration of the Questionnaire

The researcher makes use of the questionnaire for data collection as it is believed to be the most suitable method as prescribed by Ellis (2004).

It requires learners to self-report on some aspects of their language learning needs.

The survey is introduced hand in hand to the population. They are at ease as they are given the opportunity to express their opinions and sort out their preoccupations about the new syllabus in a free way. It is important to say that the questionnaire took place in the classroom at the E.C.D.E on October 2010.

III.2.C. Description of the Questionnaire:

The questionnaire has for purpose to seek the students' personal views and opinions about the syllabus. Various types of questions are asked including the ones that require yes/no answers, with questions and picking up the most appropriate answer from a series of options. The eleven questions revolve around three main headlines straightly linked to the purpose and content of designing the new curriculum for the students at the E.C.D.E.

III.2.C.1. Section One: The Importance and Type of English Language Learning

In this section the students were asked to indicate the purpose of learning English at the E.C.D.E in (Q1). In (Q2), the students were asked to give the precise duration of the course in weeks or months. In (Q3), the students were asked to give as yes/no answer saying the course covers their language needs?

III.2.C.2. Section Two: The Content of English Course and Students' Needs (Q4 – Q7)

In this section the questions were mainly about the content of the course. The students were asked to say what skills (listen, speak, read or write) they are taught in (Q5). Question 6 was asked to answer and precise which of the four skills the students were in need in their work place. In (Q7), the students are asked to tick in more than one option saying what content material they study. The four options were: commercial-produced generalist text, commercial-produced English for Specific Purpose (ESP) texts, general authentic texts, e.g. newspapers, journals, DVDs, On Line material, or specialist authentic texts, e.g. technical manuals and university lecture notes texts books.

III.2.C.3. Section Three: The Students' language Requirements (Q8 – Q11)

In this section the learners are asked to express their language requirements by answering four questions. For each question the students are asked to tick more than one option. In (Q8), the students are asked about the speaking skills they require on exit from the English course. Their answers might be from the following list: Participating in small discussion groups related to work or study, communicating ideas with fluency in an area related to technical expertise or communicating ideas in both a formal and informal register, depending on audience. The next question investigates the listening skills which the students are in need of. Three optional answers are provided including comprehending conversation on every day social and routine job related themes, comprehending technical vocabulary in professional settings, and/or comprehending speech

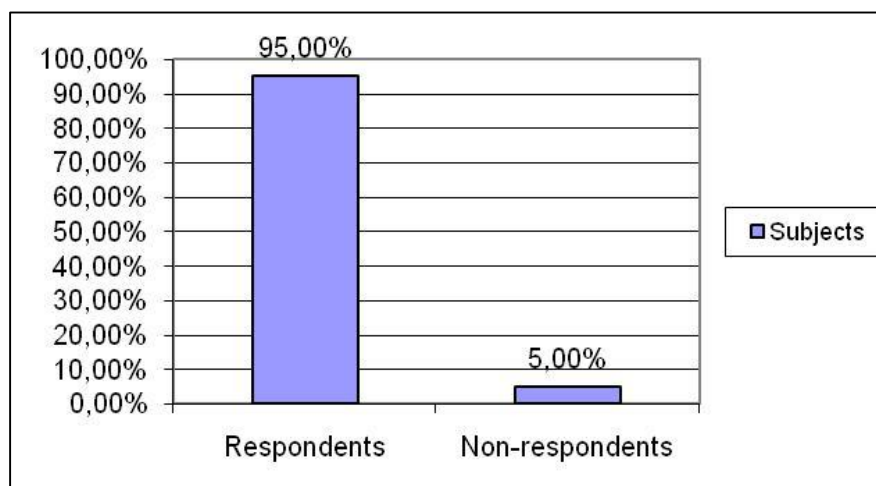
delivered with non-native speaker fluency. The students find two optional answers for question 10 which asks them to say what reading skill they are in need. The two answers are: interpreting data in tables and diagrams and / or reading extended technical texts to identify main ideas and supporting details. Finally, the students are asked to tick more than one option as an answer to what writing skills the students are in need of. The three answers are as follows: writing formal and informal correspondence and documents on practical and professional topics, using a wide range of technical / academic vocabulary in writing and / or writing essay length papers on areas of technical expertise.

III.2.D. Analysis of the Questionnaire

Q.1 What is the purpose of learning English at the E.C.D.E?

| | | |
|-----------------|----|-------|
| Respondents | 38 | 95 % |
| Non-respondents | 02 | 5 % |
| Total | 40 | 100 % |

Table 0.1: Respondents and non-respondents to Question one



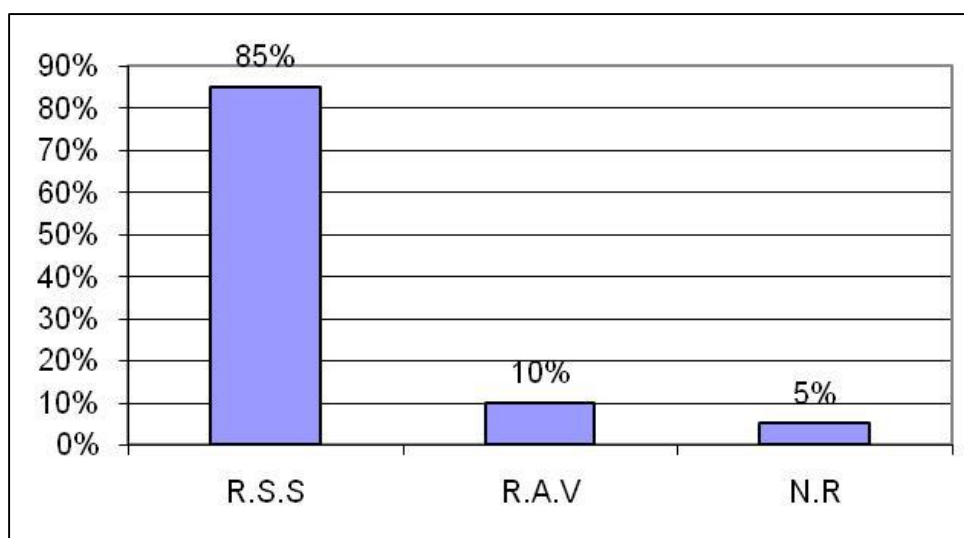
Graph 01: Necessity of Learning English

The total number of the students who are supposed to attend the English Course at the E.C.D.E is 80. Only forty continue their attendance till the end of the syllabus. Thirty eight among forty answer the first question. Their answers reveal

that (2 of them 5%) say that the purpose of the curriculum was to learn technical English in order to facilitate communication / conversation using technical vocabulary with foreign tenders. In addition to that, the second aim is to understand technical documents and manuals, handbooks found in the factory's library. Four learners (10 %) answer that the aim is to learn academic vocabulary. This may imply that they identify acquiring academic vocabulary as a means to reach fluency in technical English or what they. Think is Academic English. The remaining answers (32) (80 %) turn around the expectation to study the speaking skill which is the main weakness of second language learners. They are aware that thanks to this course they would be able to renew their previous background and would express themselves freely without any verbal obstacles.

| Population | Students | Percentage |
|-----------------------------------|----------|------------|
| Respondents (Speaking Skill) | 34 | 85 % |
| Respondents (Academic Vocabulary) | 4 | 10 % |
| Non-respondents | 2 | 5 % |

Table 1.2: Respondents and non-respondents to Question one



Graph 02: Respondents and non-respondents to question one

Among the 38 respondents who represent (95%), 34 subjects believe that the aim of learning English at work is to study the speaking skill which is in reality their main handicap, as second language learners. The remaining 4 subjects (10%) see learning English as a means of acquiring academic vocabulary to reach fluency. They identify technical English as academic English. The (5%) of subjects are of course non respondents.

Q2: What is the duration of the course? (in weeks/months)

| Respondent | Allocated time | Percentage |
|------------|----------------|------------|
| 4 | 02 h | 10 % |
| 8 | 42 h | 20 % |
| 28 | 52 h | 70 % |

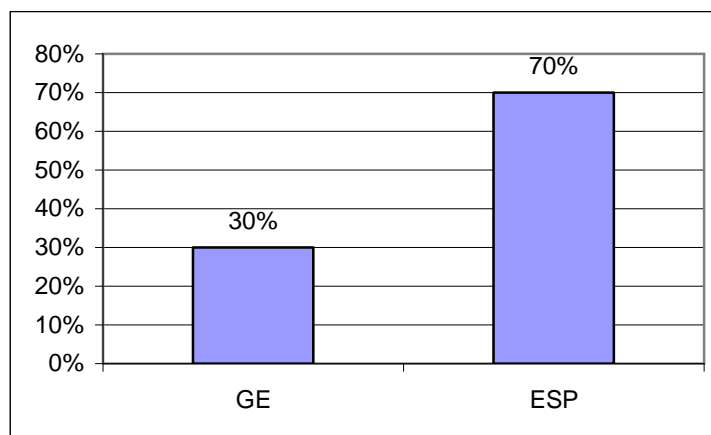
Table 1.3: The Syllabus Allocated Time

The answers to this question were different. Four students said that they studied 22 hours twice a week. Forty-two hours was the duration of the syllabus said eight of them whereas twenty eight students agree that 52 hours is the time allocated to the English course to come to its end.

Q.3 Are you taught General English or ESP (English for Specific Purposes)

| Types of English | Respondents | Percentage |
|------------------|-------------|------------|
| GE | 12 | 30% |
| ESP | 28 | 70% |

Table 1.4: Types of English Taught at the E.C.D.E (GE or ESP)



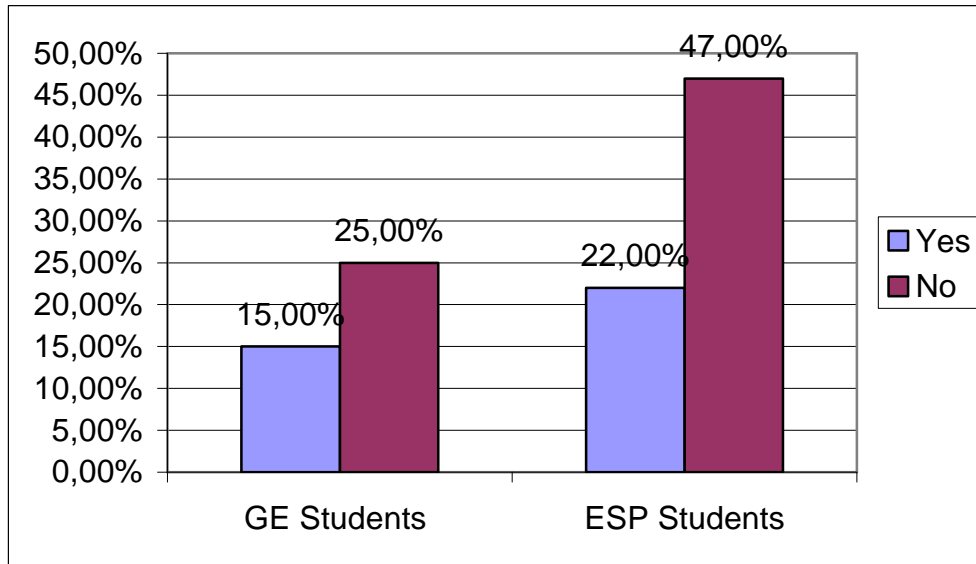
Graph 1.4: Types of English Taught at the E.C.D.E (GE or ESP)

The students' answers about the type of English they are taught, vary between ESP and GE. Twelve (30 %) of the students answer that they are studying General English whereas 28 (70 %) of them study ESP. Teaching English for Specific Purposes is the main goal of the English course at the E.C.D.E of Ech-Chelif.

Q.4: Does the course cover your language needs?

| Options | Types of English | Students | Percentage |
|---------|------------------|----------|------------|
| Yes | GE | 6 | 15 % |
| | ESP | 9 | 22.5 % |
| No | GE | 10 | 25 % |
| | ESP | 19 | 47 % |

Table 1.5: English Course and Language Needs



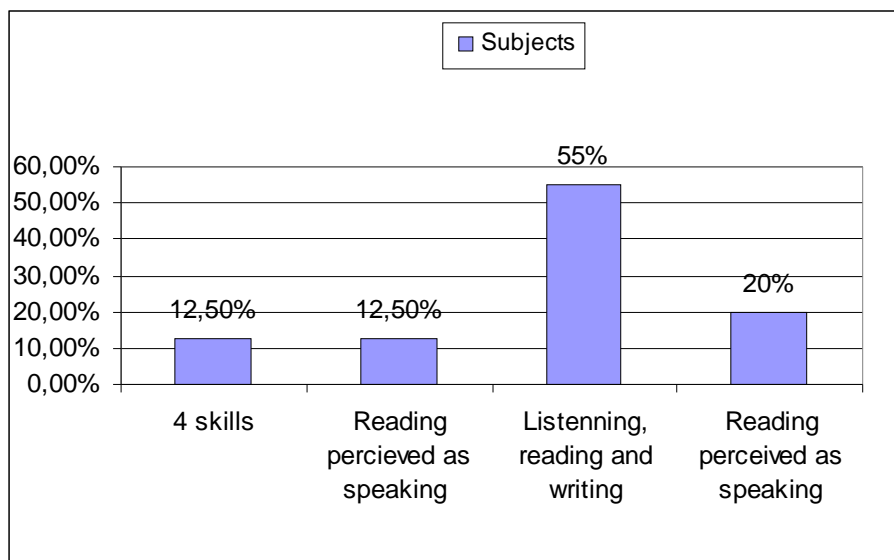
Graph 1.5: English Course and Students Language Needs

Six students (15 %) from forty agree that the course covers their language needs. These ones mention in their questionnaire that they Are studying GE. Ten of their classmates (25 %) gave negative answers by ticking on option “No”. They realize that GE is not what they expect to meet in the course. On the other hand, nine students from those who mention that they are studying technical English or better expressed by ESP, agreed that they are satisfied with what they learn in the course unlike them, nineteen students (47.5 %) found that the course does not cover their real language needs which is syllabus was mainly designed to meet.

Q.5: What skills are you taught?

| Four Language Taught Skills | | Subjects | % |
|-----------------------------|--|----------|-------|
| GE Group | - Listening, reading and writing (more practice) - Speaking (less practice) | 5 | 12.5% |
| | - Repetition does not mean speaking | 5 | 12.5% |
| ESP Group | - Listening, reading and writing | 22 | 55% |
| | - Reading activities perceived as speaking | 8 | 20 % |

Table 5: The Four Language Taught Skills



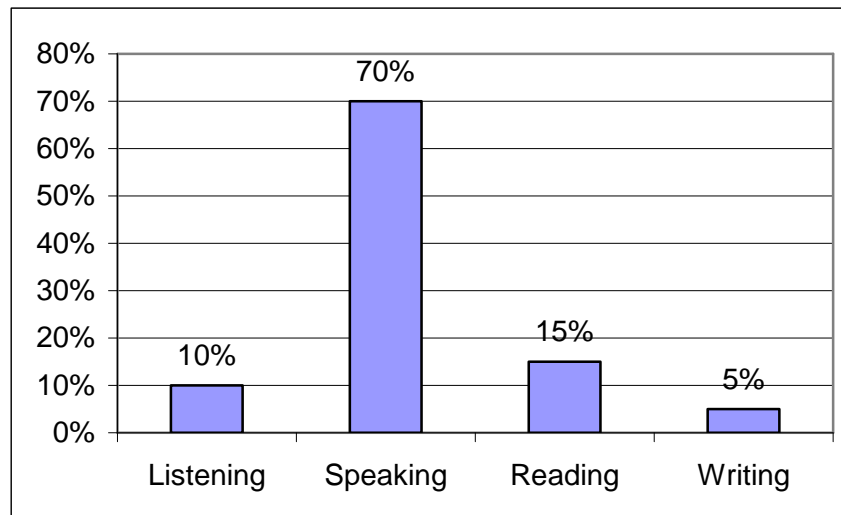
Graph 5: The Four Language Taught Skills

Five students (15.5 %) answer that they are taught the four skills all together. Within the same session, which is two hours long, they may practice the four skills but these might not be in parallel length of time. Other eleven students (27.5 %) declare that reading what is being written during the lesson or repeating what the teacher says loudly is not perceived as practicing the speaking skill. It is right that they are provided with listening and reading and writing skills which are clearly time consuming and more practiced than the speaking one. On the other hands, twenty two students (55 %) studying technical English or better known as ESP agree that they are exposed to listening, reading and writing skills. They have mainly to do activities such as conjugating verbs, tenses; gap filling ... etc. The speaking skill is nearly absent. However, only eight students (20 %) view reading or repeating the teacher's words, phrases and sentences as being a speaking skill. The listening and writing skills in their opinions covered whenever they heard the teacher or take place only when they hear the teacher explanations or take lessons down. Unfortunately teaching the four skills must appear lesson with enough practice during the same lesson.

Q 6. Which skills do you need most?

| Options | Subjects | Percentage |
|-----------|----------|------------|
| Listening | 4 | 10 % |
| Speaking | 28 | 70 % |
| Reading | 6 | 15 % |
| Writing | 2 | 5 % |
| Total | 40 | 100% |

Table 1.6 Emphasis on Language Learning Skills



Graph 6: Emphasis on Language Learning Skills

In this section, the subjects are asked to pick the most important skills that they believe is necessary to be developed most of the subjects (70 %) or 28 respondents picked the speaking skill first, while (15 %) of them or 6 respondents put the listening skill first. Then, it is followed by the reading skill with (10 %) or 4 respondents. The writing skill is classified the last with (5 %) of the subjects or 2 respondents.

