



Evaluation of the English for Specific Purposes (ESP)
Programme in Engineering Universities in Punjab,
Pakistan

RANA MUHAMMAD BILAL ANWAR

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Engineering Universities in Punjab, Pakistan

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Engineering Universities in Punjab, Pakistan

by

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A thesis submitted to the University of Bedfordshire in partial fulfilment of the
requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy

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Dedication

.....to my parents for *love, faith, and support*

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I would like to express my sense of personal and professional debt to those individuals who supported and encouraged me in every stage throughout the course of this work without whose assistance this product would not have come into existence.

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Abstract

The study evaluates aspects of an on-going educational programme “the ESP Programme” in the Engineering Universities of Punjab, Pakistan. It also highlights the importance of English Language program evaluation before and after teaching English language. Program evaluation is a largely ignored area of English language teaching. To date, there has been little research into the evaluation of academic programs in the field of ESP. Pakistan's English for Engineers university programme is a case in point. Although this programme was developed almost two and half decades ago, so far it has not been evaluated systematically in a way which would identify its merits and shortcomings and provide a basis for its continuous, systematic, research informed development. The present study is a report on an attempt to fill this gap in two ways:

(a) by considering how a thorough evaluation of an on-going ESP (English for Specific Purposes) programme in engineering universities in Punjab, Pakistan could be carried out in the context of the concern for 'quality assurance' in educational innovation.

(b) by developing some research instruments required for carrying out the evaluation

The study describes how questionnaires, interviews, observations, and document analysis were designed and used to gather qualitative and quantitative data revealing a positive general attitude toward teaching/learning English as a foreign language .There was general agreement that the broad needs of the students had been well recognised and the objectives had been well set. However, the programme was not regarded a success due to its failure to achieve the intended objectives. The findings of the study also show the importance of all four language skills in an ESP program, both for the students' academic studies and

for their target careers. Generally speaking, the evaluation results indicate that the ESP is helpful to some extent but the programme is unsuccessful on the whole. There is no learners' 'needs analysis' with respect to their 'wants' and 'wishes'. There is big incongruity between the opinion on priorities by programme designers and policy makers, lack of teacher competence, training, and the neglect of learner assessment and evaluation. The study recommends the provision of teacher training and the recruitment of additional ESP teaching staff as first steps towards the necessary improvements. It is also concluded that the collection of multiple types of data from various sources and places is necessary to overcome many of the problems commonly associated with needs analysis and evaluation studies.

DECLARATION

I declare that this thesis is my own unaided work. It is being submitted for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy at the University of Bedfordshire.

It has not been submitted before for any degree or examination in any other University.

Name of candidate:

Rana Muhammad Bilal Anwar

Signature:

Date:

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

APEP	Association of Professors of English in Pakistan
BALEAP	British Association of Lecturers in English for Academic Purposes
C1PP	Context, Input, Process and Product
CSE	Centre for the Study of Evaluation
LAP	English for Academic Purposes
EFL	English as a Foreign Language
EGP	English for General Purposes
ELT	English Language Teaching
LOP	English for Occupational Purposes
ESEA	Elementary and Secondary Education Act
ESL	English as a Second Language
ESP	English for Specific Purposes
ESPT	ESP Teacher
EST	English for Science and Technology
FLCCD	Foreign Languages Committee on Curriculum Development
Int.	Interview
Inst.	Instrument
Li	First Language
L2	Second Language
HEC	Higher Education Commission
Pro. Des.	Programme Designer
Q	Questionnaire
SSpT	Subject Specialist Teacher
St.	Student
TESOL	Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages
VESL	Vocational English as a Second Language

CHAPTER 1

OPENING REMARKS

This study is an attempt to evaluate an educational innovation - the ESP programme in engineering universities of Punjab, Pakistan. It endeavors to uncover the components of the programme by providing as thorough and as accurate a picture as possible, of various elements that helped shape the programme. It attempts to investigate different aspects of the programme, both policy and practice, including the design, implementation, operation and outcomes to find out their merits and shortcomings with respect to current views in the field. In the process, the study concerns itself with theoretical and practical dimensions of programme evaluation, weighing their significance in relation to their appropriateness and applicability to the educational setting under consideration. Finally, the results are analyzed and the findings are considered in the contexts of evaluation and of current trends in the field of language learning, leading to conclusions about the study's implications for evaluating similar programmes of study and applications in improving the existing and developing new ESP programs for engineering students in Punjab (Pakistan) as well as other similar programs.

The study sheds light on many aspects of the program it sets out to investigate, and sheds light on the role, value, and legitimacy of evaluation in educational settings in general. Although the importance of evaluation has been widely recognized by most practitioners, evaluation should nonetheless be regarded as an emphatically integral part of any educational programme, built into the life-cycle of the programme as a permanent component for continuously monitoring and scrutinising its various aspects and processing information in order to provide feedback for the programme's improvement and development. This could not

have been achieved by adhering exclusively to one or other approach. A successful educational evaluation should avoid the polarisation of approaches and techniques, once much in vogue, into an exclusive 'qualitative/quantitative' and 'product-oriented/process-oriented' debate, which tends to narrow the perception of an otherwise panoramic view of evaluation. Instead, it should openly adopt, incorporate and utilise the full range of pertinent dimensions of educational evaluation relevant to a given situation. The evaluator may avail himself/herself of the benefits of the complementary roles that different methods and techniques can offer to evaluation instruments, as well as of the type and quality of information that would be processed and analyzed. Assuming a holistic approach to educational evaluation is axiomatic in ensuring the quality of that evaluation; triangulation may additionally provide a cross-checking of results, and hence, maintain validity.

An issue of particular importance in the context of this study is the condition and status of educational evaluation in Pakistan as a developing country. Evaluation is not developed as a monitoring tool in Punjab (Pakistan) education system. In most academic programs educational and academic progress could not be monitored. The review of the available literature reveals the non-existence of any documented report of a systematic evaluation carried out on a nation-wide scale. However, there are different academic committees normally set up by government in order to both monitor education and investigate specific problems associated with schools below university level but their role is just like visitor panels.

The public examination system in Punjab (Pakistan) is regarded as a monitoring device for different schools to evaluate their successes. Every major stage of recognized education under university level completes with a countrywide public examination. These are primary school stage and secondary school stage examinations, conducted by regional and provincial boards of examination respectively. Public examinations are regarded highly in Punjab. Therefore, performance in these examinations is generally accepted as a valid indicator of the quality and state of public institutions. There are always debates about falling standards in education after the release of every set of examination results. Although public examinations cannot be equated to a comprehensive, systematic and organised evaluation, they do serve to stimulate institutional self-evaluation

and hence bring about change. Public examinations have in this way come to constitute a powerful impulse for institutional self-evaluation.

Moreover, teacher performance assessment is a common activity on the Pakistani educational scene at this level. However many traditional approaches, concepts and principles are used to assess the teachers' performance. Appraisal is usually performed on an annual basis. At the end of each year, the academic department head is often required to write a report to a committee of the Higher Education Commission, Pakistan on the pedagogical performance of every teacher. In many cases, such assessment efforts are focused primarily on individual teachers rather than upon what an individual is expected to achieve? In other words, it is the impression of the academic head which counts rather than the assessment methodology adopted, which is generally not related to the teaching/learning interaction.

At university level, studies involving evaluation of the effectiveness or impact of innovative programs are few and far between. A survey of the Pakistani higher education reveals the very pathetic state-of-the art of educational evaluation. Occasionally, individual studies dealing with certain aspects of education are reported in professional journals at the academic level. However, rigorous evaluative studies of educational programmes or projects are almost non-existent. Teacher performance appraisal is usually carried out perfunctorily, using generalised tools which, in most cases, lack validity.

A detailed examination of evaluation reveals that evaluation is an influential instrument for bringing educational reforms in the country's education system. Although examination systems at the end of the academic year may be referred to as evaluation mechanisms, clearly, examination systems do not meet the requirements for a proper evaluation of educational systems. This is the need of the time to establish an efficient evaluation system that will serve on a wider scale throughout the country and at all levels of the education and training system in order to have a progressive educational system. Moreover, this evaluation system should provide information so that important feedback and advice can be

provided during the programme implementation as a tool for programme amendments.

Many developing countries like Pakistan have a shortage of human and financial resources. Therefore, they have an increased need to assess the efficiency and productivity of the education system accurately so that costly mistakes and waste should be avoided. Taking into account the insufficiency of human resources and the resultant job security at different levels of administration and education in Pakistan, the threatening nature of evaluation is, to a great extent, reduced. For this reason, evaluators who undertake an active role in their projects, and whose evaluation is formative in nature, thus providing very useful feedback, ought to be, not only acknowledged, but also followed. Within the past two decades, Pakistan has witnessed an innovation in various aspects of its educational system on an extraordinary scale, and systematic evaluation is highly desirable in order to monitor the effectiveness of these innovations continually. This can only be achieved by building capacities for the growth and development of educational evaluation. An important prerequisite for the success of his endeavor is that educational evaluation be recognised and institutionalised at high levels of policy-making and administration, so that adequate support for and encouragement of the development and enhancement of evaluation methods, instruments and practices are provided. A prerequisite for achieving this is the provision of adequate financial support as well as the development of a climate of concern and interest in the utilisation of evaluation findings. This is all the more important because problems in evaluation sometimes arise from resistance, or unwillingness to cooperate on the part of managers, simply due to their poor grasp of the purpose and value of evaluation - not to mention their possible fear that evaluation will threaten their positions. Therefore, establishing a culture of evaluation and the perception of evaluation as a sub-component of education studies and applied linguistics is another important concern.

Educational evaluation in the present study has utilised models, approaches, designs, and instruments developed in the context of industrialised countries. Their legitimacy and appropriateness needs to be scrutinized, possibly leading to the development of evaluation methods, instruments and procedures adapted to

dealing with the socio-economic and cultural specificities of educational settings of particular countries.

The present study attempts an evaluation of a programme which was initiated in a particular context, integrated into an existing system, and developed on a nationwide scale at a particular time. The development of this programme is an immense undertaking, and no doubt, a move in the right direction. Regrettably, it took place at a time (just after *Islamization of country after Zia's regime*) when institutions of higher education in the country were neither prepared for change nor in receipt of assistance needed for coping with the challenges of change. Some of the inadequacies of the operation referred to in this study should therefore be viewed in the context of this unfortunate state of affairs.