As seen above, the results or answers showed that the subjects consider speaking as the most important skill to be developed and practiced into their language learning syllabus. They are likely to be poor speakers seeking for the ability to acquire a communicative competence.

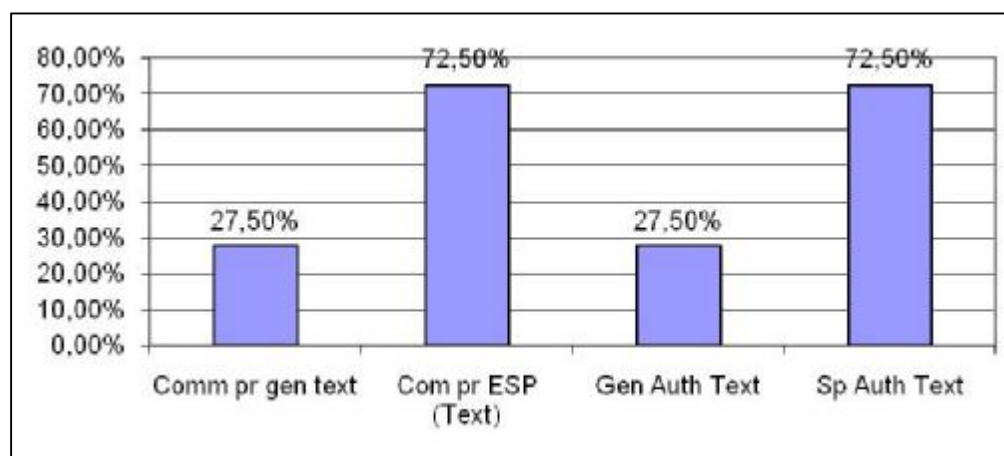
The listening skill is seen as the second most useful one with (15 %) of the subjects. These students know well that it is through listening that language learners get the new vocabulary they will use in everyday situations or at the work place. In addition to this, a learner should receive the language first before they produce it. The reading skill is perceived as being the source supplies language learners with a large amount of vocabulary items for future use. Only respondents or 10 % of the subjects clearly declare that the reading skill is of great importance and is classified first. They may belong to those few people nowadays who still prefer reading books, novels and magazines as a source of acquiring a new vocabulary items.

Unlike the first three skills, writing is believed to be the least important. Only (5 %) of the subjects or 2 respondents see it as the most needed. These subjects may be required to write in English and need to learn how to write correct organized passages, they may be doing further studies to get a promotion or another higher qualification abroad.

Q 7. What content materials do you study in this course?

| Content materials | Subject | Percentage |
|--|---------|------------|
| Commercial-produced generalist text | 11 | 27.5 % |
| Commercial-produced English for Specific Purpose (ESP) text | 29 | 72.5 % |
| Generalist authentic texts, e.g. newspaper, journal, DVDs, on live materials | 11 | 27.5 % |
| Specialist Authentic texts, e.g. technical manuals, university lecture note, textbooks | 29 | 72.5 % |

Table 7: The Studied Content Materials.



Graph 7: The Studied Content Materials.

The subjects are invited to answer this question by ticking of four choices: the commercial – produced generalist text, commercial-produced English for Specific Purpose (ESP) text, generalist authentic text, e.g. newspapers, journals, DVDs, on line materials. Fourth, specialist authentic texts, e.g. technical manuals, university lecture note, textbooks. Those who opt for the second and last answers are 72.5 % of the subjects or 29 respondents. The rest of the subjects 11 or (27.5) choose the first answer may be because they are not concerned with technical English yet.

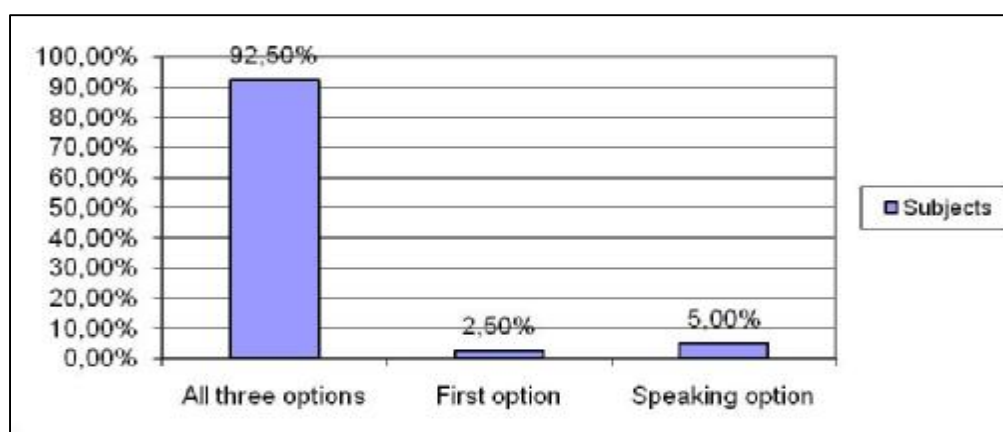
These seven questions are asked to seek information about the subjects and the designed course. The following questions are mainly about the language requirements of the subjects.

The second section includes only questions with multiple choices. The subjects have to tick more than one answer to explain or show to the researcher the purpose of their participation in the syllabus. In other words, what do they aim at and what will their future use of English be.

Q 8: What speaking skill do you require on exit from this course?

| Speaking Skills Required | Subject | Percentage |
|---|---------|------------|
| Discussion groups related to work our study | 37 | 92 % |
| Communicating fluency in technical expertise | 37 | 92.5 % |
| Communicating in formal and informal register | 37 | 92.5 % |
| Discussion groups related to work or study | 2 | 5 % |
| Communicating fluently technical expertise | 1 | 2.5 % |

Table 8: The Targeted Speaking Skills



Graph 8: The Targeted Speaking Skills

Three answers were introduced for the subjects to choose. Most of the respondents (37) or (92.5%) ticked all three answers. Only (5%) of the subjects or 2 respondents tick the first answer. And 2.5 % of the subjects or 1 respondent choose the second answer alone. Those answers are as follows:

1. Participating in small discussion groups related to work or study.
2. Communicating ideas with fluency in an area related to technical expertise.
3. Communicating ideas with both a formal and informal register depending on audience.

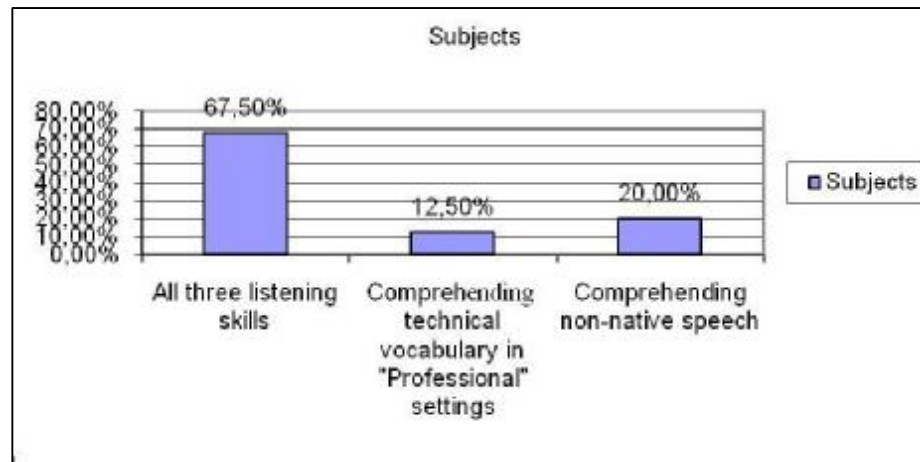
It is obvious that by choosing the three answers all together, 2.5 % of the subjects are aware of their future language learning needs. They clearly state that

their main interest is the speaking skill. They seek for a communicative competence both at work and in real life situations.

Q 9: What listening skills do you require on exit from this course?

| The Listening Required Skills | Subjects | Percentage |
|---|----------|------------|
| - Conversations related to social and job contexts. - Comprehending technical vocabulary in professional settings. - Comprehending non-native speech. | 27 | 67.5 % |
| - Comprehending technical vocabulary in professional settings. | 05 | 12.5 % |
| - Comprehending non-native speech | 08 | 20 % |

Table 9: The Required Listening Skills



Graph 9: The Required Listening Skills

In this section, the subjects are asked to identify the listening skills they require on exit from their English course. In an answer to this, (67.5 %) chose all three options. This means that 27 respondents admit that their level of listening comprehension is low and need to be perfected during the language learning course. They declare frankly that they will be in need to participate in conversations both on every day social and routine job related themes. In addition, they confess that understanding non-native speech are of prime importance and

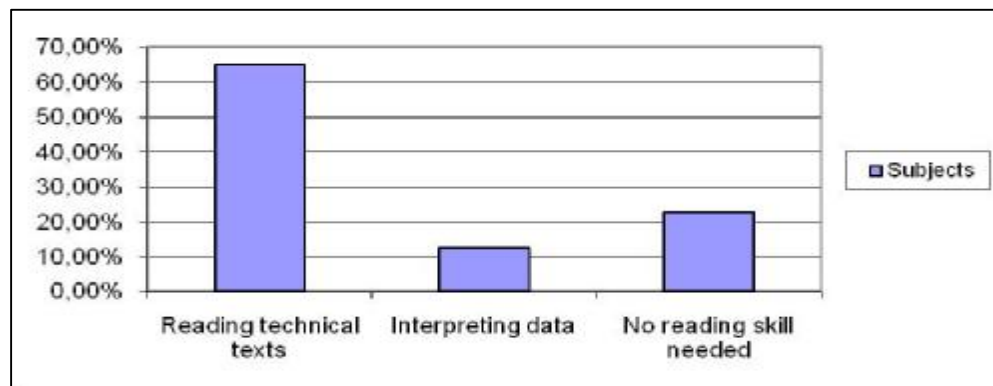
need to be developed during the learning process. Five respondents (12.5 %) reveal that comprehension technical vocabulary in professional settings is their main aim. This is because technical manuals available these days are mostly written in English and need to be decoded whenever the subjects read them in the library of the E.C.D.E or may listen to when meeting foreigners at work.

Those subjects who only agree on the importance of comprehending the speech delivered by non-native speakers are (20%). Those 8 respondents say silently that they are mostly in need to comprehend native speakers' speech. They may be members of the Algerian staff who generally exchange social and professional topics during meetings with the Europeans suppliers.

Q 10 What reading skills do you require on exit from this course?

| The Required Reading Skills | Subjects | Percentage |
|--|----------|------------|
| - Interpreting data in tables and diagrams. | 5 | 12.5 % |
| - Reading extended technical texts and manuals | 26 | 65 % |
| No reading skill needed | 9 | 22.5 % |

Table 10: The Required Reading Skills



Graph 10: The Required Reading Skills.

In this section, the subjects are asked which reading skills they require when they finish their English syllabus. More than the half of the respondents 26 (65 %) answered that they need to read extended technical texts and manuals to identify

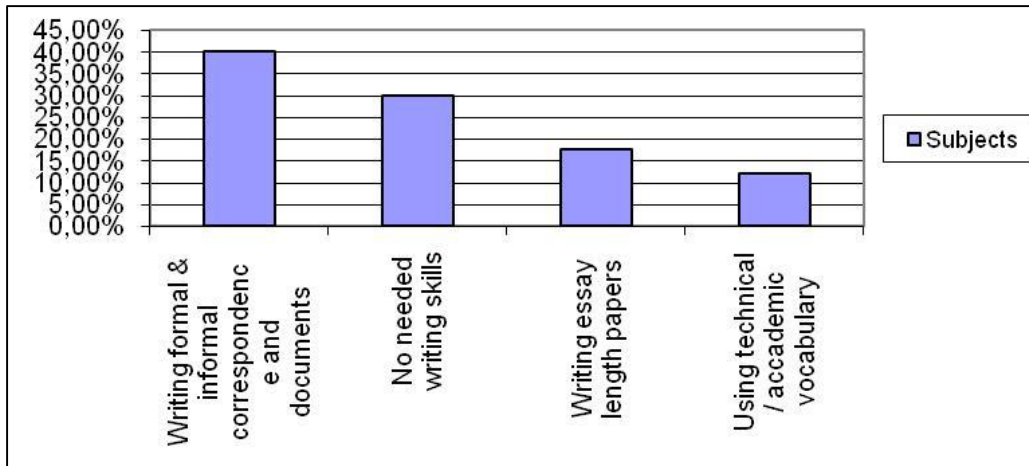
main ideas and support details. These subjects confess verbally to the researcher during a number of sessions that they would like to improve both their oral performance and reading skill to be able enough to decipher more than a hundred of technical manuals in the library at work. Those manuals are strongly related to their work fields. It goes without saying that most of these subjects are fully interested in the English syllabus. They want so much to contribute to the language input first, and later on exploiting their knowledge to both reading technical manuals related to their professional fields and participating in effective oral communication which are explained in previous sections from this study.

Last, but in no way least, and unlike the majority, 5 respondents (12.5 %) require the reading skill for interpreting data in tables and diagrams. The other respondents (or 22.5 %) do not tick on both two answers on the questionnaire may be because they are not directly concerned with the reading skill.

Q 11: What writing skills do you require on exit from this course?

| | Subject | Percentage |
|---|---------|------------|
| Writing formal and informal correspondence and documents on practical and professional topics | 16 | 40 % |
| Using a wide range of technical / academic vocabulary in writing | 5 | 12.5 % |
| Writing essay length papers on areas of technical expertise | 7 | 17.5 % |
| No needed writing skill | 12 | 30 % |

Table 11: The Required Writing Skills



Graph 11: The Required Writing Skills.

The writing skill seems to be the least important one for the subjects if compared with the three skills mainly with speaking. Only 16 subjects (or 40 %) believe that, on exit from the English syllabus they are having, they would be capable of writing formal and informal correspondence and documents on practical and professional topics. These respondents are well informed that by improving their writing skills they could get more up-to-date documents on practical. This is possible by corresponding with foreign industrial organizations and printing houses. Such subjects desire to simply be more organized at work and aware of any new improvement in their professional settings. Those who opt for writing essay length papers on areas of technical expertise are just 7 respondents (or 17.5 %). These subjects may be a group of engineers who are concerned with maintaining the machines and equipment in the factory. They may send for trainings abroad to get more experience on new ways and techniques of maintenance.

They should probably write long papers on areas of their technical expertise at the end of any training, to provide their company with better maintenance service. Only 5 subjects (or 12.5 %) of the respondents admit that they want to be able to use a wide range of technical / academic vocabulary in writing. They may be interested in academic or university researches related to their professional

settings. However, 12 subjects or (30 %) of the respondents loudly express their disinterest in writing skill. These respondents are certainly the subjects who belong to the second group and are in need to start studying the very simple basics of the General English Language.

III.2.E. Discussion

On the basis of the analysis of the subjects' first questionnaire, the following notes can be listed.

1. The English syllabus is not a process of transforming knowledge from teachers to students, but it is one which enables the students to express themselves and interact using the target language in professional and technical settings.
2. Speaking is obviously the most important skill for the majority of respondents. It needs to be developed to enable the subject to express their thought and communicate easily and effectively with non-native speakers of English. The listening skill is classified second in importance as it facilitates understanding the technical vocabulary used in professional settings, every day social conversations and routine job-related themes and comprehending non-native speech which has a strong relation to work. However, the reading skill is just a support to acquire the capacity to interpreting data in tables and diagrams. In addition to this, the subjects' main interest is in reading technical texts and manuals to identify main ideas. The writing skill is classified as the last one because only few subjects need it on exit from their English course.
3. The subjects show different preferences for learning English the minority (12 subjects) are interested in General English whereas the largest number belong to a group who is supposed to study English for specific purposes and aims at improving the oral communicative competence.
4. The duration of the course with both two groups is believed to be insufficient. The students of ESP studies say that 52 hours are obviously not enough to master

the speaking skill. On the other hand, the GE students add that 42 hours will not evidently give good results.

III.3. Students' Second Questionnaire

III.3.4. Aim of the Questionnaire

It is believed that at the end of each learning process an assessment test or exam should take place to decide whether or not it was successful. In this study an evaluation exam is planned for May 2010. After that, the students could obtain qualifications for their participation in the English Language course that was held at the E.C.D.E of Ech-Chelif during the summer season of 2009. During March of the year 2010 the researcher has administered another questionnaire. This time it was to evaluate the subject's achievement in the syllabus they had. Furthermore, it is necessary to point out that the students' most important language needs are still to acquire an effective technical conversation at the workplace.

III.3.B. Administration of the Questionnaire

The target population consists of all students enrolled in the two groups. Both GE (General English) students and ESP (English for specific Purposes) students at the E.C.D.E of Ech-Chelif are given this questionnaire in hands to be later filled at home on March 2010. It is because there is not possibility of covering the whole population at once. As such students take part this time, too.

After one week time, 39 subjects only give back their questionnaire. This is the population that agree to co-operate with this work and the researcher is still very grateful to their comprehension.

III.3.C. Description of the Questionnaire

The whole questionnaire is made up of (10) items and classified under (4) sections. Each one focuses on a particular aspect. It involves closed questions which require the students to answer by ticking up the right answers from a set of

options. The researcher is asked by the subjects to translate each question in Arabic to make it easier to answer.

III.3.C.1. Section 1: General Questions (Q1 - Q2)

This section aims at collecting items of information on the sample. The first question (Q1) seeks information about the allocated time of the syllabus they had the preceding year. In (Q 2), the subjects are asked to give the right answer concerning the relationship between the course contents and their professional needs.

III.3.C.2. Section 2: The Subjects' Perception of an Authentic Language (Q3 – Q5)

In this section, the subjects are required to state whether or not they are, on exit from the course, to perceive the speech of both native and non-native speakers. Moreover, they are asked to say if they fully understand the contents of authentic technical manuals.

III.3.C.3. Section 3: The Subjects' Ability to Speak up English (Q6-Q7)

The first question requires the students to tick the right answer expressing their ability to hold on a telephone conversation. The language used should of course be English including technical terms with a native or/ and non-native interlocutor. With (Q7) the subjects try to choose one of two answers and say if they are at last able enough to understand and produce the language in a written form. E-mails and messages are types of possible written forms that often occur at the (E.C.D.E).

III.3.C.4. Section 4: The ESP course (Q8-Q10)

In this question, the subjects are asked first to give their opinions about the efficiency of the ESP course they had. They have to choose one of the three answers given and say if a new continuous formation in ESP is necessary to fully cover up their language needs. Then, the subjects have to answer question 9 by

saying whether they would choose a native or non-native ESP expert to be in charge of a new continuous training. Finally, the subjects are free to choose the environment they think will be more encouraging for such language course. Two answers are provided: Algeria and Britain.

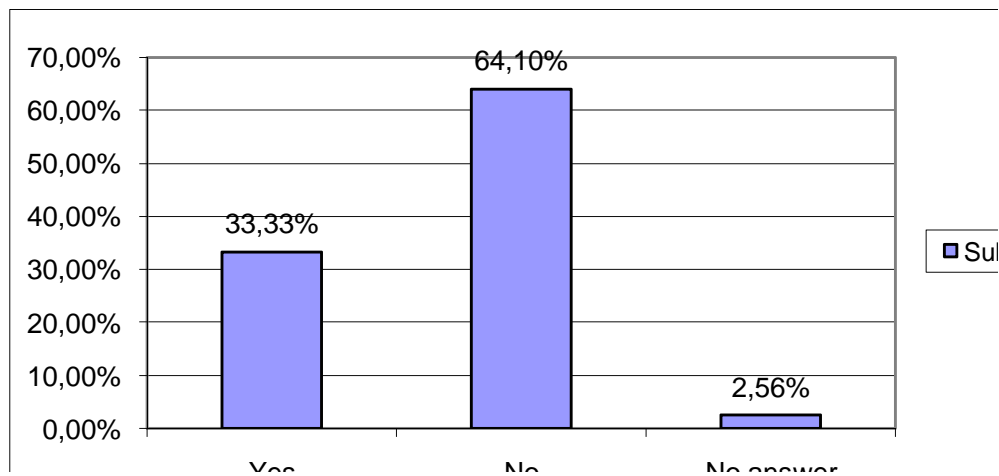
III.A. Analysis of the Questionnaire:

Section 1: General Questions

Q 1: Was the duration of the English course (52 h) sufficient?

| Options | Subjects | Percentage |
|-----------|----------|------------|
| Yes | 13 | 33.33 % |
| No | 25 | 64.10 % |
| No answer | 1 | 02.56 % |
| Total | 39 | 100 % |

Table 1: Allocated Duration of Time Efficiency.



Graph 1: Allocated Duration of Time Efficiency.

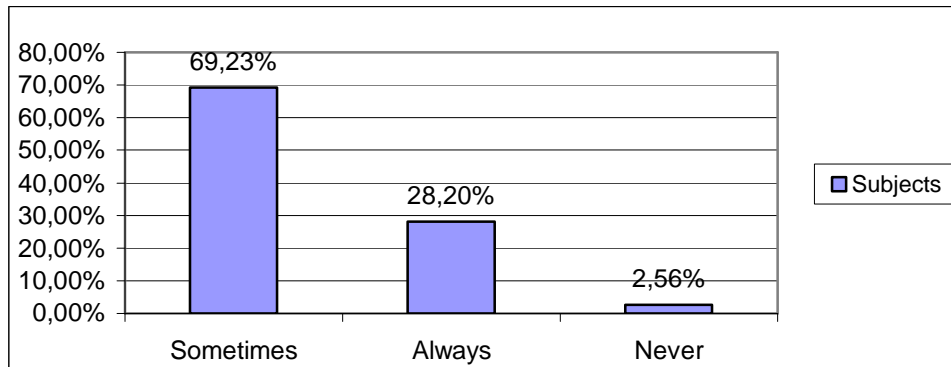
In this section, the subjects are asked to say whether or not the duration of the English course, (52 h) for the ESP group, is sufficient. Thirteen respondents (33.33 %) answer positively whereas 25 subjective (64.10 %) tick to no answer.

This shows that 2/3 of the subjects declare that the time allocated to the English or duration is not sufficient.

Q2: Was there a strong relationship between the course content and your professional needs?

| Options | Subjects | % |
|-----------|----------|---------|
| Sometimes | 27 | 69.23 % |
| Always | 11 | 28.20 % |
| Never | 1 | 2.56 % |
| Total | 39 | 100 % |

Table 2: The Course Content and Students' Needs Relationship.



Graph 2: Course Content and Students' Needs Relationship.

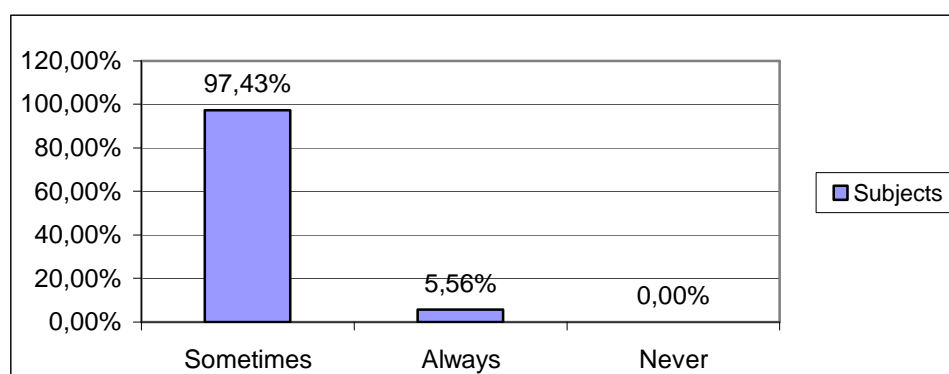
In this section, the subjects are required to tick up one of three boxes and say if the content of the course has a relationship with their language needs. In other words, whether or not content course cover the subject needs. Twenty-seven correspondents (or 69.23%) confess that the content course sometimes has a relation with their professional needs. Those who believe that the relation always exist and take place are 11 (or 28.20%). Only one subject or (2.56%) choose the never option. This implies that this opinion is respected even if it is one person's view point.

Section 2: The Subject's Perception of an Authentic Language (Q3-Q5)

Q3: How often do you understand a native speaker (of English?)

| Options | Subjects | Percentage |
|-----------|----------|------------|
| Sometimes | 38 | 97.43% |
| Always | 1 | 2.56% |
| Never | 0 | 0 |
| Total | 39 | 100 % |

Table 3: Understanding a Native Speaker Frequency.



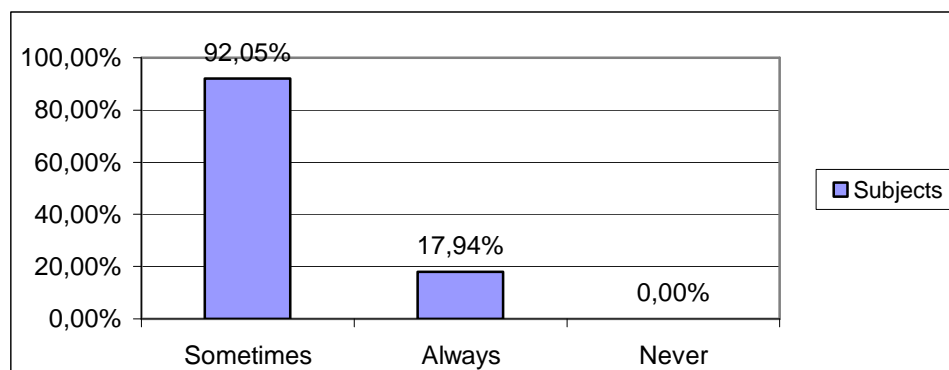
Graph 3: Understanding a Native Speaker Frequency.

According to this question, nearly all subjects (or 97.43%) choose to tick up the first answer which admits that they sometimes understand the speech of a native speaker. In the counterpart, only one respondent answers that he can understand a native speaker's speech.

Q4: How often do you understand a non-native speaker (speaking English?)

| Options | Subjects | Percentage |
|-----------|----------|------------|
| Sometimes | 32 | 82.05% |
| Always | 7 | 17.94% |
| Never | 0 | 0% |
| Total | 39 | 100% |

Table 4: Frequency of Understanding a non-native Speaker



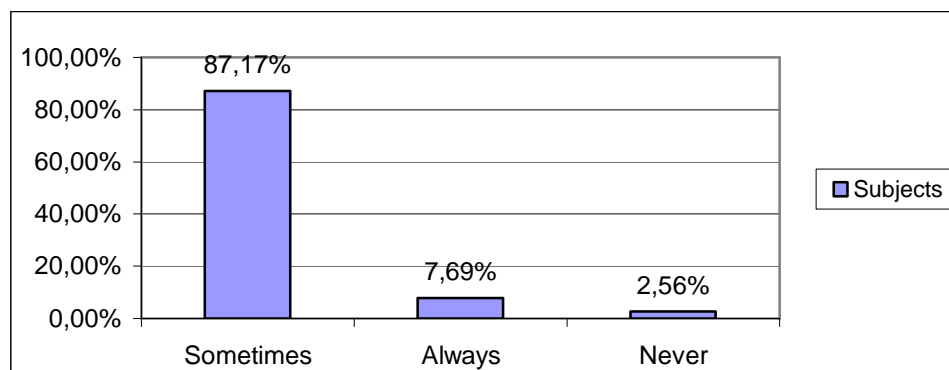
Graph 4: Frequency of Understanding a non-native Speaker

As shown in the table above, seven students, (or 17.94 %) choose answers were positively. They confess that they always understand a non-native speaker speech. This implies that they belong to the category which remains open minded to intellectual interests such as languages to keep aware of everything that comes into view of knowledge or science and technology. Except these ones, the rest of subjects (or 82.05 %) believe that they sometimes understand a non-native speaker's speech.

Q5: Can you fully comprehend the content of authentic technical manuals?

| Options | Subject | Percentage |
|-----------|---------|------------|
| Sometimes | 34 | 87.17% |
| Always | 03 | 07.69% |
| Never | 02 | 5.12% |
| Total | 39 | 100 % |

Table 5: Authentic Technical Manuals' Comprehension.



Graph 5: Authentic Technical Manuals' Comprehension

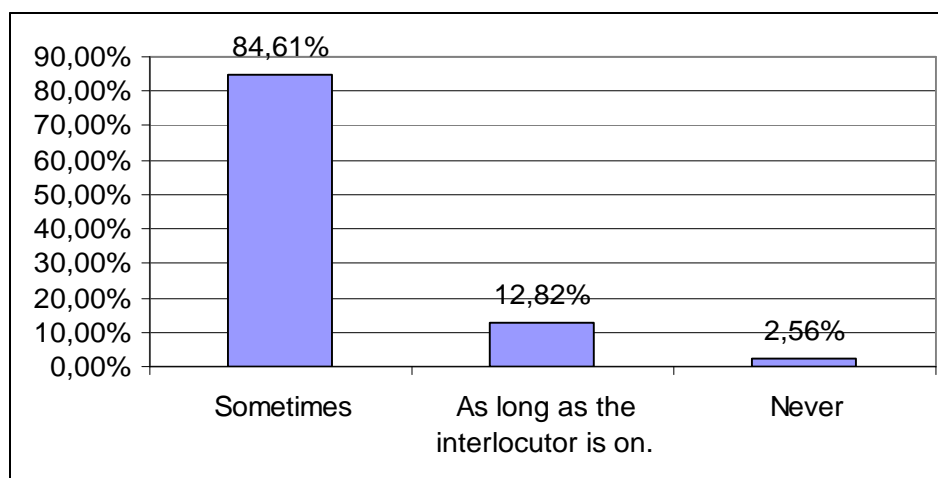
Most subjects here, (or 87.17%) express their weakness to always fully comprehend the contents of authentic technical manuals related to their professional needs. This means that they are still in lack of the necessary specific technical terms they need to fully grasp the meaning of contents of authentic technical manuals. Only the minority of respondents which is (or 7.69 %) agrees with the idea mentioned in the question. They can always understand those manuals.

Section 3: The Subjects' Ability to Speak up English (Q6, Q7)

Q6: Can you carry on telephone conversations?

| Options | Subjects | Percentage |
|------------------------------------|----------|------------|
| Sometimes | 33 | 84.61% |
| As long as the interlocutor is on. | 5 | 12.82 % |
| Never | 1 | 2.56 % |
| Total | 39 | 100 % |

Table 6: Carrying on Telephone Conversations



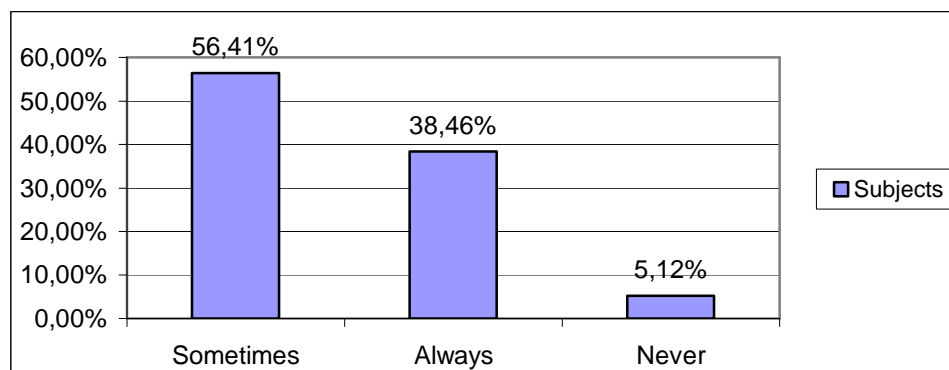
Graph 6: Carrying on Telephone Conversations

As highlighted in the above table 33 subjects (or 84.61%) respondents clearly say that they sometimes capable of carrying a telephone conversation within the English language. This means that they did not take enough profit from the course previously performed during a 52h period of time. Only five respondents only express their strength in carrying conversations on the phone using the English language. In contrast, one respondent (or 2.56 %) answers that he is not able to hold on a telephone conversation.

Q7: Can you easily understand, write and/or answer emails /messages etc?

| Options | Subjects | Percentage |
|-----------|----------|------------|
| Sometimes | 22 | 56.41 % |
| Always | 15 | 38.46% |
| No answer | 2 | 5.12% |
| Total | 39 | 100 % |

Table 7: Answering a Written Form of Language.



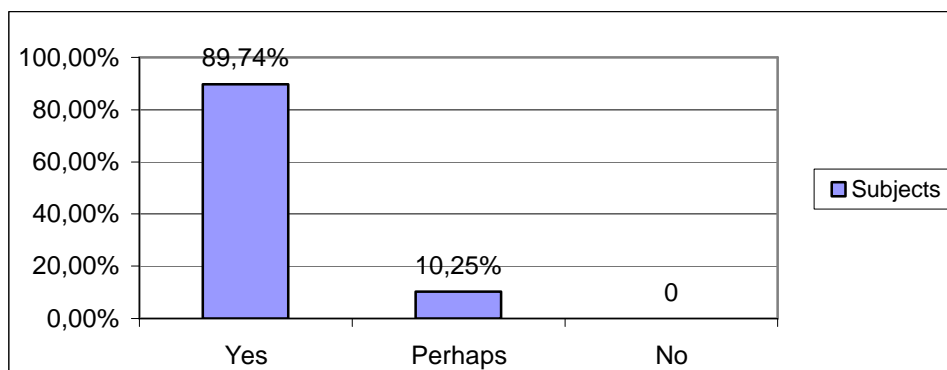
Graph 7: Answering a Written Form of Language

In this section, the aim from the question is to know whether or not the students are able to produce by themselves an answer to a written form of language. Fifteen subjects (or 56.41%) ticked up the positive answer. They say clearly that they are able enough to both understand and write or answer emails, messages ... etc. which they receive. In contrast, twenty-two of the respondents prefer saying that they can sometimes understand and answer emails, messages and so forth. One subject (or 2.56 %) chooses to give no answer to the above questions.