ESP will keep growing in Pakistan. After all, it has only climbed up the first few steps of its evolutionary ladder. Its growth requires action, thoughtful and realistic; and measures, taken consciously and accurately; all nuances to be seen with open eyes; achievements and outcomes to be scrutinised at every single stage. Such scrutiny today did not happen to produce desirable results, but the willingness to reform, the strong tendency to improve, and the genuine desire to solve the problems are all there; and I see no reason why we should not be optimistic for the future.

CHAPTER 2

INTRODUCTION of RESEARCH CONDUCTED

2.1 The Main Aim

This study aims to evaluate the on-going English language program in engineering universities of Punjab (Pakistan) using both “formative” and “summative” methods of evaluation in order to: (a) find out the merits and the shortcomings for the purpose of improvement (administrative motivation), (b) provide evidence for specific recommendations to HEC (Higher Education Commission Pakistan) which will inform policy making and designing a new ESP course for the engineering universities (instructional motivation) and (c) develop a set of evaluative criteria/framework for Pakistani ESP programs.

The English Language program for engineering universities in Pakistan was developed in 1994 and no systematic evaluation has so far been conducted. This research project will make a contribution to knowledge by filling the above mentioned gap, opening new directions for evaluative research in other professional and cultural contexts.

Based on the framework developed for the proposed study, the researcher defines program evaluation as "an organised way of gathering information from the different stakeholders to analyse the course/curriculum, learner assignments and teachers participation/empowerment in the academic program to make a conclusion about the program effectiveness and inform the decision about improving and future planning."

Evaluation is a pervasive feature of any educational organization. Increasingly, students, teachers, principals, educational boards, curricula, programs, policies, schedules, and practices are being evaluated for different purposes - all intend, in some way, to measure effectiveness and efficiency. Program evaluation, a major concern in education, is increasingly becoming the focus of attention not only for those who determine the principal orientations of social and economic policies, but also for those who provide the necessary backing for their implementation. It is, in fact, a subject which has, of necessity and indeed appropriately, occupied a growing place in policy-making and in the implementation of programs for some time. As Willison (2012) observes:

Evaluation is now viewed as a vital component of an educational program, which serves to relate the elements of the curriculum to each other and to the goals and effects they achieve, judging efficiency and effectiveness, as well as addressing Issues of accountability (Willison, 2012: 13).

In the field of English language teaching, evaluation has emerged in recent years as a major area of interest and has attracted the attention of funding agencies, educational Institutions and language teaching professionals, while concepts of management, innovation, development and others have gained currency (Rea Diclons and Germaine, 1992, Alderson and Beretta, 1992; Weir and Roberts, 1994). The purpose, as viewed by Weir and Roberts has been to collect information systematically in order to indicate the worth or merit of a program. It is also to inform decision-making, either by staff (insiders) for improvement or by 'outsiders' for determining educational policy and spending (Weir and Roberts, 1994:4)

The study of evaluation projects is comparatively sparse and very little has been written on this topic (Kennedy, 1988; Lynch, 1990; Burden and Williams, 1996). In discussing the literature on ELT programs Beretta states:

To date, very few books have appeared on the evaluation of language teaching programs in general. This compares unfavorably with the general field of education, where dozens of titles appear annually in one publishing house (Sage). In TESOL, the major professional organization for English teachers, there is not even a special interest section on program evaluation. By comparison, quite clearly, in the field of second language education, there has been little attention given to evaluation. (Beretta, 1992: 5)

Even less frequently discussed has been the subject of evaluation in English for Specific Purposes (ESP) (McGinley, 1986; Mackay, 1981). While sharing the views of McGinley (1986) and Mackay (1981) regarding 'neglect in ESP evaluation', Robinson (1991) mentions that ESP materials and programs are often described as successful, but without any account of objective measures of this success (Robinson, 1991: 65). Therefore, while enumerating the reasons suggested by Swan (1986) for the underdevelopment of evaluation in ESP, Robinson insists that in the 1990s there was a great concern for the cost effectiveness of courses and of large-scale projects and, as a consequence, a need was being recognised for appropriate evaluation (Robinson, 1991:65).

Indeed, the key issue in the improvement, success, and justification of the continued existence of an educational provision is evaluation. As Johnson (1989) emphasizes, curriculum development and renewal can only proceed effectively if supported by evaluation. It is believed that the examination of an ongoing educational program would "satisfy contractual or bureaucratic demands and produce information for program or project improvement as well" (Weir and Roberts, 1994: 8). In the light of these orientations, this study has set as the primary objective the investigation of various aspects of the ESP program in engineering universities in Punjab, Pakistan, in order to provide insights which will inform answers to the *Whats, Hows* and *Whys* of the programs' design and implementation.

It is believed that educational development, like all development, takes place in a broader context. Educational policy is informed and determined by the wider political philosophy on which it is based. On the other hand, a political *philosophy* is itself a subset of a more general philosophy of beliefs and of a world view, commonly referred to as ideology. An educational philosophy in its turn directs a language planning policy, establishing, for instance, the role of foreign language in the society, which itself ordains the approach to the teaching of that language in the classroom. The educational program under investigation in this study, the ESP program in Pakistan, Punjab, must, therefore, be viewed within such a framework of principle and policy.

For many years, the combination of post-colonial heritage, political, commercial and ideological pressures interacting with each other and with other countries has shaped Pakistan's foreign language, and in particular the English language, policy and practices and the role of English in the educational system of the country. In the substantially different political and ideological climate in the pre-90s and the post-90s Pakistan, English was particularly relevant in the context of the new roles assigned to foreign language education, which had previously been considered as having only a general place in the curriculum, while aspiring to fulfil the country's huge foreign language communication needs. Since 1990, there has been a fundamental reappraisal of its place and a reassessment of its importance to the nation, as it seeks to lay the foundations of a new society. The roles and responsibilities attributed to, and practically played by, English are substantial and onerous. Nevertheless, the extent to which it can effectively meet them, and over what time-scale, remain very much open questions which await appropriate consideration.

Another very important phenomenon of foreign language teaching in the 21st century is the importance of well trained and skilled professionals so that they can meet the needs and requirements of even changing world. At the moment, many developing countries are investing huge amounts of financial resources to get a better skilled and qualified human resource by providing them with a

suitable educational environment, so that they can challenge the rapid improvements in the world. The most productive way to have a qualified staff is to teach them at least one foreign language (Siddique 2007). The flux in the world and technological globalization have increased the importance of English language being the only and preferable language of communication. People can use this language at the workplace and across the borders to communicate (Purpura and King, 2003).

The world has become a global village due to technological enhancements in the present times. With the advancements in the field of technology, the ever increasing phenomenon of pervasive mutual dependence of countries is observed. (Rochester , 2010).In the present time, no can stay alone in the tele communicative and business world. Every country needs to have good relationship with other countries to market her products. Language can be the only tool which can tie different countries together. As communication is the most important means of launching, keeping and giving new directions to international links among countries, having one common language is the most important need of the time and the English language has become the prime means for communication among the world's countries. (Klyagin & Voskoboynikova, 1998). That is why English is taken as the "...major language of international business, diplomacy, and sciences and other professions" (Kaito, 1996).So all the countries can access to each other's market using English as a lingua franca. Being an associate of the international community, Pakistan cannot remain secluded from the rest of the business and tele communicative world. In Pakistan, English is used as a second language which helps Pakistan to meet the challenges of business world.

2.2 Study Context

This study is undertaken for a number of reasons which are briefly outlined here. First, evaluation is an increasingly recognized subject as an integral part of policy-making and of the implementation of educational programs. The potential contribution of evaluation to improving both the planning and execution of programs and to a better utilization of resources has made it a permanent

concern both for those who determine the major orientations of social and economic policies and for those who provide the necessary backing for their implementation. (Murphy, 1985: 13)

Second, Pakistan has invested large resources in the development, implementation, and qualitative improvement of English language programs at university level in recent years. Expectations of the impact of the introduction of the new program, particularly at university level have been high, but very little published information exists on the extent to which such expectations have been met.

Third, the research is unique, hardly any work in this field with reference to Pakistan has been carried out so far, with the exception of Siddiqui's (2007) outline on English language skills for engineers in Pakistani engineering universities. However, no rigorous and wide-ranging evaluation has so far been made. I believe, such an investigation provides information relating to the outcome of the program, which may lead to the identification of the strengths and weaknesses of the program, essential for improvement, development, and decision making purposes.

Fourth, as an English language teacher with first-hand experience of teaching English courses, I am aware of a large number of difficulties and problems associated with attempts to improve the quality of English language teaching in engineering universities in Punjab, Pakistan. This research makes a contribution to identifying and assessing the different problems faced by the key stakeholders in the English language teaching and learning process.

2.3 Research Questions

The research presented in the chapters focuses on four major areas: goals and objectives, needs analysis, materials design, and teaching methods. It attempts to set the evaluation in a broader context relating to English language learning in

engineering universities in Punjab (Pakistan) by addressing the following principal questions:

1. What are the goals and objectives of the program?
2. What are the students' needs as perceived by:
 - a. Program designers?
 - b. ESP teachers?
 - c. Subject specialist teachers?
3. Are the objectives appropriate to the needs of the students?
4. What are the students', teachers', and administrators' perceptions about the effectiveness of the current program?
5. How effective is the current program in meeting the needs of the students?

2.4 Objectives of the Research:

The objectives of the study are to:

- Scrutinize the goals and objectives of the ESP Program in engineering universities of Punjab, Pakistan, in order to find out to what extent they are justifiable with respect to their appropriateness to the needs of the students, the structure of the system, and the content of the program.
- investigate what the needs of the students are as perceived by the program designers, the ESP teachers, the academic subject specialist teachers, the students as well as the relationships among them
- Examine the extent to which the intended objectives are appropriate to the needs of the students.
- Investigate the extent to which the program has been successful to meet the needs of the students.
- Examine what the attitudes and feelings of the students, the teachers, and the administrators with respect to the program.
- Investigate the extent to which the program has been successful to contribute to the improvement of the quality of English language in engineering universities in Punjab, Pakistan.