Q 8: Is a continuous formation in ESP necessary?

| Options | Subjects | Percentage |
|---------|----------|------------|
| Perhaps | 4 | 10.25 % |
| Yes | 35 | 89.74 % |
| No | 00 | 00 |
| Total | 39 | 100 % |

Table 8: A future ESP Continuous Formation



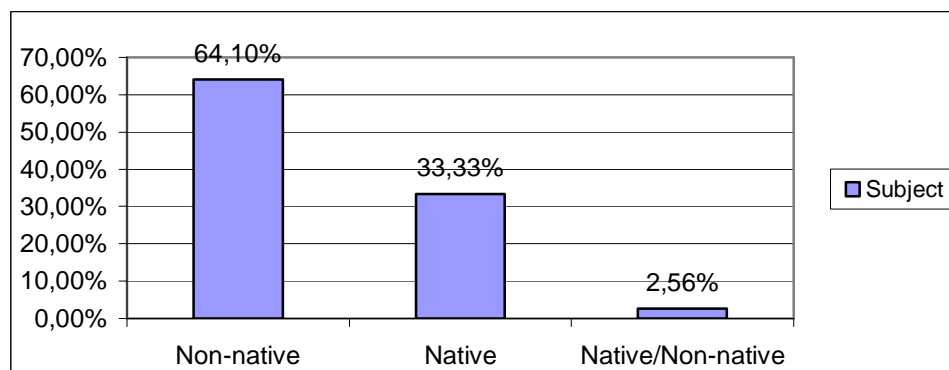
Graph 8: A future ESP Continuous Formation

As shown in the above table, most of the respondents (or 89.74%) tick up the positive answer. They obviously declare that the experience of teaching an ESP course in relation to their professional need is too short. They confess, that it can not cover their language needs and so it cannot be said that it is effective. In addition, four remaining respondents (or 10.25%) tick up the first box. They approve of the idea exposed before and say implicitly that perhaps a continuous formation in ESP is necessary.

Q9: Who would you choose as an ESP expert?

| Option | Subject | Percentage |
|-------------------------|---------|------------|
| A native | 13 | 33.33 % |
| A non-native | 25 | 64.10 % |
| A native / a non-native | 1 | 2.56 % |
| No answer | 1 | 2.56 % |
| Total | 40 | 100 % |

Table 9: Choice of ESP Expert



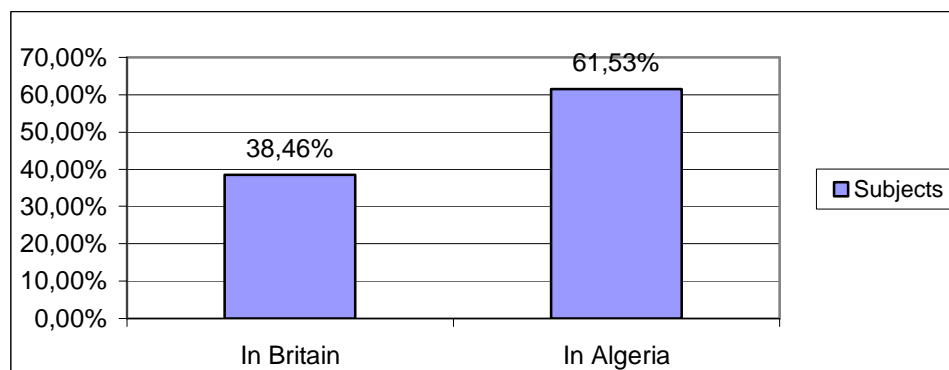
Graph 9: Choice of ESP Expert

The subjects, here, are required to choose between a native and non-native speaker of English as an ESP expert in any future technical course. Their answers are different suiting their beliefs. Thirteen respondents (or 33.33 %) prefer to be taught by a native speaker. It may be more beneficial for them in any new vocabulary acquisition, accustom their ears to authentic language and avoid translation which often occur in the previous course. On the contrary 25 of the subjects (or 64.10%) choose a non-native expert to teach them any future course. Only one respondent or (2.56%) show his/her indifference towards the kind of teacher.

Q10: Where would you carry on your training?

| Option | Subject | Percentage |
|------------|---------|------------|
| In Britain | 15 | 38.46% |
| In Algeria | 24 | 61.53% |

Table 10: Suitable Teaching Environment



Graph 10: Suitable Teaching Environment

Coming now to the last question, the subjects are required to express their wishes for a more appropriate learning environment in case of any future continuous language training. Twenty four subjects choose Algeria as a suitable learning environment. These respondents (61.53 %) may confess that they prefer their home country because they are tightly linked to their home responsibilities. Hence, they may improve their foreign language level with the availability of the necessary teaching materials such as language labs, audio visual aids ... etc. In contrast, 15 respondents or (38.46 %) ticked up the second box with Britain as an encouraging teaching environment. They admit that they would like to carry on their ESP course where the surrounding would fully sound English. Each word they would see, listen to or read would evidently enrich their language data base and therefore produce a successful continuous ESP language training.

III.5.Discussion

Analyzing the subjects' questionnaire concerning the evaluation of the English course they had in 2009 has revealed many facts.

1. In fact, approximately all subjects consider speaking skill as their major concern. This implies that the teachers should have been aware of their students' language needs which needed to be developed.

2. To teach speaking, the teachers should design appropriate oral skills that could encourage more practice such as small group work. This would provide the students with enough language use and help them in developing the students' communicative competence.
3. Teachers need to use a variety of teaching materials to motivate the students to learn and make them speak up the English language. It is said practice makes perfect. Unfortunately, the speaking skill does not occur much in the course except for reading the texts and repeating the students' answers.
4. The course contents need to always be strongly linked to the students' professional needs. Otherwise the students would never be interested in taking part in the learning process. The proverb says that you can take a horse to the source but you cannot make it drink.
5. Using the new technology as the computer with CDs that contain authentic dialogues and conversations can be of a great support and efficiency to enhance students to speak.
6. The listening skill is a fundamental basis for any possible improvement in acquiring true authentic language. Therefore, the teachers should show more care to this skill when designing any future possible course.
7. Most students when asked if a continuous formation in ESP is necessary answer positively. They realize that the course was of a too-short duration to be effective and successful.
8. Even after having finished their course, most students let you know that they are still unable to understand both native and non-native speech. This implies that translation into French and Arabic was the main channel of transmitting the new taught notions as observed by the researcher during some sessions.

Conclusion

Teaching a language has always had one main goal that is communication. Conversation, being one speech event that often occurs in different settings, is almost difficult and almost impossible to teach for EFL students. Conversing involves far more than a broad knowledge of the language; it has to do not only with words and structures as language learning used to be with traditional methods. Teaching a language is better with the conventions for interactions, negotiating meaning, understanding social and professional relationships expressed in a foreign tongue, and the options available for formal and informal speech. Time has come for positive changes with the ESP teaching approach

In an attempt to make learners gain language proficiency at the workplace, an ESP course has been taken to teach conversational English for a short period of time, i.e., 52 hours in 2010 at the E.C.D.E. Unfortunately, the view of language as a set of structures appears to take place against the view of language as communication.

The language in this ESP course/ training should be learnt in meaningful contexts without focusing a lot on grammatical items. In this view, the speaking and listening skills are not given much importance for the purpose of helping learners reach a communicative competence. Yet, this aim is far to be reached with the course content mostly grammatical designed for the students who are required to be able to practice conversational technical English with non-natives at professional settings.

The respondents' answers to the second questionnaire to evaluate their achievements when the programme is over are depressing. They declare that the period of the English learning process was too short.

All in all, the students' answers to the different questions revealed that the speaking skill is the most important in addition to the listening one. This means that serious measures should be taken to reinforce the previous course with a continuous training where conversation techniques and specific technical terms will

appear. Moreover, small group work could be of great and efficient teaching techniques to meet the students' professional language needs.

Chapter Four

Suggestions

Chapter IV: Suggestions

| | |
|--|-----|
| Introduction | 101 |
| IV.1. The Art of Conversation..... | 102 |
| IV.1.A. They should know: | 102 |
| IV.1.A.1. How to start and sustain a conversation | 102 |
| IV.1.A.2. How to be perceived as a good listner..... | 102 |
| IV.1.A.3. How to Participate in a conversation without talking | 103 |
| IV.1.A.4. How to gain control of a conversation | 104 |
| IV.1.A.5. How to change the subject-tactfully | 104 |
| IV.2. Conversation Do's and Don'ts | 104 |
| IV.2.A. Conversation Do's | 105 |
| IV.2.B. Conversation Don'ts | 105 |
| IV.3. Say words to be polite | 105 |
| IV.4. Conversation as Communication in Profesional Settings | 106 |
| IV.4.A. Practical Points | 106 |
| IV.4.A.1. Assertivness | 106 |
| IV.4.A.2. Ambiguity Avoidence | 107 |
| IV.4.A.3. Confrontations | 108 |
| IV.5. Seeking Information | 108 |
| IV.6. Let Others Speak | 108 |
| IV.7. To Finish..... | 109 |
| IV.8. Meeting Management-Preparation | 109 |
| IV.9. Meeting Management-Conducting..... | 109 |
| IV.10. Maintaining Communication..... | 110 |
| IV.11. Matching Method to Purpose | 110 |
| IV.12. Responding to problems | 110 |
| IV.13. Teaching Terms Effective for Technical Conversation | 111 |
| D. Selecting Specialised vocabulary..... | 112 |
| E. Presenting Specialised vocabulary..... | 113 |

| | |
|---|-----|
| F. Practicing New Terms..... | 114 |
| IV.14. Listening: Problems and Solutions..... | 116 |
| IV.14.A. What is Listening?..... | 117 |
| IV.14.B. Some Listening Problems | 117 |
| IV.14.B.1. The Message/Content | 117 |
| IV.14.B.2. The Speaker | 118 |
| IV.14.B.3. The Listener..... | 119 |
| IV.14.B.4. Physical Setting | 119 |
| IV.15. Possible Situations..... | 119 |
| IV.15.A. The Message..... | 119 |
| IV.15.B. The Speaker | 121 |
| IV.15.C. The Listener..... | 121 |
| IV.16. Information Communication Technology and Learner Development | 122 |
| IV.16.A. Blogging | 122 |
| IV.16.B.Types of Blogs for English Teaching | 123 |
| IV.17. Blended Learning (on-line study and teacher guidance)..... | 124 |
| IV.18. Where to Start..... | 124 |
| IV.19. Blended Learning Through Video Blogs | 125 |
| IV.20. Oral Fluency Through Telephone Lessons | 126 |
| IV.21. Use Technology Effectively and Cheerfully | 127 |
| IV.21.A. Telephone Communication Do's and Don'ts | 127 |
| IV.21.A.1. Telephone Communication Do's..... | 127 |
| IV.21.A.2. Telephone Communication Don'ts | 128 |
| IV.22. Telephone Lesson Plan..... | 128 |
| IV.22.A. Practice telephone etiquette and introducing small talk..... | 129 |
| IV.22.A.1. Invite the learner to summarise orally..... | 129 |
| IV.22.A.2. Explore the topic on factual basis..... | 129 |
| IV.22.A.3. Share opinions about that topic | 130 |
| IV.22.A.4. Read the report out loud to work on pronunciation | 130 |

| | |
|--|-----|
| IV.22.A.5. Choose words in the Glossary to retain and start using | 130 |
| IV.22.A.6. Focus on a grammar point in the English lesson..... | 130 |
| IV.22.A.7. Focus on major errors made repeatedly during the actual call or the previous one..... | 130 |
| IV.22.A.8. Put into practice, immediately, newly-learned vocabulary | 130 |
| IV.22.B. Set up the next appointment | 130 |
| IV.22.C. After the lesson | 131 |
| IV.23. The Characteristics of a Good ESP Teacher | 131 |
| IV.24. Teachers' Training in ESP | 133 |
| IV.25. Practical Suggestions to Teacher-training in ESP..... | 134 |
| IV.26. Future Communicative use of English in Algeria..... | 135 |
| IV.27. Suggestions for Teaching Materials of the ESP Speaking Course | 136 |
| IV.28. Technical English for Civil Engineers | 138 |
| IV.29. Course description..... | 138 |
| Conclusion | 144 |
| General Conclusion | 145 |
| BIBLIOGRAPHY | 147 |
| APPENDICES | |
| Appendix 1: A Questionnaire to the Learners in Need for ESP at the "E.C.D.E" in Ech- Chelif, Algeria..... | 150 |
| Appendix 2: A Questionnaire to Evaluate Students' English Language Achievements at the 'E.C.D.E' in Ech- Chelif..... | 152 |
| Appendix 3: What do civil Engineers do?..... | 153 |
| Appendix 4: First Stage of Building..... | 153 |

Introduction

Very often teachers of English lack the experience of designing appropriate syllabus that can best fit the specific needs of a group of learners. This is generally due to many factors. Some of which are the lack of training of those teachers as a main handicap, since very frequently most of them have long been teaching general English rather than ESP. Starting teaching ESP groups of learners needs more than being an experienced teacher of English. They should first and before be enrolled in teaching ESP as specialists because the heart of any successful teaching / learning program is the informed teacher. In addition the lack of suitable teaching materials into the teachers' hands can have its bad effects in the teachers' task of planning the syllabus. Moreover, those teachers rarely meet suitable language teaching environment. These are generally classrooms which are not always equipped with necessary language teaching instruments such as the over head projector, computers, and language labs. On the part of the learners a lot can be said. Learners with low background in L1, may not be able to interpret what they are being taught. Even when the teacher translates any notions as abstract words for instance, the learners would find difficulties to get them. Larger classes can negatively affect the acoustics and consequently result in weak or wrong listening comprehension.

IV.1. The Art of Conversation

A lot of people believe themselves to be good conversationalists because they talk a lot. In reality, they are mistaken and need to be clear about what to do to reach the level of a good conversationalist.

They should know:**IV .1.A.1 How to start and sustain a conversation:**

- The key is to listen more than to speak. Just as important as knowing what to ask is recognizing how to phrase questions.
- Ask open ended questions to get others to respond. Yes/no answer questions are to be avoided. Interrogatives are used instead: Who? What? When? Where? Why? How? For example, "How does this machine function?" This kind of question should get a respond with some detail thus opening the door to more conversation.
- It's crucial that the speaker appears sincerely interested in that he/she is asking the hearer about and in the response elicited. A sincere interest in others should be developed.

IV.1.A.2. How to be perceived as a good listener

Below are a few techniques that show the speaker as a true listener to his/her interlocutor.

- Take two, an effective way to avoid a head on conversation collision is to count to two after a person has finished talking.
- Jump on and follow the same wavelength. Learn to identify people as auditory, visual or feeling and then communicate with them in their own language.
- Auditory person will often have background music playing and will constantly use words like sounds, talk, tell, hear and tone.
- A visual person communicates best with the aid of charts, maps, and other visuals and sprinkles his vocabulary with words like perceive, look, imagine, observe, view, and see.

- A feeling person, who frequently likes to juggle many tasks at once, gravitates to words like emphasize, feel, understand, sense and the like.
- Paraphrase. A sure way to let others know you heard what they said is by paraphrasing or reiterating. When you can paraphrase while on the same wavelength, you'll really be perceived as a good listener. Here are some examples :
 - Auditory – "It sounds like ... or I heard you say that ...".
 - Visual – "I see that ... or it appears that ...".
 - Feeling – "I feel that ... or I understand that ...3>

Different situations call for different levels of conversation.

Small talk: Conversation about everyday happenings – the weather, sport, your immediate environment, etc. Everyone is able to participate. Thus, when establishing rapport with interlocutor, begin with small talk.

Medium talk: This deals with information specific to a group. For example people may make medium talk by discussing the company they represent. Although others may be familiar with the company being discussed, they may not be able to participate in the conversation.

Large Talk: This deals with very specific information. For example people from an accounting firm discuss the monthly quotas. They are making conversation understood or of interest to a limited number of people.

When not to talk:

When involved in a conversation with others never talk about yourself or your affiliations unless you are asked a question. When you know nothing about the topic under discussion, remain silent.

IV.1.A.3. How to participate in a conversation without talking

You can participate in a conversation by using absolutely nothing just maintain your role as an active listener. Make use of your body language. Maintain

eye contact, smile or nod. You'll be a welcome part of the conversation without ever saying a word.

Let your gestures speak for you:

Body language and receptivity are important aspects of animated and interested dialogue. Be sure to project a positive and friendly smile, maintain eye contact, nod or keep an open mind. Even if you are not at all interested in the person with whom you are speaking, keep open mind regarding future relationships. It's a good way to help develop your professional network. You never know when your paths will cross again.

IV.1.A.4. How to gain control of a conversation

- Be open and friendly.
- Take risks.
- Be the first to say "hello".
- Be genuinely interested in people. They'll be flattered and interested in you.
- Be open to new ideas.
- Accept people as they are.

IV.1.A.5. How to change the subject- tactfully:

Be tactful if you want to change the subject, use lead-ins like.

"I heard you mention earlier ..."

"You seem to know a lot about"

If you're looking for an escape hatch, try something like,

"Before this meeting ends, I'd like to..."

"I see it already 3 pm and I ..."

Avoid being offensive and insulting to anyone.

IV.2. Conversation Do's and Don'ts

In this section the reader will find a set of manners which the participants should follow to achieve and control an efficient conversation.

IV.2.A. Conversation Do's

- Look at the person you are talking to.
- If you haven't met before, introduce yourself and ask their names in a tactful way.
- Use a person's name when talking to them.
- Ask questions when you don't understand something.
- Stick to the subject or topic being discussed.
- Say nice things about people and praise those who deserve it.
- You may disagree with others but do it politely.