2.5 The Framework:

After critically evaluating different studies, the framework for this study was developed through adaptation. As the research is the platform for different researchers in Pakistan and around the world, different researchers will develop the framework further to make it more suitable for the Evaluation of an ESP program in the other professional universities of Pakistan or to evaluate different academic programs in the universities of Pakistan.

The preliminary ESP program evaluation model for this study includes a detailed list of components. This fabric states that ESP program evaluation should be addressed by the stakeholders' goals and must contain three elements: Course evaluation, learner's assessment and teacher's involvement. This study's course evaluation model is based upon three approaches. First is adapted from Hutchinson and waters' approach. The second element is from Halan and shafie, the third is adapted from the FL model by Norris and Gonzala I. These components taken from the three current approaches, have been upgraded. For example "learner's outcome' was taken from Hutchinson and waters. Along with adding "learner's assessment" to focus on the significance of using various evaluation tools I also added the components of legitimacy, learner's autonomy and sharing of learning to this model.

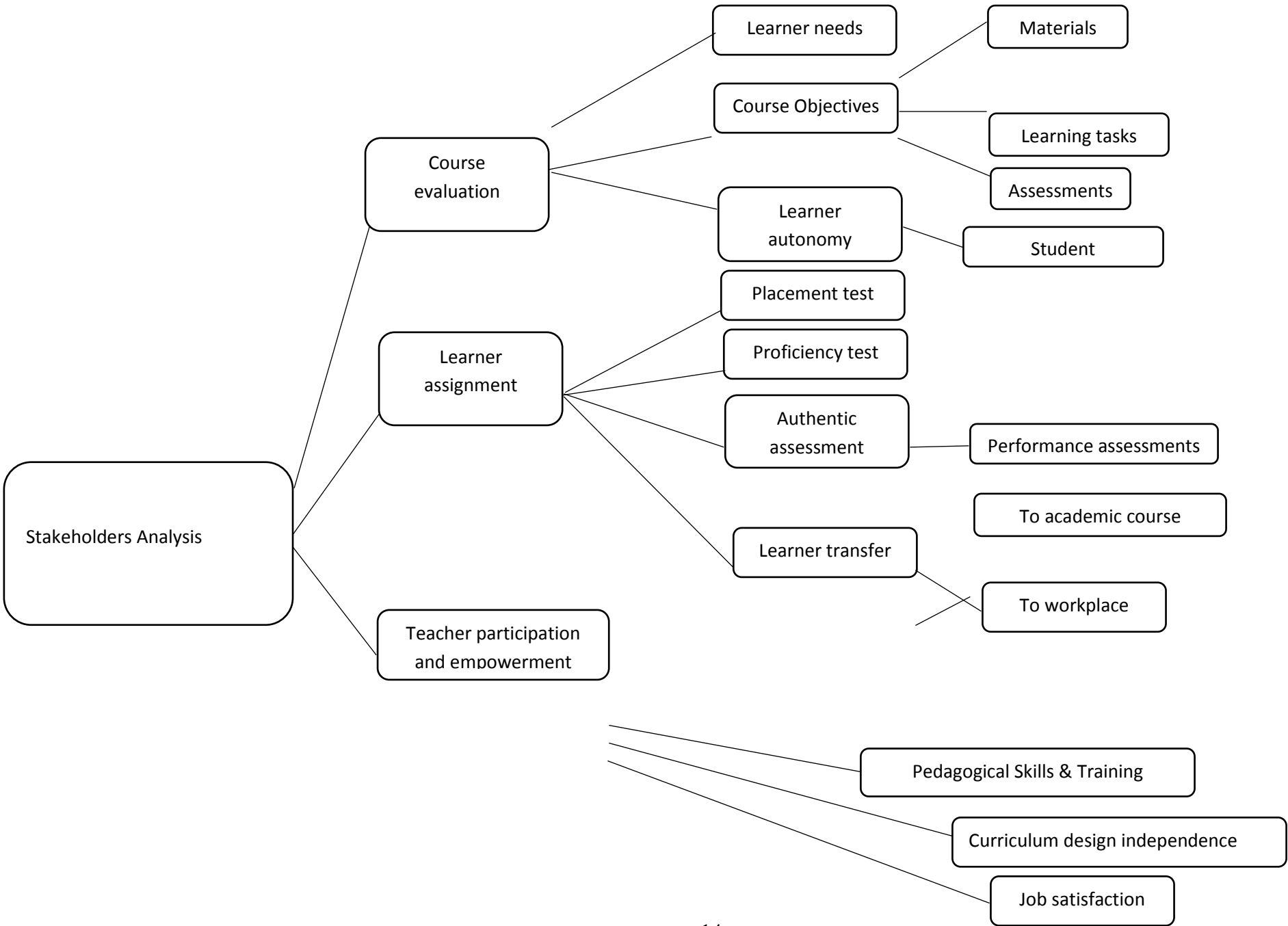


Figure 2.1 (Evaluation Framework).

2.5.1 Stakeholder analysis

In the proposed framework, the evaluation process starts with recognizing or identifying stakeholders' goals and needs. With the help of this process, the researcher understands the important concerns of different stakeholders about this program. Which is infect the emphasis for program evaluation. The stakeholders of an ESP program include ESP teachers, curriculum developers, policy makers, alumni, and students. The evaluation framework is useful to the stakeholders as it leads to gaining data and insights which will assist them in determining the value of the program and the effectiveness of the instruction, making possible improvements in curriculum design and instruction.

2.5.2 Course evaluation

In this proposed framework, course evaluation is conducted to get the answers of following three questions:

Have learner needs been fulfilled?

Are the materials and tasks are authentic?

Has the course successfully fostered learner autonomy?

2.5.3 Fulfillment of learner needs

Hutchinson and Waters (1987) believe that the main goal of ESP courses is to fulfill learners' learning and pragmatic requirements so that these courses must explore to what degree these requirements are met by these ESP courses. If there is found any deprivation, the program instructors and administrators must find out the reasons behind this failure to achieve its goals. The problem may be in the materials, syllabus, teaching tools, strategies and techniques, system of evaluation or administration. These authors have also suggested different strategies to be utilized for the evaluation of course: questionnaires, test results, interviews, discussions, and after-class feedback in the form of comments.

2.5.4 Learner assessment

In this framework, learner assessment is similar to that proposed by Hatam and Shafei (2012). It comprises of a similar type of evaluation: proficiency, placement and achievement tests.

2.5.5 Teacher participation and empowerment

It is recommended by the proposed framework that data gained through program evaluation should be designed in a way that makes possible empowerment and professional answerability of ESP practitioners. While achieving it, the program aims at shifting the focus of assessment from an externally mandated procedure to an internally motivated one. It can be said that evaluation data are utilized for multiple purposes: supporting planners and instructors become skilled from the program assessment procedure. Utilizing teacher surveys and interviews is recommended for assessing teacher empowerment and participation. The present framework includes a suggestion in line with the present argument: decision making, perceived organizational support and job satisfaction (Scherie, 2002).

Data is required to establish whether instructors are in knowledge of the program, whether they have an opinion about how the program was working and whether there are regular meetings to sustain professional relations in the program or to work out any differences between the instructors and program administrators.

To determine job satisfaction, ESP evaluators can inquire about the clarity regarding role expectations, capability of being a supportive role through staff development programs, and the feeling of self-respect in teachers as professionals. More specifically, the data should be aimed at knowing that whether the teachers are aware of the standards expected of them and they know that these programs will provide training and progressive support.

2.6 Limitations of the Study:

The main limitation of this study is that it relies on stakeholders' (students, teachers, and policy makers' etc.) self-reported data only. In other words, the findings are a measure of how different stakeholders perceive this ESP program. It may be preferable to support stakeholders' self-reported data with a variety of measurement tools, such as achievement tests. However, in Pakistan universities are not allowed to share the exam sheets and answer sheets of students once these have been submitted to the respective examination control office of the universities. One needs to have permission from the court to get access to those exam sheets which requires lots of time and money.

A second limitation relates to the lack of an external evaluator. The involvement of an external evaluator in the study might enhance the credibility and objectivity of the evaluation.

Thirdly, data collector bias might be considered as a limitation. Since the instructor was to administer the questionnaires and conduct interviews with his students, the students might have been unwilling to express their views sincerely. In addition, during the face-to face-interviews with the instructors, some respondents may not have truthfully answered the questions that they found sensitive. More specifically, several interviewees were concerned about the administrators' reactions to their answers. Thus, they may have been hesitant to reveal their true opinions or attitudes related to the program.

Finally, although the results can provide insights valuable to other universities in relation to the issues revealed in the present study, the results cannot be generalized to other educational contexts in Punjab (Pakistan).

2.7. Idea of World Englishes and EGP/ESP in Pakistan?

I discussed the question mentioned above with my colleagues in Pakistan. I summarised their answers based on their practical experiences. Their answers explore the issues that a general English teacher or ESP teacher in Pakistan encounters when the idea of different versions of standard English around the world comes and how it affects discussion on ESP/EGP in Pakistan?

Considering this increasing need and a dire importance of English at the global level, English is being taught as a compulsory subject in Pakistan from Class I to Graduate level. There are some issues that the ESP practitioners came up with talking about the idea of world Englishes. I have written them in points to have a better understanding of the concerns and suggest the ways to deal with them.

- Pronunciation of certain vocabulary words borrowed from other languages had always been an issue, according to an ESP practitioner. Help was taken from colleagues in this regard
- With the passage of time, there would be more branches of English language like English for Teachers (since English is required right from the nursery level nowadays), English for Internet, English for Mobile Phone Texting, etc. Due to globalization, there will be a massive explosion of vocabulary and a mixture of Englishes will be required by the students according to their needs. For example, Japanese, Indianish, Chinglish, etc. In order to overcome situations as these, the ESP practitioners need to be more dynamic in their approach; keep themselves sentient and updated about the demands of the world, learn to make use of the internet, listen to news channels, watch dramas/ movies, etc.
- The majority of ESP teachers in Pakistan do not prefer to change their traditional style of teaching. They are still not ready to accept the idea of World Englishes. For them the Standard English vs Old Victorian English. They force their students to write and speak and like Old Victorian English. They should be skilful in applying modern ways of teaching, especially to make proper use of the computer in the educational process which would incorporate the idea of World Englishes.