IV.2.B. Conversation Don'ts

- Don't listen in on conversations you aren't part of.
- Don't fidget, look elsewhere, or wander off while your interlocutor is talking.
- Don't interrupt when someone else is talking.
- Don't ask personal questions such as how much things or why people look, behave or dress the way they do.
- Don't whisper in front of another person.
- Don't point or stare.
- Don't argue about unimportant things or details.
- Don't whine, tattletale, brag, or say many things about others.

IV.3. Say words to be Polite:

When talking in conversations, the participants often tend to forget using polite words which help keeping the communication developing in a smooth way. Here are some of those magic words which will encourage a best flow of ideas into a conversation.

"Sorry"

"May I"

"Please"

"Excuse me"

"Thank you"

"Would you mind?"

"Could you make it clearer?"

IV.4. Conversation as Communication in Professional Settings

Conversations need particular care at meetings in professional settings. Communication is best achieved through simple planning and control. The participants may ensure an efficient and effective conversation in business when they seek communication rather than chatter. Here are three considerations:

- Make your message understood.
- Receive/Understand the intended message sent to you.
- Exert some control over the flow of communication.

A manager needs to establish a significant communication at work. He / She should learn to listen as well as to speak. A manager concerned with getting things done and be successful may not hear the suggestion / information if he does not explicitly develop the skill of listening.

IV.4.A. Practical Points:

As a manager, you should in advance decide on the purpose of the conversation and the plan for achieving it. By so doing, you are more proficient because you have a clearer understanding of the context and own goals. The result of which would be an effective communication and a successful meeting. The following are a few techniques to help the conversation along.

IV.4.A.1. Assertiveness

It is to declare or state clearly your aim. If someone argues against you or even loses their temper you should be quietly assertive.

- Acknowledge what is being said by showing your understanding of the position in a polite way by simply replaying "I heard you already".
- State your point of view clearly and concisely with supporting evidence.

- State what you want to happen next (move it forward).

IV.4.A.2. Ambiguity Avoidance:

Words often have different meanings depending on context/or culture. A clearer example of that is “a dry country” lacks water but to Americans it lacks alcohol. Thus, words mean not what the dictionary says they do but rather what the speaker intended. It is certainly a greatest source of difficulty and ambiguity which neither of the participants in a conversation can notice. This may result in producing entirely a wrong view or product which causes a delay in the needed product and a waste of time. Who is at fault? The answer must be: Who cares?

Attributing blame may be a satisfying (or defensive) exercise but it does not address a problem. In everything said or heard in a meeting, there must be possible misunderstanding and ambiguity must be clarified. So the problem is that a word has multiple meanings and it might not be the one intended or may simply be misheard. Then how do you know what the speaker meant?

You can ask for confirmation at first saying "Let me see if I have understood correctly, you are saying that ...". You rephrase what the speaker said. This should be done in a clear, concise and verified statement for any viewpoint, message or decision or what was said; without this someone will get it wrong. When speaking yourself, you can often counter for possible problems by adding information, and so providing a broader context in which your words can be understood. Thus, there is less scope for alternative interpretations since fewer are consistent. When others are speaking, you should deliberately ask questions yourself to establish the context in which they are thinking.

IV.4.A.3. Confrontations:

When you have a difficult encounter, be professional; never lose your self-control because it is of no use. You must be consistent and fair so that your staff knows where they stand. Insults are ineffective because your subordinates are unlikely to actually listen to what you have to say. However, before you say anything, stop, establish what you want as the outcome, plan how to achieve this, and then speak.

Finally, if you are going to criticize someone or discipline someone, always assume that you have misunderstood the situation and ask first which checks the facts. This simple courtesy will save you from much embarrassment.

IV.5. Seeking Information

There are two ways of phrasing questions:

One way is to ask closed questions which is likely to lead to ask closed questions to a simple grunt is reply (Yes, no, maybe), the second way is to ask open questions by establishing in mind the topic/aim of the question. Such questions are extremely easy to formulate starting by What, When, Which, Why, Where, How to actually help the flow of information. Open format would be: What is left to do of project X, What about the documentation, When will that be completely finished?

IV.6. Let others speak

The flow of information is most vital to a conversation. You may have to win that information by winning the attention and confidence of the other person. The most effective is to give people your interest and full attention to gain all their knowledge. Therefore, many forms of flattery are used in questions like: What do you think about that idea, have you ever met this problem before, how would you tackle this situation?

Ask your questions for seeking information with smile and silence, keep quiet and the person continues with more details to reach an effective conversation.

IV.7. To finish

At the end of a conversation, give people a clear understanding of the outcome. If there has been a decision, restate it clearly (just to be sure) in terms of what should happen and by when. But if you have been asking questions, summarize the significant aspects of what you have learnt.

IV.8. Meeting Management –Preparation

Meetings are a vital part of the organization of work and the flow of information in any organization. They act as a mechanism for gathering together resources from many sources and pooling them towards common objective. These meetings are effective as any other activity when they are planned beforehand, monitored during for effectiveness, and reviewed afterwards for improving their management. A meeting is the ultimate form of managed conversation; as a manager you can organize the information and structure of the meeting to support the effective communication of the participants. This efficiency to prepare professionally decisive, effective meetings will create a suitable atmosphere for the participant's contribution to be heard.

The meeting should involve the interchange of views and the communication of the current status of related projects. You should be generous with your time. Explain that only people with useful function are involved. It may seem difficult to predict the length of a discussion but you must. There is often a tendency to view meetings as a little relaxation since no one person has to be active throughout.

Before meetings, you should circulate a draft agenda to inform participants of the subject of the meeting in advance so that they can prepare their contributions.

IV.9. Meeting Management – Conducting

As a manager you must provide the necessary support to coordinate the contribution of the participants. The meeting can effectively run itself especially if the participants know each other well.

IV.10. Maintaining Communication

Your most important tools are:

- Clarification: always clarify the purpose of the meeting, the time allowed, rules to be observed by everyone.
- Summary: summarize the current position and progress saying:
This is what we have achieved/agreed, this is where we have reached.
- Focus on stated goals: re-focus the proceedings on the original goals at each divergence or pause.

IV.11. Matching method to purpose

The stated purpose of a meeting may suggest to you a specific way of conducting the event, and each section might be conducted differently. For instance, if the purpose is:

- To convey information, the meeting might begin with a formal presentation followed by questions.
- To seek information, the meeting would start with a short clear statement of the topic / problem and then an open discussion supported by notes on a display, or a formal brainstorming session.
- To make a decision, the meeting might review the background and options, establish the criteria to be applied, agree who should make the decision and how, and then do it.
- To ratify /explain decisions.

IV.12. Responding to problems

Various problems associated with the world of meetings may appear. You should feel free to help any meeting to progress with ideas like.

If a participant strays from the agenda item, call him/her back: "We should deal with that separately, but what do you feel about the issue X?"

If there is a confusion, you might ask: "Do I understand correctly that?" If the speaker begins to ramble, wait until an inhalation of breath and jump in: "Yes I understand that such and such, does anyone disagree?"

If a point is too vague ask for greater clarity: "What exactly do you have in mind?"

If people chat, you might simply state your difficulty in hearing/ concentrating on the real speaker, or ask them a direct question: "What do you think about that point?"

If someone interrupts the speaker, you should suggest that: "We hear your contribution after B has finished"

In you do not understand, say so: "I do not understand that, would you explain it a little more; or do you mean ...?"

If there is an error, look for a good point first: "I see how that would work if x y z, but what would happen if ...?"

If you disagree, be very specific: "I disagree because ..."

The lack of communication can cause misunderstanding and error. The result of which will be work to collapse. The key is to coordinate your own work and that of others with explicit efforts. Treat a conversation as any other activity: by establishing an aim, planning what to do, and checking afterwards that you have achieved that aim. By so doing, you can work effectively with others in building through common effort.

12.13. Teaching Terms Effective for Technical Conversation

Specialised vocabulary, not grammar, should be part of the centre of an ESP classroom in order to help learners achieve their goal to communicate fluently in a job related situation in some time a multinational surrounding.

Most specialist; methodologists view learner- centered learning as a major paradigm shift in ESP teaching (Hutchinson and Waters, 1987; Dudley-Evans and St. John, 1998). Unlike the teacher centered model in which knowledge is transmitted from teachers to learners. The focus is shifted to the constructive role

of the learner, who takes responsibility for his own learning and can negotiate some aspects of the course design. Thus, the subject matter and course content have relevance for the learners and they feel motivated to become more involved in their learning and often seem to participate actively in class.

A. Selecting Specialized Vocabulary:

Some specialists argue that the teaching of specialized vocabulary is not the responsibility of an ESP teacher (Hutchinson T, A. Waters. 1987). However, others claim that “In certain specific contents it may be the duty of the ESP teacher to check that learners have understood technical vocabulary appearing as career content for an exercise”. (Dudley-Evans, St. John, p.81). The latter statement is agreed upon in the present case the difficulty is with specialised technical vocabulary. In addition, following the recommendation that “in ESP, English should be presented not as a subject to be learned in isolation from real use, nor as a mechanical skill or habit to be developed. On the contrary, English should be presented in authentic contexts to make the learners acquainted with the particular ways in which the language is used in functions that they will need to perform in their fields of specialty or jobs” (Fiorrito). Practitioners need to be very careful with selecting and presenting the content paying special attention to the specific terminology the student need. In most of the cases, the syllabus that would follow during a course would contain enough technical topics and terms respectively. If the teacher decides to introduce supplementary technical vocabulary, it should be based on students’ particular professional needs. In addition, it needs to be selected after a consultation with a subject specialist for clarifying the exact meaning of terms and their best translation in the students’ mother tongue.

Another option for adding specialised vocabulary to classes is when students themselves bring texts that they need to understand. “The advantage here is that learners’ own’ texts are involved and committed to them. These texts may be allotted class time or self-study time according to whether they represent group

or individual needs and interests". (Dudley-Evans, St.John, p.99). The students may be asked to prepare presentations on professional topics they may choose. These presentations are accompanied by discussions when the trainee-presenter not only develops his rhetoric skills, but also takes the leading role and explains to his colleagues as certain function, device, operation, etc. named with a specific term that appears in his presentation. The discussion stage is when students together enhance their knowledge of specialised terminology by clarifying the meaning and practicing the terms in a less formal way, yet in a classroom situation and teacher's guidance.

B. Presenting Specialised Vocabulary

Having selected the new terminology to be introduced, the next step is presenting it in such a way so that to be understood and memorized easily by the students. The best way for doing this depends on the term themselves. As Dudley-Evans and St.John (Dudley-Evans, St.John, p.81-82) point out, there are the possible situations

1. In some circumstances a **term is cognate** with the equivalent term in the learners' L1 and does not cause difficulty. In many other cases there is a one-to-one relationship between the term in English and the learners' L1, and so it will be enough to translate the term into L1 after a brief explanation.
2. If the **terms is not cognate** and is unfamiliar, then it may need to be introduced and explained before the exercise is tackled. The best teaching situation will be when the new term is presented with its definition according to the learners' field of study or profession.
3. In some situations learners start a new course that is completely new for them. One way is for the language teacher and the subject expert to prepare a **glossary of new terms** with straightforward explanations of the terms.

In all of the above cases; introduction of the new vocabulary should be inseparable from explaining the word meaning in the context of the real life in a

simple and interesting way. as a general rule, vocabulary can be taught inductively (through some process of discovery) or deductively, e.g. by providing a picture: "This is a _____".

C. Practicing New Terms

In order to ensure not only learning, but also remembering the new vocabulary and its transfer to the long-term memory and turning the passive/receptive knowledge of vocabulary into a productive usage, lots of various activities need to be incorporated in the studying process.

The main types of activities, proved to be practical and useful, are as follows (Sasson; **examples** are taken from **English for the Military** text book):

1) **Matching** exercises

a. Matching the word to its definition.

- Match the word '.....' to its definition.

| | |
|----------|----------|
| 1. _____ | a. _____ |
| 2. _____ | b. _____ |
| 3. _____ | c. _____ |

b. Matching the term in English with its Arabic equivalent

- Match the word combination with '.....' in A with their Arabic

| | |
|----------|----------|
| 1. _____ | a. _____ |
| 2. _____ | b. _____ |
| 3. _____ | c. _____ |
| 4. _____ | d. _____ |

c. Opposites/synonyms

d. Term to picture/ symbol/ diagram/ abbreviation.

e. Collocation (two terms that go together).

Match the compound words beginning with ‘.....’ to their definition.

| | | |
|------|---|---|
| | 1 | a |
| | 2 | b |
| Word | 3 | c |
| | 4 | d |
| | 5 | e |

2) **True / False** exercises

3) **Categorization** of words (also called **storing**, i.e, putting the lexical items into different categories), e.g:

- Distribute the following terms into the following categories

_____, _____, _____, _____

4) **Multiple choice**

a. **Choose the correct word.**

1. _____

a. _____ b. _____ c. _____

2. _____

a. _____ b. _____ c. _____

3. _____

a. _____ b. _____ c. _____

5) **Answering questions**

6) **Complete tasks**, after called gap-filling exercises, used not only in practice but also in revision stages. They are:

a. open gap fills

Read the text and fill in the missing words.

_____ (1)..... _____ (2)..... _____ (3)..... _____ (4)..... _____ (6)..... _____
 _ (7)..... _____.

b. closed gap-fills (multiple choice activitie)

fill in the blanks with the following words: _____, _____, _____, _____,
 _____, _____.

1. _____

2. _____

3. _____

4. _____

c. crosswords

7) **Creation tasks** –the students use the new terms in a sentence or a story, in writing, speaking or both forms.

- Look at the diagram below and the use the information you have learned so far from this unit to common on it.

Effective teaching on terms in ESP lessons is a sphere in English teaching which needs special attention since it develops students' abilities required for successful communication in occupational settings. Facilitations of this process goes hand in hand with the understanding of what ESP actually represents and what various roles practitioners need to adopt in order to ensure success of the ESP teaching. Successful learning is possible only when terms "are not taught as a subject separated from the students' real word (or wishes); instead, it is intergrated into a subject matter area important to the leaners". (Fiorrito)

Problems of selecting, presenting and practicing terms need to be dealt with the help of both subject specialists and students; the latter feel much more motivated when they become the active side in the process and can contribute to the lesson with their proffessional knowledge in their L1, thus improving their specialised nglish as well.

IV.14. Listening: Problems and Solutions

The listening skill has always proved to have an essential role in teaching/ learning a foreign language. Opening the textbook and explaining new words, playing the tape recorder, CDs, video and asking/answering questions show that there is a gap which should be bridged between an analysis of listening and actual

classroom teaching. How can this be achieved would be discussed in the following sections.

IV.14.A. What is listening?

Listening is the ability to identify and understand what others are saying. This involves understanding a speaker's accent or pronunciation, his grammar and his vocabulary, and grasping his meaning (Howatt and Dakin 1974). An abler listener is capable of doing these four things simultaneously. Willis (1981: 134) lists a series of micro-skills of listening, which she calls enabling skills. They are:

- predicting what people are going to talk about
- guessing at unknown words or phrases without panicking
- using one's own knowledge of the subject to help one understand
- identifying relevant points; rejecting irrelevant information
- retaining relevant points (note-taking, summarizing)
- recognizing discourse markers, e.g., Well; Oh, another thing is; Now, finally; etc.
- recognizing cohesive device, e.g., such as and which, including link words, pronouns, references, etc.
- understanding different intonation patterns and uses of stress, etc., which give clues to meaning and social setting
- understanding inferred information, e.g., speaker's attitude or intentions.

IV.14.B. Some Listening Problems

The evidence that shows why listening is difficult comes from four main sources: The message to be listened to, the speaker, the listener, and the physical setting.

IV.14.B.1. The Message/Content

Listening to a taped or recorded message/content is usually more difficult than to reading the same message on a piece of paper, since these messages cannot be listened to at a slower speed whereas reading material can be read as long as the

reader likes. The listening material may deal with life situations unfamiliar to the student where spontaneous conversation speakers might frequently change topics including street gossip, proverbs and new products. The content is usually not well organized and unpredictable to the listeners. Even in conversation it is impossible to ask the speakers to repeat something as many times as the interlocutor might like.

In spontaneous conversations people sometimes use ungrammatical sentences because of nervousness or hesitation. They may omit elements of sentences or add something redundant. This may make it difficult for the listener to understand. The students used to seeing words written as discrete entities in their books cannot recognize or distinguish individual words in the stream of speech. This is clear with some linguistic features. Liaison (the linking of words in speech when the second word begins with a vowel, e.g., an orange

/ənɔrɪndʒ /) and elision (leaving out a sound or sounds, e.g., suppose may be pronounced

/spaʊz / in rapid speech).

IV.14.B.2. The Speaker

In ordinary conversations or even in lectures people say a good deal more than would appear to be necessary in order to convey the message. Redundant utterances which may take the form of repetitions, false starts, re-phrasing, self-corrections and apparently meaningless additions such as “I mean or you know.”, are natural features of speech. They may be either a help or hindrance, depending on the students’ level. This redundancy may make it difficult for beginners or second language learners to understand what the speaker is saying. On the other hand, it may give students more time to understand because they tend to be used to their teacher’s accent or to the standard variety of British or American English.

IV.14.B.3. The Listener

Foreign language students usually devote more time to reading than to listening, and so lack exposure to different kinds of listening materials. They have regularly few hours of training per week.

Lack of socio-cultural, factual, and contextual knowledge of the target language can present an obstacle to comprehension because language is used to exposes its culture (Anderson and Lynch 1988).