- The students from Pakistan must learn the idea of World Englishes as it has already gained the status of intranational and international means of communication in the world (Crystal, 1997; Jenkins, 2003; Halliday, 2008). As Graddol (2006) puts it: "Rather, it has become a new baseline: without World Englishes, you are not even in the race." Graddol (2010) further suggests that it is now considered an essential skill rather than treated as a foreign language. It has the status of official language in Pakistan and is a working language of courts, administration, official letters, and a medium of instruction in the Higher Education of Pakistan. Some Pakistani students go abroad for studies every year, and they cannot really get the best out of it if they are not good at WE (World Englishes).
- This is the time to change our language policy. We also need to change our old and traditional ways of English language teaching. At present in mostly universities in Pakistan English language is taught through English literature. Although the name of the degree is MA in English language and Literature but the fact is that almost 90% of the syllabus is about English literature. Again, there were 56 authors selected for the course with more than fifty from USA and UK alone. We need to change this approach. We have to teach different perspectives to our students. This will be helpful for the students to look into the matter from various points of view and then they can make a clear judgment about the varieties of English in the world. We have to teach our generation about the different opinions existing about any one particular issue. They should be informed, and then they should be given the power to choose their own perspective. Materials from all parts of the world should be part of the syllabus and not simply from UK and USA. We need to be aware of the different varieties within their particular socio-cultural settings.
- Language is an active system, which is always in the process of change. Any given language affects and gets being influenced by the other languages in the

society. English is no exception. So, whenever we talk and teach about the history of English language, WE cannot be overlooked.

- If we want to talk about the history of English language, we have to consider different regional varieties of English. The history will be incomplete without explaining the varieties of English in UK, USA, Australia, Canada, India, Pakistan, France, Singapore, China, Nigeria to name only a few.
- Pakistani students have to develop their understanding of the different perspectives and issues regarding the worldwide use of English. The teachers should provide an in-depth insight to the students about the thematic understanding of the issues presented by Y. Kachru (2005).

She classifies the research interests in WE as:

- i. the spread of English in history;
- ii. the linguistic processes that mark the characteristics of different varieties;
- iii. the use of English in socio-cultural contexts;
- iv. intelligibility for both local and global varieties;
- v. effects of English on local languages and at the same time the effects of local languages on English;
- vi. issues of bilingualism and multilingualism;
- vii. the literary creativity of English in various settings;
- viii. the functional application of varieties in different communities;
- ix. the demands of the multiple kinds of users;
- x. the teaching and learning of English in the outer and expanding circles; and
- xi. Many other issues like linguistic imperialism or linguistic divide, etc.

2.8. Organization of the Research Study:

The presentation of the study begins in Chapter 3, where a description of emergence of English language in Subcontinent and Pakistan is given. This chapter also talks about the education system in Punjab, Pakistan and status of English language in Pakistani education system. The last part of this chapter highlights the evaluation process and the importance of evaluation in the Pakistani education system.

Chapter 4 provides an overview of English Language Teaching (ELT) in general and English for Specific Purposes (ESP) in particular, discussing its evolution, nature, origins, development as well as its distinctive features as a specialist discipline.

Chapter 5 deals with evaluation methodology, concentrating on educational program evaluation. It discusses historical trends in educational evaluation, explaining different approaches developed and their significance in educational enterprise. In the process, dominant dimensions of evaluation that are applicable to language programs are examined

Chapter 6 discusses the design considerations of the study. It presents a detailed description of the planning, development, and execution of the evaluation, discussing the methodological orientation of the study, development of the instruments, and the actual execution of fieldwork for gathering the required data.

Chapter 7 deals with the results acquired from the analysis of the interviews piloted with the ESP teachers, students, the subject specialist teachers, and the program designers. It presents a descriptive account of the informants' views regarding different characteristics of the program as shown in the original design of the study.

Chapter 8 presents the results obtained from the analysis of the fieldwork questionnaires administered to students, ESP teachers, and subject specialist teachers. It provides an

extensive analysis of the data relevant to different aspects of the program, used to make inferences about their efficiency in design, implementation, and execution of the ESP program as well as to explore the unintended consequences of the whole enterprise

Chapter 9 discusses the results obtained from the analysis of the data collected through observations carried out at two universities, deliberately selected for an in-depth study of the teaching process as exhibited through the classroom activities of ESP teachers interacting with their students, with respect to the significance of their educational nature in the teaching/learning process.

Chapter 10 concludes the study by reflecting on the research questions posed. It draws together the results of the data analyzed in the preceding chapters to synthesize the findings and draw conclusions, identifying key areas for further research and, where appropriate, making policy recommendations.

It is hoped that the findings from this study will offer useful insights to those who are involved in the development and implementation of ESP programs in particular, and make contribution to the body of knowledge in educational program evaluation in general.

2.9 Summary

The overview of the research problem, the research questions, the research and the organization of the study presented in this chapter, along with the description of the system and structure of education in Pakistan (including the role and status of the English language), as well as a brief consideration of the emergence of English for Specific Purposes as a sub-discipline in the ELT sphere in Pakistan, provide essential background for the detailed presentation of the research project in the chapters that follow.

CHAPTER 3

ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING IN PAKISTAN

This chapter presents an overview of English as an academic discipline in the subcontinent and Pakistan. It also considers the education system of Pakistan and the different policies regarding English language teaching in Pakistan's education system. This chapter also highlights how English as a language and as a discipline emerged in Pakistan with reference to EGP (English for general purposes) and ESP (English for specific purposes). It also discusses the emergence of English for Specific Purposes as a sub-discipline in the ELT sphere.

3.1 English in the Sub-Continent

In 1835, Lord Macaulay introduced a new education system in India and determined the status of English as per the need of the British. His idea was to produce *Indian Britishers* who could facilitate the British in their offices and will be English men with black skin. In a result is that English will be an important part of curriculum, and no government will try to eradicate it from the Indian academic curriculum. Globalization as given a large value to English language, fluency in English language is a passport to a great job (Minutes on Indian Education 1835)'. With the patronage of the British, English became the official language of India and learning English was the guarantee of job.

The services of Sir Syed Ahmad Khan (1817-98), at this critical juncture of time, cannot be forgotten who took concrete steps to implement his vision to make the Indian Muslims learn English. He opened MAO (Mohammedan Anglo Oriental) College in 1877 in Ali Garrh which ultimately became a university in 1920. This college opened a

new world to the Indian Muslims (Bakshi, 2001). He further started a newspaper which impressed the Muslims a lot as it was simultaneously written in both English and Urdu. Sir Syed's strategy to familiarize the Indian Muslims with Western knowledge and culture proved fruitful and many people started understanding the vision of Sir Syed. Such an effort improved the social and economic condition of the Indian Muslims and they started getting jobs because of English as it was the official language of India (Hadaytullah, 1970).

3.2 Historical Background of the English Language in India and Pakistan

Historical background of English in this Sub Continent is traced back to the arrival of the British in this region. They tactfully replaced Persian with English as the official language for inculcating their culture in this colonial state with the perception that this soil is short of culture and other values and needs to be civilized.

Stephenson (2012:30) reproduced Lord Macaulay's' statement and documented, "A single shelf of a good European library is worth the whole native literature of India and Arabia. We must, at present, do our best to form a class who may be interpreters between us and the millions whom we govern; a class of persons, Indian in blood and colour, but English in taste, in opinions, in morals, and in intellect."

Kumar (2012:85) quoted Lord Macaulay, who stated,

"I have travelled across the length and breadth of India and I have not seen one person who is a beggar, who is a thief. Such wealth I have seen in this country, such high moral values, people of such calibre, that I do not think we would ever conquer this country, unless we break the very backbone of this nation, which is her spiritual and cultural heritage, and, therefore, I propose that we replace her old and ancient education system, her culture, for if the Indians think that all that is foreign and English is good and greater than their own, they will lose their self-esteem, their native self-culture and they will become what we want them, a truly dominated nation"

Trevelyan (1876:370) stated that five members in the Committee of Public Instruction were in favour of oriental languages such as Sanskrit, Persian and Arabic while five members favoured English language. Lord Macaulay in 1834, chairman of the council voted in favour of English to replace all other languages in Sub-Continent. The given citations are indicative of the intention of the then British Government why they wanted English to be taught to Indians. The intent was to ideologically convert Indians with the weapon of English language.

Persian was a powerful symbol of the Muslims in the undivided India the coming of the British rule people of this region lost their hundred year's long identity. Britain worked carefully on their language policy. Vernacular and English schools were opened in 1835 by the Lord William Bentinck, Governor General in his time in the Sub-Continent. Rajas and Feudal lords, loyal to British Government were allowed to take admission in English Schools while general masses were restricted to Vernacular Schools which were not expansive.

The British-India linguistic policy was highly fruitful not only during their rule, but even today, after our independence; it is nourishing and flourishing day by day. It proved itself as a passport of getting tremendous jobs in Government, Social and Military Sectors of this country. According to Rahman (1996:44) the average cost of English Schools was Twenty to Seventy Five times higher than Vernacular Schools. Similarly the Government was spending two to ten times much on students of English Schools. Resultantly, two different trained stuffs were created by this dual system of education in this region. This parallel system of education could not be eradicated even after getting our independence in 1947, rather they flourished and multiplied as the higher bureaucracy and the military personnel are the product of the English Schools.

To maintain the status quo of English, both India and Pakistan continued it as the official language in their respective countries. Mahboob (2002:32) stated that it was to maintain its prestigious position and protect the power structure. After independence, the right wing political parties strongly demanded for Urdu to be the sole national language, but no switch over occurred due to lack of political will and sufficient resources for this purpose. Moreover, Bengalis opposed it as the national language for united Pakistan.

According to Mansoor (1993:55) Bengalees strongly advocated their own Bangla-language to be the national language, spoken and understood by most of the people in the newly born country in 1971. Even, in 1977, the Chief Marshal Law Administrator declared that “Urdu only” did not weaken the position of English in Pakistan. Graduates from English Medium Schools struggled hard for getting white collared jobs and handsome salaries while Non-English graduates struggled hard for even minor jobs with scanty package. Rahman (1996:57) rightly stated that there is discrimination between the English Medium and Non English Medium Schools with poor skills in English Language, in high class of society. He is of the view that in Pakistan, English language is guarantee to a good and lucrative job.

3.3 The Education System of Punjab, Pakistan

School level education in Pakistan consists of four stages: Primary (grade 1-5), Middle (grade 6-8), High (grade 9-10), and Higher Secondary (grade 11-12). Secondary Education plays an intermediary role between Elementary Education and Higher Education which is important in providing human resource capital for socio-economic development of the country. National Education Policy of Government of Pakistan(1998-2010:37) documented the importance of Secondary Education and stated, “The quality of higher education depends upon the quality of Secondary Education. It is a stage, where a student reaches to the age of adolescence and that is the most crucial stage of life”. Academically developed countries are focusing their attention on research to solve the growing problems of Secondary Education and find out remedial solutions for them.

Goel (2005:3) reported that Secondary Education is a period of education, which follows after elementary education. The quality of higher education largely depends on the effectiveness of Secondary Education which depends on effective teaching practices. It is almost impossible to compete in the global world without having sound knowledge of English language, its teaching strategies and classroom practices. The advancement in the field of Science and Technology, throughout the world, has also given added importance to English language.

3.4 English in Pakistani Education System

In Pakistan, English is being taught as a compulsory second language after Urdu and occupies an international position hardly enjoyed by any other language. Moreover, the political supremacy of the English speaking countries has also popularized the cause of English language. The rising power of the United State of America and its fast spreading influence in the world played a vital role in guiding the growth of English and helping it assume an eminent position, all over the world.

In Pakistan, there are two schools of thoughts: one is in favour of English and the other is against English. Both of them are extremists. They become sentimental rather than logical on the issue. Apart from sentimental considerations either in favour or against English, there is no doubt that the study of English as a second language is essential for Pakistani youth, who want to reap the full fruit of modern education and technology.

3.4.1 Importance of English Language

According to Honna (2012:01) the privileged position of English as a second compulsory language is based on the following reasons:

- An international language to communicate.
- Medium for higher education in Pakistan.
- A language of world knowledge.
- A language of standard terminology.
- A rich stock of literature.
- Language of world diplomats.
- Helpful in modernization of people.
- Its use in commerce and industry.
- Market value of English.
- Cultural value of English.
- English as a major window to the world.
- International mean for communication and a language of tourism.

3.4.2 Importance of English in Pakistan

Urdu is the national language of Pakistan and there are other 60 languages spoken in Pakistan. English language enjoys an extraordinary status in Pakistan and Pakistani Education system. In the words of Ghani (2003, 105)

“English in Pakistan serves as a gateway to success, to further education and to white collar jobs. It is the language of higher education and wider education and not the home language of the population except in the upper strata of society where it is spoken as a status symbol.”

Table 3.1: Pakistani Languages

Pakistani Languages	
Languages	Percentage of speakers
Punjabi	44.15
Pashto	15.42
Sindhi	14.10
Siraiki	10.53
Urdu	7.57
Balochi	3.57
Others	4.66
Source: Census 2001: 107	

The teaching of English in Pakistan is mainly through text books recommended by the respective educational board and commissions at Divisional, Provincial and Educational levels. A Pakistani student is motivated into learning English language for:

1. To get higher studies outside Pakistan.
2. To have good job opportunities abroad.
3. Missionary, military and social purposes.
4. Commerce and trade.
5. Learning and academic purposes.

As an international language the importance of English cannot be ignored at any cost, it is almost spoken and understood by many people in the world. It is imperative to live actively in this global village with knowledge of English on priority basis. Mahboob (2002:48) stated that English is an international language, and it is the language of computer and technology mostly spoken and comprehensible language in the world. Books are the treasury of knowledge which are mostly written in English and their accurate translation is difficult and time consuming. In Pakistan, people learn English for the attainment of science-education and social status, preferred by highly educated class being a passport to development and prosperity.

A few decades before, there came a time when English, the language of the British, was looked down upon, but now, according to Haque (1983) cited by Mansoor (1993:150), there is no love and hate policy regarding English language, People have no hostility and have accepted enthusiastically learning of the English language. It is learnt by the graduates of both English and Urdu Medium Schools. As stated out by Mahboob (2002:18) it is learnt for utilitarian purposes for people of different socioeconomic backgrounds and not being rejected by Colonial Masters, rather considered as a tool for individual and societal transformation. It was not replaced by Urdu due to the positive attitude of learners. They want to be literate in English for a successful life. According to Rahman (1997), the report of National Education Commission 1959 has also recommended the importance of English reason being that it contributes to the national development, English having strong position needs to have a sound perpetual position in the system of education. The report further documented that for understanding English, being a foreign language, proper attention and modern teaching methods are the need of time. It is to be taught as a compulsory subject from grade six to degree level as functional language.

Gillani (2004:07) described that English is the most important language in Pakistan used as the medium of instruction in the institutions of higher education and widely used in electronic media in this country. Some books, journals and newspapers are also published in English. Being official language, people are taking interest in it for getting their employment. In fact, no other language can enjoy its position as English in Pakistan

Colman (1996:34) documented the importance of English to university students in the U.K. It is a gateway for career development, for travelling purposes in different countries for knowing the culture of the people it is spoken widely. Ellis, (2005:74) stated, "English Teaching is to help the learners communicate properly". Pennycook (1998:74) stated

that English has intrinsic (the nature of language) and extrinsic (the function of language) features which are far more superior to any other language. However, as languages, all languages of the world are equal.

English, as a second language, is the fastest growing area of education. Not only in the United States, but around the world adults are giving time, effort and money to learn English language. Griffiths et al (1996:09) described that nearly 300 million people were learning English at that time. Looking into this development of English as the *lingua Franca* it is a reality that it helps in communication across cultures. Snow (1996:14) stated that English is a means of communication at the international level. People belonging to different nations; discuss their mutual areas of interest in this language while travelling together. It is used as a necessity even by those whose mother tongue is not English.

According to Crystal (2001:54) English is spoken either in some countries or it is used by some other countries as a language of exchange and tourism purposes. It is largely observed that it is also used for publication and, as a result of that, knowledge is transferred to other nations of the world. It is further added that French, Spanish, Russian and German are also very developed languages. No European country uses English, at all, for educational or official purposes. Chinese, the biggest language of the world (regarding its number of speakers) is officially used for all purposes, in China.

In the recent times, the recognition of Pakistani English and its sub varieties by ELT practitioners is significant. It will make ELT more realistic to the language situation. Moreover, it can contribute towards needs analysis and will enable the ELT practitioner become better aware of the patterns of acquired proficiency of the learners. The legitimacy of Pakistani English will alleviate the burden of an alien as well as abstract standardization of English language that has made ELT for Pakistani learners a difficult

job. As Rahman has pointed out, the awareness of Pakistani English is useful for the practitioners of ELT, who will become concerned with the genuine linguistic needs of the learner as well as the difference between mistakes and deviation from BSE will become clear to them.

3.4.3 Study of English in Pakistani Schools

In Pakistan, today we need English mainly from the utilitarian point of view rather than for cultural purpose. As a language of great utility, English serves as the medium through which we can establish contact with the intellectuals of the world over who can facilitate us to know what is happening elsewhere. Therefore, the main purpose of teaching English is not to give our students access only to literature, but to make them active users of simple, natural and living English.

English language occupies a prestigious place in Pakistan. It is hoped that better future of learners largely depends on acquisition of English proficiency. This is supported by the fact that even parents of school going children are happy to get their children admitted in the school where English is taught from the very beginning. English in Pakistan has assumed the position of a compulsory second language in the school curriculum up to higher secondary level and all science subjects are taught in English at higher secondary and university level.

3.4.4 The Teacher of English in Pakistan

As a matter of fact, subject teachers need a sound knowledge of the language so as to establish the relation between language and environment and to find out the important elements in the learning of English language and teaching. In Pakistan, an English teacher has to secure a sound foundation for oral and written English through a deep

study of phonetics of English. The teacher of English should know the interrelationship of different types of grading: lexical, grammatical and phonological.

3.4.5 The Role of Teacher Education in Promoting Teaching Practices

Government of Pakistan (2009) documented that for a teacher, to assume teaching, as a profession needs to be well- equipped with all the necessary skills, methods and techniques needed for effective teaching. So, teacher education is that knowledge and competency of the teacher which is relevant to his profession as a teacher. Teacher Education can be viewed as pre-service, induction and in-service. It enhances teacher's ability to take care of himself by developing his potentialities and all the required skills. Moreover, he can well determine the set objectives and its proper delivery at the end of its proper evaluation.

3.4.6 The Teacher Education System in Pakistan

UNESCO (2008) reported that the study of teaching practices also requires a consideration of the teacher education system. Like all other resources, a teacher is the most important educational resource. It is, therefore, necessary to enhance this asset by maximizing his potentialities to ensure positive aspect of teaching-learning process. In Pakistan, various Teacher Training programmes are in operation. Some of them are pre-service at the secondary level, (Bachelor of Science and Arts) B.A/B.SC and (Bachelor of Education) B.Ed. is the required qualification for appointment as (Secondary School Teacher), who is responsible for teaching to 9th and 10th classes. B.Ed. is the professional qualification delivered by various institutions like Peshawar University, Allama Iqbal Open University and other private Universities and Colleges at KP province of Pakistan. This is also offered throughout the country.

Similarly, refresher courses are also organized during summer vacations in different Regional Institutes of Teacher Training (R.I.T.E). The main purpose of such courses is to acquaint teachers with new ways and approaches in the relevant field of teaching. In Pakistan, teacher training suffered due to poor and faulty training system. It is generally believed that training improves both theoretical and practical knowledge of teachers, but, here, it has to be ensured that teachers will be able to apply their knowledge in classrooms properly. The National Education Policy of Government of Pakistan (1998-2010:65) laid much emphasis on teacher training with the recommendations to provide proper number of trained teachers to disadvantaged institutes.

3.5 Gaps in the Existing Structure and Curriculum in Pakistani Education System

Mac Leod (2003) viewed that it is a fact that the existing structure of teacher education is not fruitful as it does not provide opportunities for professional growth. This inadequate teacher training is full of hurdles for career development of teachers. Quality of teacher training is always ignored, In- Service Programme of training has no connection to raise teachers' morale. Teachers are engaged to get their maximum students passed by any mean irrespective of classroom interaction and problem solving approach, which are the soul of modern educational practices in Pakistan. More stress is given to memorization and rote learning.