IV.14.B.4. Physical Setting

Noise, including both environmental noises and background noises on the recording has its bad effect on the listener. It can take his mind off the content of the listening passage. On the other hand, listening material tape or radio lacks visual and aural environmental clues. It is more difficult for the listener to understand the speaker's meaning when his body language and facial expressions are not seen by the listener. In addition to unclear sounds resulting from poor quality equipment which interferes with listener's comprehension.

IV.15. Possible situations

The teacher can play a major role in overcoming the problems described before. S/he can provide the students with suitable listening materials, background and linguistic knowledge, enabling skills, encouraging classroom environment, and useful exercises to help them discover effective listening strategies. Here are some helpful ideas:

IV.15.A. The Message

1. Grade authentic listening materials according to the students' level. The materials should progress step by step from semi-authenticity that displays most of the linguistic features of natural speech to total authenticity to enable the students understand natural speech in real life.
2. Design task-oriented exercises to help the students learn listening skills subconsciously. This can be possible when the students are required to do

something in response to what they hear. These could be expressing agreement or disagreement, taking notes, marking a picture or diagram according to instructions, and answering questions. Such tasks both test the students' listening comprehension and encourage them to use different kinds of listening skills and strategies to reach their learning aims effectively.

3. Provide students with various kinds of input, such as lectures, radio news, films, TV plays, announcements, everyday conversations, interviews, storytelling, English songs, and so on.

Brown and Yule (1983) categorize spoken texts into three broad types:

- Static texts: Describe objects or give instructions.
- Dynamic: Tell a story or recount an incident.

Abstract texts: Focus on people's ideas and beliefs rather than on concrete object.

Brown and Yule suggest that these three types of input should be provided suiting the difficulties they present and the students' level. The figure below shows that the difficulty increases from left to right and, within each type of input, complexity increases from top to bottom.

| | STACTIC | DYNAMIC | ABSTRACT | |
|---------------------|---|-------------------------|--------------|--------------------|
| | Description | Description/instruction | Storytelling | Opinion expressing |
| ↑ less difficult | Few elements which may be difficult to distinguish | | | |
| ↓ more difficult | Many elements which may be difficult to distinguish | | | |

Adapted from (Brown and Yule 1983:107)

Visual aids, pictures and diagrams associated with the listening topic help students guess or imagine actively.

IV.15.B. The Speaker

1. Give practice in liaisons and elisions to get students used to the acoustic forms of rapid natural speech. Ask your students to imitate the native speaker's pronunciations as listed in Ur (1984: 46).

| | |
|--------------------|-----------------|
| Let's have | / 'letsəv/ |
| There isn't any | / 'ðrizndeni / |
| You shouldn't have | / ju:ʔʃudndəv/ |
| You and me | / ju:ən'mi: / |
| Tell him, tell her | / telm , telə / |

2. Make students aware of different native-speaker accents namely British, American and Australian. Suitable training in listening spontaneous conversations can help them discover those different accents.

3. Select short, simple listening texts with little redundancy for lower-level students who are unable of interpreting extra information and complicated authentic materials with more redundancy for advanced learners. Advanced listeners may benefit from expanded paraphrased messages as cited in Chaudron 1983.

IV.15.C. The Listener

1. Provide background knowledge and linguistic knowledge, such as complex sentence structures and technical words as needed.
2. Give, and try to get, as much feedback as possible. By so doing, the listening – class teacher allows the students to correct their errors and develop self confidence. Student's feedback helps the teacher to judge where the progress is and how it should be guided.

3. Help students develop the skills of listening with anticipation, listening for specific information, listening for gist, interpretation and inference, listening for intended meaning, listening for attitude, etc., by providing varied tasks and exercises at different levels with different focuses.

Some teachers think that listening is the easiest skill to teach because all they need to do is play the tapes and test the students' comprehension. However most of the students think that listening is the most difficult skill to improve. This contradiction shows that a lot of work has to be done about how listening can be improved and what activities are useful to this end. This knowledge and these activities may best cover the learner's needs to achieve an effective language learning/teaching system.

IV.16. Information Communication Technology and learner development

The application of ICT in language learning has become very popular. However, teachers “ must look at technology as integral to providing learning experiences that focus on authentic and applicable language and content, that are differentiated according to learners' needs, and that support learners in developing literacy across situations ” (Egbert, 2006)

IV.16.A. Blogging

Recent innovation of e-learning as weblogs may be less familiar but it offers learning opportunities on-lines (Godwin – Jones, 2003). “Blogs are easily linked and cross- linked, to create larger on- line communities. Most students in this research” declared that lack of time at work place was the main inhibit factor to learning ESP. Therefore blogging is a good way for enhancing e- learning. The ESP practitioner can use weblogs as a valuable tool for his students to encourage self assessment of language proficiency, experience of on-line listening, speaking and even writing an opinion essay on a professional theme. These language learners can easily use a personal blog as an electronic portfolio that shows development over time. The students have the possibility as bloggers to self- study

authentic lively material and can be active learners throughout the course period. Education has been transformed from a teacher- led class to a student – centric experience accentuated by self-learning; peer- to - peer teaching, rich, readily available content, greater accessibility, and discovery based learning. Because of this, a blog (short of weblog) is a frequently updated website that often resembles an online journal.

IV.16.B. Types of blogs for English teaching

Aaron Campbell (2003) has outlined three types of blogs for use with language classes. **The tutor blog** is run by the teacher for the learner. Its purpose is to provide class or syllabus information, homework, assignments, etc. The learners may use it as a source of links for self-study, do reading practice. The teacher may share reflections about the local culture, target or culture and language to stimulate online and in class discussion. In this type of blog, students are normally restricted to be able write comments to the teacher’s sports. A great example of this is Aaron Campbell’s own ‘The new Tanuki’
<http://thenewtanuki.blogspot.com/>

§ **The Learner Blog** can be run by individual learners themselves or by small groups of learners. It requires more time and effort from the teacher to both set up and moderate, but is the most rewarding. Its benefit is that students can be encouraged for frequent reading of other students’ blogs and writing comments on that which interests them from the class blog and tutor blog.

§ **The class blog** is a shared space with teacher and students. In other words, it is the result of the collaborative effort of an entire class used for posting messages, images, and links related to classroom discussion topics. With class blogs students are given a more sense of freedom and involvement than with the tutor blog. These blogs could also be used as a virtual space for an international classroom language exchange (Campbell,2003).

Reasons for using blogs are numerous (Stanley, online):1)-to provide a real audience for student writing,2)-to provide extra reading practice for student,3)-to increase the sense of community in a class,4)-to encourage students to participate 5)-to stimulate out of class discussion, 6)-to create an online portfolio of student written work (Stanley, online),Novelty factor creates students' interest in starting to use blogs.

IV.17. Blended Learning (on –line study and teacher guidance)

Blended Learning refers to the combination of the learner's independent study using e-learning resource and his time spent in direct contact with a teacher who knows how to use that resource. Experience shows that when the learner has a tutor, his interest level remains high and he does not drop out of the course. The human contact keeps the motivation going on.

Although blog improve the learner's oral comprehension, reading and writing, they do not ask him to speak during the lesson. So, the contact with the teacher puts into practice two things: the improved listening proficiency, of course, and the effective oral expression.

IV.18. Where to start

There are lots of sites where students can set up a blog for free. One of the most reliable and simple blogging tools to use with students is: Blogger (<http://blogger.com/>). It takes only fifteen minutes from setting up an account to publish the first post using this valuable tool.

The teacher sets up the tutor blog or a class blog. With a class blog, students will participate by e-mail. Learner blog account can either be set up beforehand by the teacher, or done at the same time with a whole class in a computer room. The former gives the teacher more control of student's accounts, but some advantages of the latter is that learners are given more choice (of username, design of the blog, etc).

IV.19. Blended Learning Through Video Blogs

In the era of globalisation and commercialisation, English has become one of the most worldwide tools of communication. Consequently, the English language learners are increasing in number and more specifically students at the workplace. Methods for promoting and enhancing the effectiveness of English teaching and learning have thus become increasingly important for researchers and educators. The methods for teaching English as a second language, whether in traditional classroom or in a language lab, have gradually changed. Thanks to the advent of information technology, the English language teaching no longer consists of traditional face to face classroom instruction. The commercialisation of the internet offers, to busy second language learners at the workplace, more opportunities for communication and interaction through abundant multimedia platforms and material for English language education.

Due to the globalisation of commerce, the ability to speak a second language has become an urgent skill in workplaces. In Algeria, English for Specific Purposes (ESP) could be better established through a blended teaching and learning model combining online and face to face instructional blogging.

Applying this blended learning approach with educational technology to ESP courses is in fact a new approach which can promote self-directed or self-regulated learning (Wu, Tennyson & Hsia, 2009, Wu, Tennyson, Hsia & Liao, 2008).

Over the past few years, Internet blogs have emerged as a new communication and publication medium. Blogs can be used as a collaboration tool for student groups, and instructors can use them as a medium for delivering news, messages, and resources, encouraging discussion, and giving feedback and comments (Weller, Pegler & Mason, 2005). Some scholars indicated that blogging enables students to achieve a range of cognitive and social learning outcomes (Birch & Volcov, 2007; Hourigan & Murray, 2010; Tan, Ladyshevsky & Gardner,

2010). According to Alm (2010), blogging can positively affect learners' willingness to communicate by providing them with a personal space where they feel safe to express themselves and to interact with others.

In conclusion, using the combined advantage of face to face instruction, online learning, and collaborative learning, the researcher could employ a blended learning model using video-based blogs in an ESP course to explore their teaching effectiveness and students' satisfaction. The results could be positively shown with peer and instructor's feedback especially with the blog's characteristics like free access, ease of revision, use of interesting authentic materials and course plans. The followings are four primary blended learning elements: classroom, instructor, technology, students.

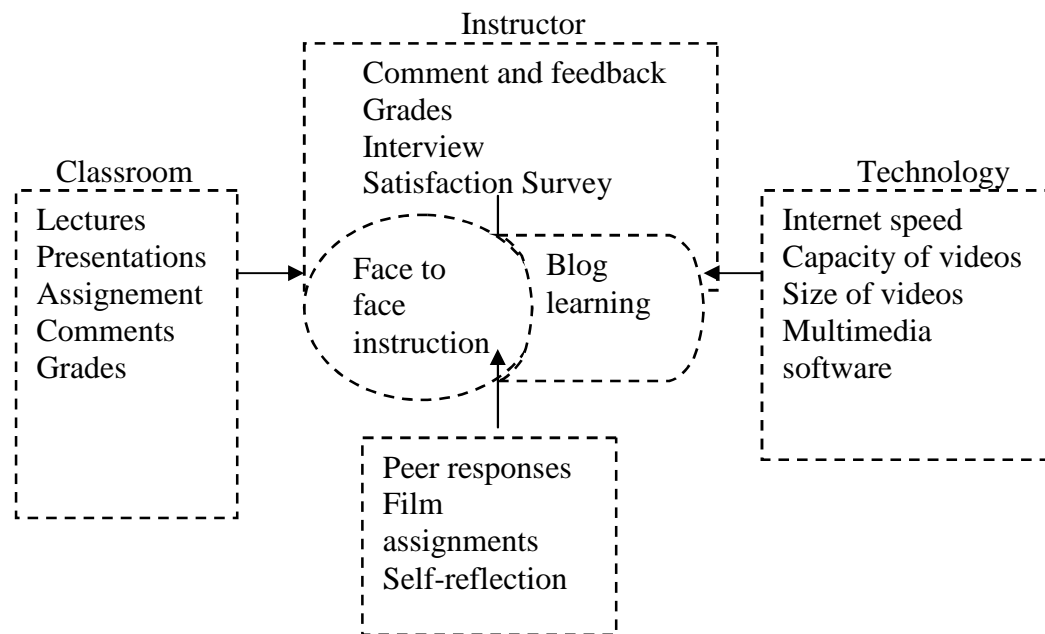


Figure: A blended learning model for an English Speaking Course.

IV.20. Oral Fluency Through Telephone Lessons

Since its development in 1876 by Alexander Graham Bell, the telephone has become one of the most common home and business appliance. The word “telephone” comes from the Greek “télé”, meaning at a distance, and “phone” meaning voice. Telephone technology allows people to speak with each other regardless of where they are located. According to the international

Telecommunication Union, close to 5 billion people worldwide subscribe to telephone service. Of the 4 billion are mobile or cellular customers. Many spend most of their time on the phone, talking to quest customers, colleagues, superiors, suppliers, and others. The telephone is a primary channel for communication. The success of the business, social or academic relationships depend mainly on how well the interaction between the speaker and the hearer is.

IV.21. Use Technology Effectively and Cheerfully

When speaking in face-to face, much of the communication is nonverbal. When speaking on the phone, these cues are obviously not communicated. The speaker needs to be clear and keeps the volume of the voice moderate to produce a careful message. The listener picks up on the tone and inflections of the voice he is listening to. The speaker should be as animated and enthusiastic on the telephone as if he would be in face-to- face interaction.

Choice of telephone: with recent advances in technology the telephone continues to develop including mobile and cellular telephones, satellite telephones, and Internet-based **telephony**, the technology for electronically transmitting voice across distances. Internet telephony is a special type of telephony that uses the Internet instead of traditional lines and service to exchange voice communication.

IV.21.A. Telephone Communication Do's and Don'ts

When talking on the telephone, the speaker needs to be aware of a set of manners which enables him to achieve and control a clear understandable speech.

IV.21.A.1. Telephone Communication Do's

- Establish or enhance a relationship
- Respond to a matter quickly
- Avoid a time-consuming cycle of e-mail messages.
- Use this channel when others prefer it.
- Offer your name and affiliation when you answer on the phone.
- Ask for the caller's name and affiliation.

-
- Use a positive tone of voice.
 - Animate your voice.
 - Speak slowly and clearly.
 - Moderate the volume of your voice.
 - Smile as you speak.

IV.21.A.2. Telephone Communication Don'ts

- Don't call when you might interrupt someone
- Don't ask someone the answer to a question you can find yourself
- Don't set up routine meetings or introduce topics, others need time to consider in a phone call.
- Don't answer a business phone with a curt "yes?" or even "Hello"
- Don't chew gum, eat, or drink while you are on the phone
- Don't prop the phone between your shoulder and ear.
- Don't let your voice communicate fatigue, discouragement, or aloofness.
- Don't turn away from the phone while talking. Doing so changes the volume on the receiver's end.
- Don't assume your contact has the same technology that you do.

IV.22. A Telephone Lesson Plan

Working on one's oral expression is probably the most effective way to progress in English. But producing authentic language is often made difficult by problem comprehending the interlocutor, feeling incapable and even blocked, worrying about syntax, and searching for words, investigating time and energy with effective gradable language materials. This may be practiced with an emphasis on oral expression through conversation skills where the listening skill is developed hand in hand with the oral speech.

The telephone is the most common home and business appliance. It can better be used to develop the oral fluency with students who need to practice oral

expression and improve listening proficiency as well. This can be through native or non-natives.

Telephone lessons can last up to 30 or 45 minutes. The session is very intense and every word counts, every minute counts. This is a one-on-one situation, where neither the teacher nor the student has any time to take a walk.

Ideally, the learner informs the teacher of the title of the report he would like to discuss. When he calls, he is either in front of a PC “computer” with a connection to the English website, or he has printed out the tape script and the glossary beforehand.

IV.22.A. Practice telephone etiquette and introducing small talks

As a warm-up, the teacher and student will have a short conversation of about 2-3 minutes. The teacher will ask the student if they have prepared the lesson and put them at ease to be able to begin talking. Ask why the student chose this topic. Ask if the student had any particular difficulties with the lesson.

IV.22.A.1. Invite the learner to summarize orally

The student should be able to speak for a minute on the topic. The call will not, of course, be effective if the student has not studied the lesson. The teacher should be attentive to mistakes and misunderstanding, taking notes for correction purposes. Did the student understand the main points of the report?

IV.22.A.2. Explore the topic on a factual basis

To check comprehension, the teacher's questions related to the report would be, for example:

- What is civil engineering?
- What information in the report proves that civil engineering is an ancient human activity?
- Where did the idea for cement work start?
- What engineering tools and equipments are used to produce cement?

IV.22.A.3. Share opinions about that topic

The teacher can challenge the student's opinion but suggesting that new techniques could be followed to avoid pollution resulted from producing cement.

IV.22.A.4. Read the report out-loud to work on pronunciation

The telephone medium can help the student realize the importance of clear pronunciation and intonation.

IV.22.A.5. Choose words in the Glossary to retain and start using

The choice of words will depend on the student's interest and needs. For example, focus on words like 'computer-generated, screen, animated'. Include at least one phrasal verb, e. g. "turn into", because phrasal verbs are always an issue for learners.

IV.22.A.6. Focus on a grammar point in the English lesson

In this lesson, hyphen-connected word groups are studied. The student is asked to provide some examples from the text. Then he is asked to give others of his own. If he is unfamiliar with word groups, a supplementary activity may be added as a follow-up after the call.

IV.22.A.7. Focus on major errors made repeatedly during this call or a previous one

The teacher should take notes of the student's difficulties throughout the call though it is not always easy-Error treatment can be done whenever the time is available

IV.22.A.8. Put into practice, immediately, newly-learned vocabulary

To be truly acquired, the student is asked to select vocabulary from the report useful to his needs and encouraged to use between appointments

IV.22.B. Set up the next appointment

A future time slot should be factored in to the lesson. Advice on what the student should focus on can be given here, remedial exercises may be necessary.