According to Mirza (2003) teaching atmosphere is not focusing on modern teaching styles as the trainers themselves are not well aware. They don't discuss the positive role of no cost and low cost A. V. Aids, for suitable utilization in classrooms. As per rule, each teacher will get a chance of a refresher course after every five years, but, in Pakistan, teacher training programmes are not interesting and nobody takes interest in those, which results in wastage of money and time. Not much emphasis is laid in courses on classroom management. No master plan for long term and short term goals,

achievement is prepared. Short duration of pre-service training is also a big hurdle to fully equip a teacher with necessary skills. It is for short duration of one year only and is not compatible with the global scenario. In India, Iran, Korea and Nepal the duration of teacher training is two years even for primary school teachers. In China it is four to five year programme and in Indonesia 6 years, Malaysia three years duration. In case of Secondary School Training almost every country has four year programme duration. While in Pakistan a B.Ed. is only of one year duration after a B.A/B.Sc. Lack of management culture in training institutes is worth mentioning for raising teacher's problems.

3.6 The Important Role of Evaluation in English Teaching Practices

Bennet (2011) stated that as a matter of fact, no teaching learning is effective unless it is properly assessed. Assessment is mainly of two types at the secondary level. Formative Evaluation and Summative Evaluation. In formative evaluation a teacher evaluates learners work during the on-going activity in the classroom so as to measure their difficulty and achievement level which is the main focus of a teacher. Learners learn well when they are assessed by giving them proper feedback at the secondary level. It identifies learner's needs on one hand and their solution on other hand for reaching the objectives quite easily by helping them to develop all the required skills. It changes the way teacher interacts learners by giving them acceleration with ease and comfort.

It is highly effective tool for learner assessment to raise their standards by increasing their ability level and better outcomes. Positive participation of learners is ensured and their confidence level is enhanced. Misconception regarding the subject matter is removed by proper feedback.

Their performance is evaluated individually, in peer work as well as in group work. It makes learning process more crystal by assessing their worth. They are helped to reach their target within stipulated time by removing all their weaknesses. In this way they are held responsible for all their actions. Problems of learners are addressed on the spot.

Brookhart (2001) is of the view that summative evaluation takes place at the end of the year at secondary level to assess the overall achievement level of learners, On the basis of which their success and failure is decided. Successful learners are promoted to next classes while unsuccessful are left in the same classes. In Pakistan, Board of Intermediate and Secondary Education, conduct such Annual Exams.

Positions of the students in the class and grades are decided at this stage. Furthermore it directs and motivates learners to study more. Both summative and formative evaluation is key to success in teaching learning process. Both teacher and students are not only motivated but channelized for achieving their goals.

3.7 Teacher Training of English Teachers

Darling-Hammond (2005:01) stated that, in modern society, the significance of teacher training is not denied at any cost as the learning parameter and standards are changed what they were in past due to immense need and thirst of knowledge. Education is considered a source of success both for individual and nation. As a matter of fact, teachers' crucial role is of great importance in teaching learning process. Therefore, demand for good teacher is the need of the day.

The National Education Policy (2009:43) captured the circumstances rather well:

The reorganization of teaching excellence is of the uppermost main concern. There is consent amongst all stakeholders that the worth of teachers in the public sector is unsatisfactory. Pitiably quality of teacher in the system is owing to mutations in governance, an out dated training organization and a less than sufficient in-service training system. Availability of ineffectiveness in such a vast amount and penetration of malpractices in the profession have eroded the once glorious position enjoyed by teachers under the eastern cultural setting.

Ali (2011:210) stated that the history of teacher training programme is traced back in Pakistan since 1947. It has been treated as sub-sector by all National Education Policies and Five-Year plans. The overall summary of teacher education proposes that by and large, huge number of institutions is developed for teacher training programme to train the teachers. Currently, a large number of teacher training programmes right from certificate courses to Ph.D. in education are offered by three hundred institutions both in public and private area.

Darling-Hammond (2005:06) stated that sufficient teacher training enables an individual to have crystal vision of teaching. Moreover, well-stated principles of teaching practices and presentations, knowledge about learners' psychology and socio-economic background, curriculum assessment, comprehensive pedagogical experience, vivid strategies to assist learners, establishing sound relation with learners and shared belief are the impotent areas of teacher education. He further stated that teacher education enables a teacher to comprehend learners' mental level in the light of socio-cultural environment, having sound knowledge of the subject matter and the required teaching skills for proper delivery and looking into the individual and social demands of the learners. Teaching is a challenging job especially in case of a diverse society.

Gallego (2001:314) noted that trainee teachers may be sent to schools having diverse nature of students with no parental cooperation so that they may get practical know-how of such learners. Moreover, without strong connection between classroom, school and concerned community nothing can be achieved. These considerations should be a part of teacher training programme.

Zeichner and Flessner (2009:24) stated that a number of attempts are made by most of the countries in the world to improve teacher training programmes in their respective countries. It is acknowledged that teacher is the only changing agent on the surface of earth. So, much attention should be given to him to make him a valuable asset.

Dilshad (2010:85) stated that quality of teacher, by and large, depends on the teacher training institutes preparing them. In Pakistan, much quantitative expansion has been observed with no qualitative improvement, which is responsible for low quality product in term of teachers. Organized cheating, in these institutions, have paralysed training programme . The most important aspect of schooling is the quality of teacher education which has direct effect on the learners' outcomes.

Ali (2011:217) stated that teachers are trained in institutions, largely cut from schools, while internationally these institutions are closely linked to one another to hold teacher training institutes responsible for a growing change in the schools. It is high time to reduce the maximum gap between teacher institutions and schools. It should be made an integral part of National Education Policies.

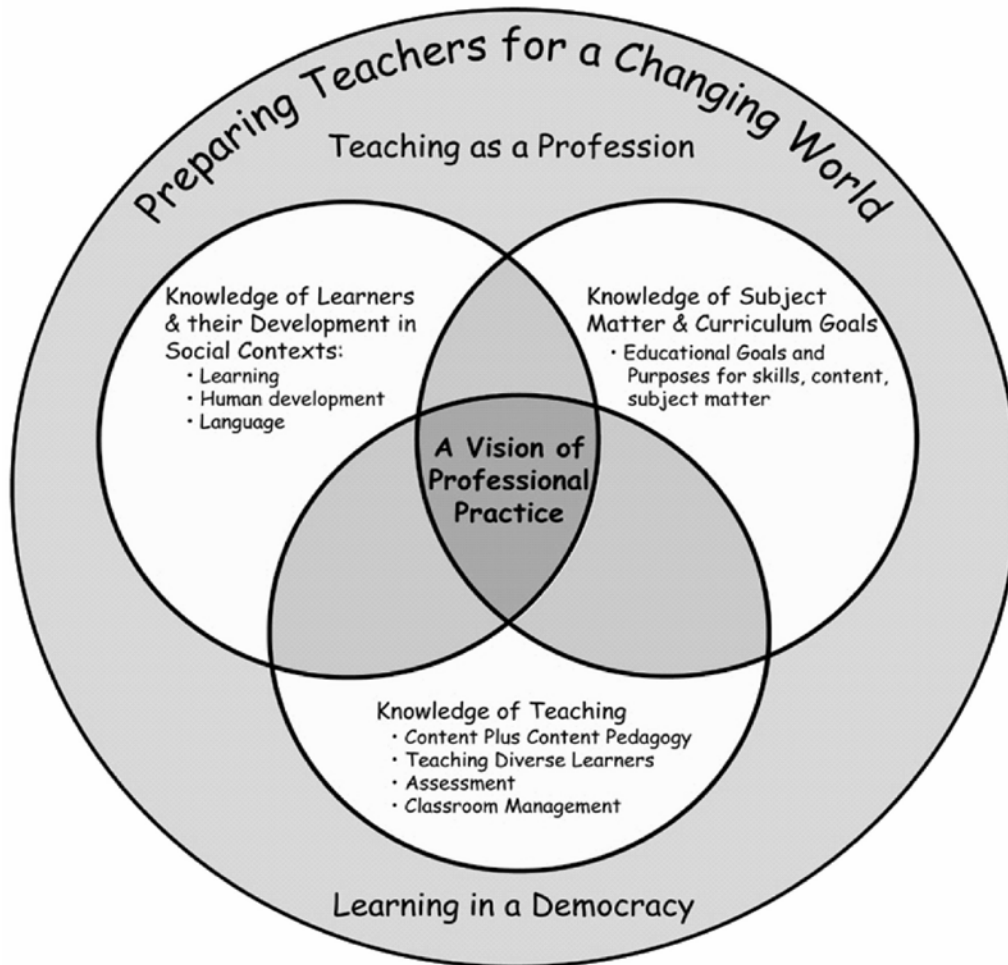


Figure 3.1 (Framework for Understanding Teaching and Learning)

(Darling-Hammond & Bransford, 2005, p. 11)

According to Darling-Hammond and Bransford (2005:11) modern day teachers should keep in view a broad professional vision. To achieve it they have to undergo a few practices including the following:

3.7.1 Evaluation of Students

In the field of second language education, programme evaluation has gained comparatively little attention. *Researchers in the field have* frequently complained about the scarcity of evaluation practices and regarded it as a defect and altogether

undesirable. Murphy says, "... there is a fundamental inadequacy in current models for syllabus and curriculum design in ELT: a neglect of evaluation.... The neglect is evident in ELT practice, and contrasts with general developments in education" (Murphy, 1985: 15).

Similarly, Alan Beretta states:

To date, very few books have appeared on the evaluation of language teaching programmes in general.... In the language teaching journals, evaluation studies are rarely published which do not focus on the seemingly never-ending 'methods' debate (which has wearied Sweet as long ago as 1899) or on the highly politicised bilingual programmes.... In TESOL, the major professional organization for English teachers, there is not even a special interest section on programme evaluation....
(Beretta, 1992: 5)

In the area of evaluation in ESP, the situation is not any better and similar complaints persist. Charles Alderson and Allan Waters, in their paper 'A Course *in* Testing and Evaluation', indicate that evaluation in ESP has received relatively little attention compared to material design, teacher training, and so on, and argue that this imbalance is undesirable and unnecessary. They state that in many comparable areas of educational activity, evaluation is normally accorded a more prominent position (Alderson and Waters, 1983). Even, as Waters points out, "... the relatively limited attention devoted to evaluation in ESP is often of a kind inappropriate to the needs and interests of the majority of practising ESP teachers" (Waters, 1982: x).

According to Hatipoglu (2010: 43), Education System in Turkey is totally examination-oriented. At every level of education i.e. primary, secondary and university, students are tested and their performance is evaluated. For this purpose, quizzes, mid-terms and final terms examinations are taken. At the end of the year centralized tests take place on the basis of which students are promoted to next higher level. Students' performance

at any level shows the overall performance of the teachers and schools, in Turkey. According to him, students are divided into various groups and they are supposed to make presentations for 50 minutes. Their particular skill is evaluated i.e. grammar or reading etc. various techniques i.e. multiple choice fill in the blanks and match the columns are being used by the teachers to examine various skills of the learners. Fifteen to Twenty questions from TOEFL or IELTS are taken and critically analysed their strengths and weaknesses. All the materials are taken from presentations, examinations and example questions and are uploaded to be seen online, to be used by the learners who get an access to it.

Raees,Z., N.A. & Hussain,A. conducted a research study in 2011, in Pakistan, using Goal based and CIPP models. That is, they evaluated the Community Public Partnership scheme by focusing on student satisfaction, teacher evaluation-salary, workload, training; supervisory practices, examinations results, as well as identifying problems faced by the licensees of CPP schools. By providing questionnaires to Ts, Ss and Principals, along with semi-structures for government officers and NGO leaders, they found that 99% students were satisfied with teaching. As for the teachers, 87% were satisfied with workload, but nearly only half of them (52%) were satisfied with their salaries. In addition, 54% of the respondents stated that the way of inspection of the supervisor is very harsh. As far as parents are concerned, 62% take active part in the education being imparted to their children, which further explains the fact that 45% of the schools have Parent Teachers Association, while 48% of the schools had Students Council (SC). The results of different classes on board examinations show that the majority of the CPP schools have satisfactory results. Yet, the overall analysis shows that most of the objectives of CPP scheme were not achieved completely. About half of the principals (48%) were disappointed with the role of government agencies regarding the CPP project even though the majority of the government officials were satisfied with the performance of CPP schools. Evident was also the lack of cooperation among government officials, investors and principals. Still, some of the schools are facing problems including burden of utility bills and non-cooperation between the morning head

teachers and government officers. However, since this research was based on girls' schools only, caution must be applied, as the findings do not provide an overall picture of the participants.

Jin (2010: 567) viewed that language teaching teachers believe that their students take interest in language course and feel satisfied after evaluating their task. He valued the practicability of such courses by looking at the learners' motivation. He reported that English language teachers are not duly trained about how to evaluate their learners' work. This is a dilemma needs to be addressed soon. Teacher training institutes need to be strengthened to enable teachers to assess the overall linguistic aspects of learners.

According to Leung and Mohn (2004:336) over the last few decades much emphasis is paid to formative evaluation for the improvement of an on-going educational project. Formative evaluation shows the worth of an activity how it is going on and at the same time, depicts how to handle its various components to work with proper order. Effective implementation of formative assessment ensures the learners' achievement. It is used as a tool to collect various information regarding the learners. The more the students' areas are evaluated, the better will be their outcomes. Students engaged inside classroom evaluation bring high grades by bringing promising results. In such case, the teacher asks various questions and the students respond properly. Their teacher values the worth of the collected responses and a general idea is developed to enhance students' learning outcomes.

He further stated that proper assessment ensures learners' productivity in the relevant area. Maximum students gains owe to evaluation. Much research should focus on formative evaluation to ensure best outcome to all stakeholders.

3.7.2 Input Evaluation.

According to Fitzpatrick et al (2004:244), input evaluation supports the system, strategize the task and paves the way for implementation while taking into account the available physical and material resources. Various areas of a programme are examined for better outcomes.

3.7.3 Process Evaluation

Stufflebeam (2003:15) viewed that process evaluation is positively utilized for the refinement and implementation of a programme. It shows how pretty a project is going on or otherwise. Various hurdles are identified. Interaction among programme evaluators and those responsible for decision making takes place.

3.7.4 Product Evaluation.

According to Fitzpatrick et al (2004:248) product evaluation refers to the fate of a project. It suggests continuing, suspending or terminating the programme. The outcomes of a programme are judged in the light of set objectives. At this stage strengths and weaknesses are diagnosed. The needed information from various stakeholders is collected for decision making.

The material provided, in support of evaluation of students is based on programme that helps assessment of students during an on-going educational activity. The citations also discuss formative and summative evaluation of students and bring to limelight school improvement strategies that largely depend on meaningful evaluation. The evaluation system considered in the context of Board examinations is also flawed due to many reasons including unfair practices. That is why students prepare themselves not for learning but for passing the examinations with fair or unfair means, particularly, in Pakistan.

3.8 Summary:

In this chapter the description of emergence of English language in Subcontinent and Pakistan was given. This chapter also talked about the education system in Punjab, Pakistan and status of English language in Pakistani education system. The last part of this chapter also discussed the evaluation process and the importance of evaluation in the Pakistani education system. This chapter also gives the overview of different authors' opinion about program evaluation. All are of the view that academic program is very important for the students and academic program itself.

CHAPTER 4

FOREIGN LANGUAGE LEARNING AND ENGLISH FOR SPECIFIC PURPOSES

4.1 Introduction

This chapter presents an overview of foreign language learning, discussing the emergence of English for Specific Purposes as a sub-discipline in the ELT sphere.

After discussing foreign language learning and presenting background information regarding the Education System in Punjab, Pakistan, the chapter draws upon the changing perspective in foreign language learning and the roles assigned to English in the domain of ELT. Then, it focuses on the evolution of ESP, explaining its nature, origin, development, as well as its distinctive features as a specialist discipline.

4.2 Foreign Language Learning

Learning foreign languages is not a new phenomenon. Throughout the ages, foreign language learning has been part of the education of many nations. In countries where a number of dialects or languages are spoken, a common language has been used traditionally as a medium of education, commerce or religion, usually a language of culture and prestige. In Medieval Europe, for instance, Latin was the language of religion and intellectual life and those who wished to enter the church, practice law or attend school or university, had to learn to read, write and speak it (*Encyclopaedia of Bilingualism and Bilingual Education, 1998*). Two distinct features characterized foreign language learning in this era: first, it was limited in scope to a small fraction of the population, 'the elite'; second, its aims were mainly literary.

During the twentieth and twenty first century, the teaching of foreign languages has become more widespread, for a number of reasons. The changing needs of education and society have created a set of new practical aims of foreign language teaching, and this, for various reasons, rule out to a great extent the previous over emphasis on the teaching of literature. The ease of travel and communication and the increase of trade between countries have made more people eager or obliged to learn a foreign language. Two world wars and recently worldwide war against terrorism have made governments more aware of the need to learn foreign languages for military and security reasons and to promote harmony and understanding between people. Most developing countries, anxious to improve their education and to absorb scientific/technological knowledge necessary for their progress, promote the teaching of foreign languages. Even in developed countries, the need for learning foreign languages to pursue the task of communicating further scientific and technical knowledge is of no less importance.

In setting up the aims of foreign language learning, consideration is usually given to some variables: type of education, type of learner, and the whole educational and cultural background of the country where the teaching of the target language takes place. The priorities of objectives tend to vary according to the national demands and different interests of the learner. The way foreign languages are taught are determined by different views of the value of the foreign language in the local and wider society, as well as varying ideas about learning and teaching in classrooms. Decisions regarding what languages to be taught, the provision of time and finance, as well as the approach and the method to be adopted are usually made at governmental level, which are in turn influenced by many underlying reasons arising from ideological, educational, or political considerations.

4.3 The ESP Enterprise

In recent years, there has been an increasing concern for ESP in the area of second/foreign language education, and the term 'English for Specific Purposes' has frequently appeared in the literature of English language teaching.

In discussing the emergence and development of ESP, it is important not to regard it as an area of development separate from the rest of English language teaching, but a move within the ELT sphere (Kennedy and Bolitho, 1984: 7).

The inclusion of foreign language teaching in an educational system, according to Strevens, is generally determined by the policy and aims of a community, which "reflects the public will, the social sanction for the organized provision of language instruction, the response to the linguistic needs of the community" (Strevens, 1978: 1415). At one time, language teaching was regarded as a handmaiden of literary studies. It was assumed that the ultimate use to be made of the language would be to study literature in the language concerned, but this aim is becoming rare except for university students of languages. "The conventional framework for language teaching," says Strevens, "has been as *part of a general education*, in which the language has been an element in a cultural experience on the humanities side" (*op. cit.*: 19).

Towards the notion that the teaching of a language can be deliberately matched to the specific needs and purposes of the learner in the best way. English for Specific Purposes' is the name usually given to this kind of course, and it is generally used in circumstances in which the command of English being imparted relates to a specific job, or subject, or purpose (*op. cit.*: 89). This is considered as a break with the long tradition of English chiefly for the pursuit of literature and the humanities, and a move toward the

instrumental notion of language predominantly in relation to science and technology (Stevens, 1980: 6).

4.4 Definition

Many workers in the field have attempted to define ESP. Mackay and Mountford believe that the term is generally used to refer to the teaching of English for a clearly utilitarian purpose, and indicate that "This purpose is usually defined with reference to some occupational requirement..." (Mackay and Mountford, 1978: 2). Munby believes that "ESP courses are those where the syllabus and materials are determined in all essentials by the analysis of the communication needs of the learner" (Hanby, 1978: 2).

There are some writers who have come up with a different view regarding the definition of ESP. Stevens states: "A definition of ESP that is both simple and watertight is not easy to produce" (Stevens, 1980: 109). Similarly, Ewer indicates: "... the terminology of ESP is now getting into such a confused and contradictory state that in my experience it is impossible to carry on a discussion about the subject with practitioners outside one's own work-group for more than a few minutes without misunderstandings arising from this source" (Ewer, 1981: 2, cited by McDonough, 1984: 1). And Hutchinson and Waters seem, *therefore*, to have assumed a more secure position not to risk a definition and, instead, attempt to say what ESP is *not* (Hutchinson and Waters, 1987: 18-19).