IV.22.C. After the lesson

The learner could be asked, if possible, to write an essay or summary of the radio report.

During a telephone call, the learner will have to make himself understood without using body language. The use of discourse markers will fill up those silent moments which are embarrassing during a phone call. The telephone medium is indeed the most challenging one to learners, and regular phone classes are quite beneficial. It's not surprising to see that learning telephone offer is a very high demand by Human Recourses training department managers in many countries of the world.

In any case, during a telephone call for example, the teacher who will be in charge to teach Technical English Conversation at the E.C.D.E can more easily focus on the individual difficulties of the learner. This experienced ESP teacher will be able to diagnose the problems and give advice and guidance, targeted exercises, and, more importantly, support and encouragement. A learner has to accept that making mistakes is an important part of learning, and a teacher must adopt a positive attitude too. Confidence and respect between the teacher and his learner is an affective environment and crucial in the learning process. Helping a learner to tackle his difficulties, create his own strategies, reach his short term aims and final objectives as to become an independent speaks of English is a satisfying aspect of being a good teacher.

IV.23. The Characteristics of a Good ESP Teacher

A teacher is many things as it is said. Students like their teacher first greet them start with something attractive and communicative. Greetings, as a polite practice, create a friendly positive atmosphere in the classroom at the very first minutes of the lesson to motivate and attract the students' attention. S/he can start a lesson with an anecdote, a joke, a riddle, a proverb, or a short personal story. A question, a quiz, either oral or written, a summary of the previous lesson or its

evaluation can also be the starting point of a lesson. In addition, students are exactly like all human beings. They want, need, and appreciate to be loved and respected. They also like to feel that they are important members of a group and their contribution in the classroom is always welcome. If the students have this feeling in minds their teacher is automatically loved by them. S/he feels enjoyment in transmitting knowledge and passion for teaching to reduce the students' tenseness of the target language they are learning. S/he installs passion for learning in the majority of the students.

It is believed that there is no universal method or a sacred English textbook that the teacher should follow slavishly or as a prisoner. The teacher should know how and when to supplement the basic texts and appropriate tasks as information gap exercises, games, songs, problem solving techniques that are not in the book. S/he is able to create opportunities for learning from events that take place in the classroom, at school and in the community.

Most students prefer a teacher who challenges them to speak in English both in and out of class to show learners' self confidence and help them in using passive knowledge of English. Too much use of Arabic would confuse the the students and prepare them to think in Arabic. In case of students' errors or bad marks, s/he reassures and encourages them but not discourage them or humiliate them. On the contrary, a teacher can bring variety, colour, and life in the classroom by using visual aids. They motivate students and stimulate their interests to give an opportunity to practice English in real life contexts. Later, the correction of frequent tests and exams helps assess the students' achievements and judge the effectiveness of the teaching procedures.

At the end, every student would like to be treated on an equal basis with all members of the class regardless of brightness in study. S/he should provide them with cross- cultural insights both incidentally and in organized and formal discussions.

In sum, a good teacher can be successful if s/he can be an educator, a counselor, a guide, a friend and finally a model to gain student' respect and achievement.

IV.24. Teachers' Training in ESP

ESP has become an expanding area of concern and activity in today's foreign language teaching for an unlimited number of universities and public schools in the world. EST teacher training should now be under the spotlight of prominent language scholars Swales (1973) pointed out that " ... EST teacher training is a comparatively new endeavor; it is perhaps worth reflecting on."

This concern with evaluating teacher's quality is the result of a widespread awareness by language teaching specialists that the ESP teacher is a fundamental pre-requisite for any ESP teaching program. Unfortunately little attention has been devoted to EST teacher-training as compared to the explosion of ESP textbooks and supporting literature contended McDonough and French (1981: 5). This view is also shared by Kennedy (1983) who outlines why the state of affairs in teacher-training has not benefited from ESP research.

"...The concentration on learner needs in ESP program has led to the neglect of teacher needs, particularly in the case of the teacher training course itself".

There is now a renewed interest in the specialist area of ESP teachers-training together with a commitment to approach the problems of emergency of ESP teachers both positively and confidently.

Great efforts have been given in Algeria to implement ESP courses in universities and English departments. Time has come to give these institutions potential resources (i.e. manpower, money and time) to carry out specialized training program with the support of confident staff. They should be aware of the urgent need of the ESP teachers being formed to a lifelong training, precept and practice.

Several courses of action can be taken in order to foster awareness of new ideas among teachers and teacher-trainers, they will be considered under the framework of familiarization training with a particular emphasis on comprehensive information campaigns. These campaigns will stress the need to new approaches which offer quantifiable benefits upon learners.

"...If ESP is to prosper overseas, then both the institution and the English Department will need to examine their current attitude, and English teaching will need to fail more closely in line with institutional practices, requirement and goals." (William, 1981).

Before embarking on an ESP/EST teaching program, non-native teachers of English in Algeria are scared because they have to teach English for science and technology due to the crucial lack of EST teachers. The point to make, at this stage, is that as far as English language teaching is concerned, there are teachers who are currently recruited but who come from a literature-oriented background, their former training did in fact do little or nothing to equip them with enough expertise to enter the new unfamiliar fields of human activity and knowledge i.e. English for science and Technology.

For this reason it is important that when devising any teacher-training in-service program an important component of the program should be directed to changing the teachers' negative attitudes towards science. What they mostly need in an attitudinal readjustment to make an easy transition from literature to science. As Swales (1983) puts it "... the prevailing educational and cultural attitudes in a society are important and any ESP program must be prepared to adjust to them."

IV.25. Practical Suggestions to Teacher-training in ESP

In an attempt to overcome the problems that may appear with ESP courses on the part of trainees, some various courses of action should be taken:

The classroom work will be made as practical as possible by reflecting the notion that ESP work is always purposive. The input will be a micro-teaching through a

lecture, a demonstration or any other activity. The first lecture will deal with ESP background information on both the underlying principles in ESP/EST and on modern communicative language teaching. Information to implement a needs-based English teaching program with grounding in syllabus design will be provided. Guidance towards adapting or producing materials will be given. Practice may be presented e.g. transferring written information to the form of tables, diagrams, graphs and vice-versa. Trainees will be asked to teach any of short exercise they happen to produce. This activity will help some of them criticize each other's performance. A functional methodology including theory and practice will constitute the basis for any activity. Working in small group will be encouraged and a participant may be acting as a group leader by coordinating each small group's work. For feedback and evaluation, a communicative test will be carried out to motivate the students and to provide the teacher with insight on how well the material taught has been received.

IV.26. Future Communicative use of English in Algeria

Interestingly, English is not used for social interaction among Algerians. Consequently, they do not have much opportunity to use English as much as they do with French. This leads to a lack of communicative English skills. Rather, English test taking have become a vital skill and a gateway to economic advancement and stability. The business sector has increased job competition by demanding English-skilled employees. So English proficiency tests are included in recruitment and used for promotional incentives. Therefore, conversation classes have become a necessity in the Algerian schools and universities if language competency is regarded as a source of English language exposure. These universities need to help graduates with employment in future professional settings. Unfortunately, testing in Algerian schools and universities directly evaluates through listening rather than speaking which is the unique way to raise communicative competency. This raises the question, what would students' final result be if conversation classes were cared for in every Algerian school? Positive measurable achievements could be the result of a

government decision to implement English for young learners aged between 9 and 10. This would encourage the Algerian population to become more communicatively competent in English in less than twenty-five years. With the help of the ministry's policies, the nature of conversation and conversation teaching would be regularly examined to better enhance the university classes if the goal of these classes is to make students more conversationally competent.

IV.27. Suggestions for Teaching Materials of the ESP Speaking Course

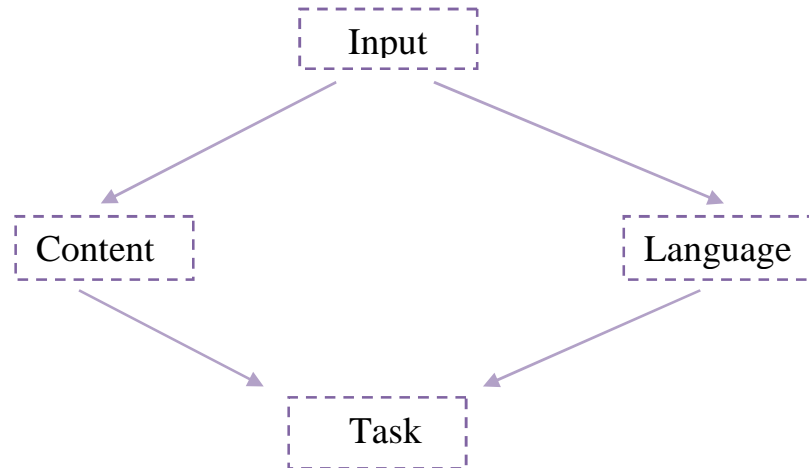
Material authenticity plays a major in both the design and success of any ESP language course. If students consider the material uninteresting, i. e, it does not cope with their own learning needs and the teaching methodology not creative, they lose their motivation. It's the duty of the specialist to establish a conducive environment for an effective and affective learning. The selection of appropriate teaching materials is one of the most important characteristic features of ESP in practice (Hutchinson and Waters, 1987). Actually, any language teacher or institution should provide teaching materials that will fit the specific subject area of particular learners. In this case, these materials should fully serve the speaking needs and conversational competence for professional purposes. 'Materials provide a stimulus to learning. Good materials do not teach: they encourage learners to learn' (Hutchinson and Waters: 1987:107). Experience, prove that when students are stimulated they are eventually committed to learning and do their best for achievement, 'Tell me, I forget. Show me, I remember. Involve me, I understand' emphasizes the ancient Chinese Proverb.

On the basis of the syllabus components of the ESP speaking course, the practitioner can select speaking lessons including speaking activities related to the sources of authentic material such as various reference books, catalogs, seminars/ conferences and training sessions in the field of science and technology. Many ESP writers emphasize that language specialist and subject specialists can look into those rich references and make discussions to select teaching materials or write in-house

materials (Robinson 1991; Hutchison and Waters 1987; Jordan 1997). Below is a model presented by Hutchison and Waters (1987) which has helped them producing their own material for a speaking course. This model consists of four elements: input, content focus, language focus and task. It is described as follows.

1. **Input:** This may be a text, dialogue, video-recording, diagram or any piece of communication data, depending upon needs defined in analysis. The input provides a number of things:
 - Stimulus material for activities;
 - New language items;
 - Correct models of language use;
 - A topic of communication;
 - Opportunities for learners to use their information processing skills;
 - Opportunities for learners to use their existing knowledge both of the language and the subject matter
2. **Content focus:** Language is not an end in itself, but a means of conveying information and feelings about something. Non-linguistic content should be exploited to generate meaningful communication in the classroom.
3. **Language Focus:** The main aim is to enable learners to use language, but it is unfair to give them communicative tasks and activities which they do not have enough of the necessary knowledge. In language focus learners have chance to take the language to piece, study how it works and practice putting it back together again.
4. **Task:** The ultimate purpose of language learning is language use. Materials should be designed, therefore, to lead towards a communicative task in which learners use the content and language knowledge they have built up through the unit.

The model consists of the following four elements:



Model for Material design of a speaking course (Hutchison and Waters1987).

IV.28. Technical English for Civil Engineers

Here is a real ESP course content to enhance Technical English for Civil Engineers in Spain. It can be taken as an example for Algerian experts to design a suitable future course for their students at the E.C.D.E.

IV.29. Course description:

The activities for this module are intended for Spanish students of Civil Engineering who have an intermediate level of English and are already acquainted with the basic vocabulary of construction.

The units have been devised to help learners at this level to improve their knowledge and use of English in engineering environment. Each standalone unit covers vocabulary related to a particular topic area – such as harbours, bridges, tunnels etc --, and is designed to reinforce the grammar knowledge of students and improve their communicative skills.

The texts and multimedia reflect an authentic use of the language so the students will get a detailed understanding of the terminology.

Further bibliography for both the students who study on their own and the teacher in the classroom is provided at the end of each unit.

ACTIVITY 1:

A. Work in pairs. Can you provide a definition of Civil Engineering?

B. Watch the following video: “What do civil engineers do?”

(See Appendix for transcript)

[Video Source: <http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=plnTeN8SDD4>]



Make a list of the words that you hear following these categories:

| |
|-------------|
| Jobs: |
| Structures: |

C. Work in pairs. Discuss the topic of the video with your partner. Who do you think the target audience of the video is?

“ The term civil engineering describes engineering work performed by civilians for non- military purposes. In general it describes the profession of designing and executing structural works for the general public and the communal environment. Civil engineering covers different areas of engineering, including the design and construction of large buildings, roads, bridges, canals, railway lines, airports,

water-supply systems, dams, irrigation, harbour, docks, aqueducts, and tunnels.”

“The civil engineer needs a thorough knowledge of surveying, of the properties and mechanics of construction materials, of the mechanics of structures and soils, and of hydraulics and fluid mechanics. Today civil engineering includes the production and distribution of energy, the development of aircraft and

airports, the construction of chemical processes plants and nuclear power stations, and water desalination”

Brieger, N. & Pohl, A. Technical English Vocabulary and Grammar. Oxford: Summertown, 2002. p.44

ACTIVITY 2. Grammar. Revision

REMEMBER!

- * Word order I: Verb + Object + Place + Time
- * Word order II: Position of Adverbs with the verb:
 - Main Vb+Adv
 - Adv+To be
 - Aux Vb + Adv + Main Vb

KEY: Murphy, R. English Grammar in Use. Cambridge: CUP, 2004, pp. 218-9.

Choose from page 5 one sentence which fits each of the above structures.

Can you write another example?

ACTIVITY 3. Vocabulary. Classify the words below into the following three categories:

| | | | |
|-------------|--------------------|---------------|------------|
| Camber | Clapper | Pavement | Well |
| Dam | Drainage | Lock | Underdrain |
| Crown | Lift | Pothole | Main |
| Culvert | Arch | Flume | Bascule |
| Kerb/Curb | Manhole | Sewer | Cantilever |
| Barrage | Metal | Soft Shoulder | Crossover |
| Span | Viaduct | Suspension | Macadam |
| Pedestrian | Crossing Suspender | Cable | Dike |
| Paddle | Pier | Swing | Sluice |
| Watercourse | Weir | Tarmac | Footbridge |
| Aqueduct | Water main | | |

Roads

Bridges

Waterways

Write five sentences using the vocabulary above. Can you find their equivalents in Spanish/Arabic?

ACTIVITY 4: Watch the following video and answer the questions:



[Video Source: <http://www.bobthebuilder.com/usa/videos.asp>.]

A. What are they doing? Match the items on the left with an appropriate action

| | |
|----------|--|
| Digger 1 | Pick up sand |
| Digger 2 | Lorrying something down to the builders |
| Digger 3 | Put the dirt at the back of the truck and hold the dirt away |
| Truck | Dump sand |
| Builder | Clear away concrete |
| Cranes | Pad down the sand |

B . Watch the video again. Can you hear any synonym for soil and for construction crane ? Where does the term kanga-hammer come from?

C. Self study. Read the transcript of the video paying attention to the technical words of the unit (see appendix).

ACTIVITY5. Grammar. Revision

REMEMBER!

We use prefixes and suffixes to form new words:

UN- IN- IL- IR- DIS-

RE- OVER- MIS-

-MENT -ION -ATION -ING

-NESS -ITY

-ER -IST

-OUS -AL -Y -IVE

-ABLE -IBLE

-FUL -LESS

KEY: McCarthy, M. & O'Dell, F. English Vocabulary in

Use (pre-intermediate & intermediate). Cambridge: CUP, 1994, pp.18-23.

Work in groups. Play noughts and crosses with the following words. Use

the prefixes and suffixes above to form new words. Each correct answer gets one point!

| | | | |
|--------------|------------|-------------|------------|
| Legal | Accurate | Calculate | Number |
| Satisfactory | Moral | Build | Do |
| Convenient | Acceptable | Understand | Charge |
| Experienced | Sufficient | Appropriate | Modern |
| Loaded | Organised | Probable | Respectful |
| Healthy | Hospitable | Estimate | Privileged |
| Value | Complete | | |

| | | | |
|-------|-------|-------|-------|
| IL- | UN- | IN- | MIS- |
| OVER- | LESS- | -ITY | IM- |
| -IST | OUT- | DIS- | -ING |
| IN- | MIS- | OVER- | UNDER |

ACTIVITY 6. Vocabulary. Match the following words for civil engineering tools and equipment with an appropriate image:

- | | | | |
|--------------------|--------------|--------------|-------------------|
| Construction crane | Dump truck | Shovel | Earth Mover |
| Bulldozer | Back hoe | Dredger | |
| Track excavator | Wheel Loader | Motor grader | |
| Back hoe | Cement | | truck Road Roller |



Conclusion

Teaching English for Specific Purposes is a current global approach, for in order to determine the kind of communication, learners would need to master for specific occupational or educational roles.

Working on one's oral expression is probably the most effective way to progress in English. But producing authentic language is often made difficult by problem comprehending the interlocutor, feeling incapable and even blocked, worrying about syntax, and searching for words, investigating time and energy with effective gradable language materials. This may be practiced with an emphasis on oral expression through conversation skills where the listening and speaking skills are developed in parallel.

The most challenging tasks constantly facing ESP teachers is how to attract the learners' interest and stimulate their motivation to learn. The materials derived from the real world, brought into the classroom by ESP experts, can reflect the real language use and may contribute to the overall learning process. Addition to it the advantage of the International communication Technology (ICT) including websites, telephone, and video, ESP practitioners and students have at their dispositions large amount and variety of related material available such as texts, visual materials, newspapers, video clips and much more. This will direct ESP students into the deep end of authenticity and make them develop their own strategies for dealing with real language.

The ICT application for teaching/learning purposes in becoming one of the major issues of contemporary education research concerning ICT use for language learning in the area of educational technology. Besides, authentic contexts and language use in typical work situations will consequently raise interest in learning ESP. the results would be a better achieve the students' language needs.

General Conclusion

General conclusion

After years of adopting the communicative approach in order to help language learners reach a communicative competence, practitioners in the field, unsatisfied with the results obtained by students during their communicative learning process felt a need to shift to another view. A new approach, meaningful skills and small group work has been applied to better achieve the students language needs in particular educational and professional settings.

Time has come for a new change in language teaching with English for Specific Purposes (ESP). It has grown to become one of the most prominent areas of EFL teaching today. An increasing number of universities offering an MA in ESP (e.g. The University of Birmingham, and Aston University in the UK) and the number of ESP courses offered for overseas students in English speaking countries reflect its development. Courses have even been designed for students in professional settings in non-speaking countries. An example of which is in Algeria when (l'école Britannique Language Solutions, Dely Ibrahim Alger) which depends from Cambridge university gave courses in some training centers. Among them were many largest foreign companies and associations, including Backer Hughs, BP/ISG, Burlington Resources.

Halliburton, Schlumberger and Sonahess ensured special teaching programmes throughout Algeria in 2003. This has started when Cambridge University provided language training and cultural training courses for managers from Anadarko and BP with Sonatrach as a constant client of language Solutions since 1997. The instructors welcomed to their school in London the first group of students from the Oklahoma project.

Other companies in this country need ESP where employers and mainly engineers want to strengthen their English language background. For example, employers of the Enterprise of Cement and Derivatives of ECh-chelif gave considerable value on graduates acquiring a diverse set of skills in different work

environment. Yet, their graduates felt the need for oral English technical communication and technical know-how. Their belief is that having the most knowledge is not as getting the work done in the most effective manner.

Notably, oral communication skills are considered very important in the graduates' new work environment. In fact, a lack of sufficient communication skills serves only to undermine the image of the engineer in today's global industry and international communication. Therefore, strong decision has been made to plan English for Specific Purpose at the E.C.D.E. Two teachers from (L'université de la Formation Continue de Ech-Chelif) were engaged to do the job. The programme starts with 80 students who are divided into two sections: Those who will directly meet technical English and others who will go back to review the basic elements of the English language. Each group will meet a teacher who will do the work. They will have their courses for one hour and half every Sunday and Tuesday afternoon.

Unfortunately, only forty learners remained till the end of the programme which lasted 42 hours for low level students and 52 hours for those with satisfactory one, because of some discouraging conditions.

The respondents' answers the first questionnaire clearly declare their wish is learning how to "speak well" or technically converse with non-natives.

The answers to the second questionnaire confirm the learners language needs.

Unfortunately, the lack of suitable activities such as role plays, pair and group works into the ESP programme inhibited to reach communicative fluency.

This appeared in the absence of listening skills and oral communicative activities.

The result was the inability to easily hold a telephone conversations or converse with a sufficient background of necessary technical terms.

Bibliography

-
-
- Applegate, R.(1975) “The Language Teacher and the Rules of Speaking”. TESOL Quarterly 9/3:271-81
 - Blue 1988
 - Brazil, D. (1992) “Speaking of Talking to People”. At Sophia University, Tokyo on January 1992.
 - Brieger, N.& Pohl, A. Technical English Vocabulary and Grammar. Oxford: Summertown, 2002.p.44
 - Brown, D. (2001) “Teaching by Principles: An Interactive Approach to Language pedagogy” (2nd ed). New York: Longman.
 - Brown, G., & Yule.G. (1983) “Teaching the Spoken Language”. New York: Cambridge University Press.
 - Brumfit, C.J & K.Johnson (1979) “Communicative Approach to Language Teaching”. Oxford University Press.
 - Butler, Y.G. (2005) “Comparative Perspectives Towards Communicative Activities Among Elementary Schools Teachers in South Korea, Japan and Taiwan”. Language Teaching Research 9/4: 423_446.
 - Byrne, D. (1976) “Teaching Oral English”. Longman.
 - Teaching Oral Communication: Longman Handbooks for Language Teacher, Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
 - Cane, G. (1998) “Teaching Conversation Skills More Effectively”. The Korea TESOL Journal 1/1: 31-37.
 - Carter, R. & McCarthy, M. (1995) “Spoken Grammar: What is it and how can we Teach it?” ELT Journal 49/3:207-218.
 - Carter, R.(1998) “ Order of Reality: CANCODE, Communication, and Culture”. ELT Journal 52/1:43-56.
 - Celce-Murica, M., Dörnyei, Z. and Thurrell, S. (1997), “Direct Approaches in L2 Instruction: A Turning Point in Communicative Language Teaching?” TESOL Quarterly 31/1: 141-152.
 - Cook, G. (1989). Discourse. Oxford: Oxford University.
 - Dörnyei, Z. and Thurrell, S. (1992) “Conversation and Dialogues in Action”. Hemel Hempstead: Prentice Hall.
 - Dörnyei, Z. and Thurrell, S. (1994) “Teaching Conversation Skills Intensively: Course Content and Rationale.” ELT Journal 48/1:40-49.
 - Dudley-Evans & St John. (1998): “Development in English for Specific Purposes”. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

-
-
- Ehrlich, S & Avery, P. (1992) "Teaching American English Pronunciation". Oxford, Oxford University Press.
 - Farrington, O. (1981) "The Conversation Class." *ELT Journal* 45:241-243.
 - Finochiaro, M. & Brumfit C. (1983). "The Functional National Approach from Theory to Practice". New York: Oxford University Press.
 - Folland, D. and Robertson, D. (1983). "The Conversation Class- Its Goals and Form". *ELT* 42:281-287
 - Gumperz, J. (1999) "Sociocultural Knowledge in Conversational Inference" in Jaworski, A. and Coupland, N. (eds.) *The Discourse Reader*. Oxon: Routledge.
 - Harmer, J. (2005) "How to Teach English: An Introduction to the Practice of Language Teaching". Addison Wesley: Longman.
 - Kramsch, C. (1983) "Language and Culture". Widdowson, H.G (ed). Oxford: Oxford University Press.
 - Laura Monros Gaspar. Alicante, 2009 "Technical English for Civil Engineers: Construction and Engineering Basics"
 - Lingtobown, P. and Spada, N. (2006) "How Languages are Learned". (3rd ed.) Oxford University Press.
 - Maritoshi, P. (2001) "A Four-Step Approach for Improved Syllabus Design Coherence." *The Language Teacher* 25/12: 15-19.
 - McCarthy, M (1991) "Discourse Analysis for Language Teachers". Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
 - McCarthy, M & O'Dell, F. *English Vocabulary in Use (pre-intermediate & intermediate)*. Cambridge: CUP, 1994.
 - McGregor, E. (1974) "Advanced English Conversation Classes". *ELT Journal* 28:349-352.
 - Miliani, M (2000) *Teaching English in a Multilingual Context: The Algerian Case*. In *Mediterranean Journal of Educational Studies*. Vol.6(1), pp.13-29.
 - Miliani, M (2003) "Foreign Language Teaching Approaches, Methods and Techniques". Oran: Dar El Gharb.
 - Murphy, R. *English Grammar in Use*. Cambridge: CUP, 2004.
 - Nunan, D. (1989) "Designing Tasks for the Communicative Classroom". Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
 - Nunan, D. (1999) "Second Language Teaching and Learning". Boston: Heinle and Heinle Publishers.

-
-
- O’Keeffe, A. McCarthy, M. and Carter, R. (2007) “From Corpus to Classroom: Language Use and Language Teaching”. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
 - Richards, J. (1980) “Conversation”. TESOL. Quarterly 14/4: 413-432.
 - Richards, J. and Sukwiwat, M. (1983) “Language Transfer and Conversational Competence.” Applied Linguistics 4/2: 113-125.
 - Robinson, P. (1991). “ESP Today: A Practitioner’s Guide”. London Prentice-Hall.
 - Sayer, P. (2005) “An Intensive Approach to Building Conversational Skills.” ELT Journal 59/1:14-22.
 - Sinclair, J. (1992) “Priorities in Discourse Analysis in Coulthard, M. (ed.) Advances in Spoken Discourse Analysis”. London: Routledge.
 - Taylor, B. and Wlfson, N. (1978) “Breaking Down the Free Conversation Myth”. TESOL Quarterly 12/1:31-39.
 - Thornbury, S. (1998) “Comments on Marianne Celce-Murcia, Zoltan Dörnyei, and Sarah Thurell’s Direct Approaxhes in L2 Instruction : A Turning Point in Comuunicative Language Teaching?” TESOL Quarterly 32/1:109-116.
 - Thornbury, S. (2005): “How to Teach Speaking”. Essex: Pearson Longma.
 - Thornbury, S. and Slade, D. (2006) “Conversation: From Description to Pedagogy”. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
 - Valette, R. (1973) “Developing and Evaluating Communication Skills in the Classroom.” TESOL Quarterly 7/4:407/-424.
 - Van Lier, L. (1989) “Reeling, Writhing, Drawling, Stretching, and fainting in Coils: Oral Proficiency Interviews as Conversation”. TESOL Quarterly 23/3:689-508.
 - Widdowson, H.G (1978). “Teaching Language as Communication”. London: Oxford University Press.
 - Yorio, C. (1980) “Conventionalised Language Formd and Development of Communication Competence”. TESOL Quarterly 14/4:433-442.

Training Reports

- Sersoub Bakhta, (2006) “Entreprises Des Ciments Et Derive D’EH-ECH-CHELIF”: Société par Action au Capital 5.000.000.000 DA.
- Kamel Bennafla, (2006) “Entreprises Des Ciments Et Derive D’EH-ECH-CHELIF”: Proceder de Fabrication du Ciment de L’E.C.D.E

Articles

- Technical English for Civil Engineers. Construction & Engineering Basics.

Web Bibliography

<http://www.bbc.co.uk> <http://www.bobthebuilder.com/usa/videos.asp>

<http://www.ceca.co.uk> <http://www.laces.org>

<http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=p1nTeN8SDD4>]

FURTHER STUDY:

Ibbotson, M. Cambridge English for Engineering. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 2008. p.48-9.

Swan, M. Practical English Usage. Oxford: Oxford University Press, 1995, pp. 606-14

White, L. Engineering Workshops. Oxford: Oxford University Press, 2003, p.2

Appendices

APPENDIX I

A Questionnaire with the Learners in NEED
for ESP at the “E.C.D.E” of Ech-Chelif, Algeria

Type of course

1. What is the Purpose of learning English at the E.C.D.E?
.....

2. What is the duration of the course? (in weeks/months)
.....

3. Are you taught General English or ESP (English for Special Purposes)?
.....

4. Does the course cover your language needs?

Yes

No

5. What skills are you taught?

Listening

Speaking

Reading

Writing.

6. Which skills do you need most?

Listening

Speaking

Reading

Writing.

7. What content material do you study in this course?

Tick (**P**) more than one option.

Commercial-produced generalist text?

Commercial-produced English for Specific Purpose (ESP) text.

Generalist authentic texts, e.g. technical manuals, university lecture note, textbooks.

Specialist authentic texts, e.g. technical manuals, university lecture note, textbooks.

Language Requirement of Students

8. What speaking skill do students require on exit from this course?

Tick (**P**) more than one option.

Participating in small discussion groups related to work or study.

Communicating ideas with fluency in an area related to technical expertise.

c Communicating ideas in both a formal and informal register depending on audience.

9. What listening skills do students require on exit from this course?

Tick (**P**) more than one option.

c Comprehending conversations on every day social and routine job-related themes.

c Comprehending technical vocabulary in professional settings.

c Comprehending speech delivered with non-native-speaker fluency.

10. What reading skills do students need on exit from this course?

Tick (**P**) more than one option.

c Interpreting data in tables and diagrams.

c Reading extended technical texts to identify main ideas and supporting details.

11. What writing skills do students require on exit from this course?

Tick (**P**) more than one option.

c Writing formal and informal correspondence and documents on practical and professional topics.

c Using a wide range of technical / academic vocabulary in writing.

c Writing essay length papers on areas of technical expertise.

APPENDIX II

A Questionnaire to Evaluate Student's English Language Achievement
at the E.C.D.E of Ech-Chelif

Would you please answer the following questions? Tick in the right box.

1. Was the duration of the English course (52 h) sufficient?

Yes

No

2. Was there a strong relationship between the course and your professional needs?

Sometimes

Always

Never

3. A thorough understanding of a native speaker occurs.

Sometimes

Always

Never

4. A full comprehension takes place with a non-native speaker.

Sometimes

Always

Never

5. Can you fully comprehend the contents of authentic technical manuals?

Sometimes

Always

Never

6. Can you carry on telephone conversations?

Sometimes

As long as the interlocutor is on

7. Can you easily understand, write and / or answer emails, messages ... etc?

Sometimes

As long as the interlocutor is on

8. Is a continuous formation in ESP necessary?

Perhaps

Yes

No

9. Who would you choose as an ESP expert?

A native

A non-native

10. Where would you carry on your training?

In Britain

In Algeria

APPENDIX III**TRANSCRIPT 1: WHAT DO CIVIL ENGINEERS DO?**

[Video Source: <http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=p1nTeN8SDD4>]

Civil Engineers design roads, bridges, tunnels, dams and airports. They combine a knowledge of material science, engineering, economics, physics, geology and hydraulics to create the physical infrastructure that is central to modern life. Naturally, there are numerous sub-specialties: surveying and mapping engineers identify the best sites for construction. Hydraulic and irrigation engineers focus on dams, flood control wells and reservoirs. Environmental engineers deal with waste water products, garbage disposal and recycling plants. And traffic engineers specialize in designing people moving systems be they underground subways, commuter railroads or new or improved roads and highways. A bachelors' degree is the minimum educational requirement. At some universities this is a five-year program but co-op, junior-colleges and night-school options are also available. Becoming a civil engineer is a lot of work but if you like the idea of being part of big complex projects to improve people's lives it could be just the profession for you.

APPENDIX IV**TRANSCRIPT 2: FIRST STAGE OF BUILDING**

[Video source: <http://www.bobthebuilder.com/usa/videos.asp>]

The digger takes the dirt out. It puts the dirt at the back of the truck and when it's full the truck holds the dirt away. There's another digger. It's clearing away a lot of small pieces of concrete that nobody needs anymore. And here is another digger. It's dumping sand in a big pile and driving off to get some more. Here's all that's been dug already. This truck has picked up lots of sand to put at the bottom of the hole ready for concrete to be poured on top. There it goes! This builder is padding down the sand with a kanga-hammer. It squashes the sand so that it's really hard and flat. Here comes more sand . That special digger with a caterpillar truck is

delivering it. The kanga-hammer bounces up and down. It's called the kanga-hammer because it's like a kangaroo. Kangaroos bounce up and down and so does this hammer. The builder has to be very careful when he's using this hammer. It's very powerful. Here are the tower cranes. They work high up in the sky. Look! They can see the whole foundation underneath them. Cranes are lorrying some thing down to the builders. I wonder what it is! I see it's a big bundle of special metal rods. These rods are called rebars. The builders lay them on top of the foundation just before they pour in the concrete. That way the foundation is made out of concrete and metal so that it's very very strong. Metal bars have to be put together just like a big jigsaw puzzle. The builders melt the end with a special flint torch. That way, different pieces of rebar can be joined together

Glossary :

| | |
|--|--|
| BAR: barra | PILE: montón, pila |
| BUNDLE: lío, fardo. | POUR : verter, echar |
| BOUNCE UP AND DOWN: rebotar | REBAR (reinforcing bar): barra de armadura |
| CLEAR AWAY: recoger, retirar | ROD: barra, vara de medir |
| DUMP : descargar, verter | SQUASH : aplastar |
| FLAT: plano, llano | TORCH: soplete |
| LORRY: remolcar, transportar | UNDERNEATH : debajo de |
| MELT: derretir | |
| PAD : rellenar, amortiguar, almohadillar | |

REFERENCES:

- Brieger, N. & Pohl, A. Technical English Vocabulary and Grammar . Oxford: Summertown, 2002. p.44
- McCarthy, M & O'Dell, F. English Vocabulary in Use (pre-intermediate & intermediate). Cambridge: CUP, 1994.
- Murphy, R. English Grammar in Use. Cambridge: CUP, 2004.
- <http://www.bbc.co.uk> <http://www.bobthebuilder.com/usa/videos.asp>
- <http://www.ceca.co.uk> <http://www.laces.org>
- <http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=p1nTeN8SDD4>

FURTHER STUDY:

- Ibbotson, M. Cambridge English for Engineering. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 2008. p.48-9.
- Swan, M. Practical English Usage. Oxford: Oxford University Press, 1995, pp. 606-14
- White, L. Engineering Workshops. Oxford: Oxford University Press, 2003, p.2