Robinson, nevertheless, believes that "ESP is protean, as it is responsive to developments in all three realms of language, pedagogy and content studies" (Robinson, 1991: 1), and points out that "changing interpretations of ESP over the years and in different parts of the world represent changing relationships between, and changing fashions in, these realms of knowledge..." (*Ibid.*). She, therefore, concludes that "... there is a greater interest in the content with which ESP must be involved --the

subject matter which ESP students should have to study and work with through English" (*Ibid.*).

4.5 Development

In discussing the process of the development of ESP, as Kennedy and Bolitho point out, "It is important not to regard ESP as an area of development separate from the rest of English language teaching. It is part of the recent move within the ELT sphere towards a more communicative basis for teaching and learning" (Kennedy and Bolitho, 1984: 7).

Historically speaking, ESP began to evolve in the mid-1960s in response to an awareness that certain types of learners had specialised Needs that were not being met sufficiently and efficiently by wide-spectrum EFL courses (ELT Documents, 1984: 2). Hutchinson and Waters consider the emergence of ESP as a phenomenon that grew out of a number of converging trends. Although, according to them, these trends have operated differently in different parts of the world, they identify three major reasons contributing to the rise of all ESP: (i) The demands of a Brave New World, (ii) A revolution in Linguistics, and (iii) Focus on the learner (Hutchinson and Waters, 1987: 6). First, the enormous international expansion in scientific, technical and economic activities after the Second World War created a world unified and dominated by both technology and commerce. This progress generated a demand for an international language. For various reasons, most notably the economic power of the US in the post-war world, this role fell to English (*Ibid.*). Second, along with the growing demand for English courses tailored to specific needs, the emergence of new ideas in the study of language shifted attention away from defining the formal features of language usage to discovering the ways in which language is actually used in real communication (Widdowson, 1978, cited by Hutchinson and Waters, 1987: 7). This gave rise to the view of the differences between the language of different disciplines and, consequently, the development of English courses for specific groups of learners (*Ibid.*). Third, new

developments in educational psychology, emphasising the central importance of the learners and their attitudes to learning, also contributed to the rise of ESP, in the sense that learners were seen to have different needs and interests, which would have an important influence on their motivation to learn and therefore on the effectiveness of their learning. This led to the development of courses that were regarded as 'relevant' to the learner's needs and interests, and which would presumably improve the learner's motivation as well (*Ibid.*).

Hutchinson and Waters identify different phases in the development of ESP, and believe that it has undergone three main phases since its emergence and presently it is in a fourth phase with a fifth phase starting to emerge (Hutchinson and Waters, 1987: 9). Summarily, the five phases are as follows:

1. Register Analysis: mainly associated with the work of Peter Strevens (Halliday, McIntosh and Strevens, 1964), Jack Ewer (Ewer and Lattore, 1969) and John Swales (1971), which operates on the basic principle that the English of each subject specialism constitutes a specific register different from that of other subject specialisms. Hence, it was to be analysed to identify the grammatical and lexical features of these registers.

2. Discourse Analysis: associated with Henry Widdowson as the leading figure of this movement in Britain and the so-called Washington School of Larry Selinker, Louise Trimble, John Lackstrom and Mary Todd-Trimble in the US, closely involved with the emerging field of discourse analysis, in which the attention shifted away from the sentence and focused on the communicative context in which sentences are used. The basic hypothesis has been indicated by a citation from Allen and Widdowson (1974):

We take the view that the difficulties which the students encounter arise not so much from a defective knowledge of the system of English, but from an unfamiliarity with English use, and that consequently their needs cannot be met by a course which simply provides further practice

in the composition of sentences, but only by one which develops a knowledge of how sentences are used in the performance of different communicative acts.

(Allen and Widdowson 1974, cited by Hutchinson and Waters, 1987: 10-11)

The analysis, which formerly focused on sentence grammar, now shifted to understanding how sentences were combined in discourse to produce meaning.

3. Target Situation Analysis: aiming to relate language analysis more closely to learner's reasons for learning; procedures were established through which the linguistic features of the target situation were identified which would ultimately form the syllabus of the ESP course. This process is known as *needs analysis*. John Munby (1978) set out the most thorough explanation of target situation analysis.

4. Skills and Strategies: attempting to look below the surface, this endeavours to realise the thinking processes that underlie language use. No single dominant figure has been associated with this movement, but the work of F. Grellet (1981), C. Nuttall (1982) and C. Alderson and S. Urquhart (1984) have made significant contributions to work on reading skills. Hutchinson and Waters state:

The principal idea behind the skills-centred approach is that underlying all language use there are common reasoning and interpreting processes, which, regardless of the surface forms, enables us to extract meaning from discourse. There is, therefore, no need to focus closely on the surface forms of the language. The focus should rather be on the underlying interpretive strategies, which enable the learner to cope with the surface forms, for example guessing the meaning of words from context, using visual layout to determine the type of text, exploiting cognates (i.e. words which are similar in the mother tongue and the target language) etc. A focus on specific subject registers is

unnecessary in this approach, because the underlying processes are not specific to any subject register.

(Hutchinson and Waters, 1987: 13)

In this approach, the emphasis is generally on reading or listening strategies. The exercises are devised to get the learners to reflect on and analyse how meaning is produced in and retrieved from written or spoken discourse. Deriving its assumptions from cognitive theories of learning, the approach treats the language learners as thinking human beings who can be asked to reflect upon and verbalise the interpretive processes they employ in language use.

5. A Learning-centred Approach: Hutchinson and Waters (1987) believe that the stages mentioned above are "fundamentally flawed" because they are *based on* descriptions of language *use*. This, they believe, deals with describing what people *do* with language. Their major concern in ESP, however, is with language *learning*. They emphasise that "A truly valid approach to ESP must be based on an understanding of the processes of language *learning*" (*op. cit.*: 14). To elaborate on this point, they indicate, "We cannot simply assume that describing and exemplifying what people do with language will enable someone to learn it. If that were so, we would need to do no more than read a grammar book and a dictionary in order to learn a language" (*Ibid.*). Hence, they present a model of learning process which they call *learning-centred* approach. Nevertheless, they caution that " We still do not know very much about learning", and advise that "It is important, therefore, not to base any approach too narrowly on one theory", and indicate, "As with language descriptions, it is wise to take an eclectic approach, taking what is useM from each theory and trusting also in the evidence of your own experience as a teacher" (*op. crt.*: 51).

4.6 Taxonomy of ESP

The development of ESP has generated a number of branches each represented by a special term indicating the nature of the task and the purposes it serves. There have been a number of attempts to classify the different branches of P.

Stevens says, "Broadly defined, ESP courses are those in which the aims and the content are determined, principally or wholly, not by criteria of general education (as when `English' is a foreign language subject in school) but by functional and practical English language requirements of the learner" (Stevens, 1978: 90). He considers two main dimensions for ESP. One for those who are engaged in studying a particular subject in English, and the other, for those who are following a particular occupation for which they need English. He makes a further distinction between those who already know the subject in their own language and those whose learning of English is part of their academic studies or part of their occupational training. Hence, the distinction he makes is between English which is `instrumental' and English which is `operational' (Stevens, 1988: 39-44).

According to this taxonomy, a crucial distinction is made between courses of `English for Science and Technology', and all other courses. Stevens believes that EST courses are usually distinct because they require a greater content of `scientific English' to be incorporated in them (Stevens, 1978: 90). A second set of distinctions is also made within all ESP, each being in turn subdivided. Robinson provides another taxonomy of ESP labelled `ESP in the USA' as follows:

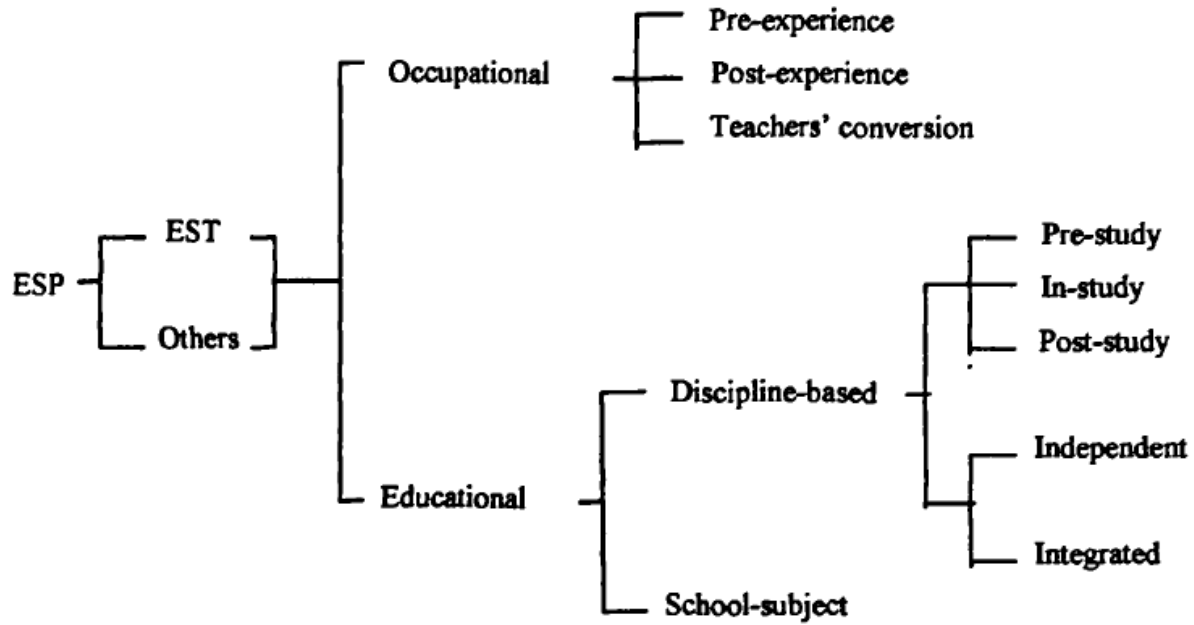


Figure 4.1 (A Taxonomy of ESP Courses (Stevens, 1978: 92))

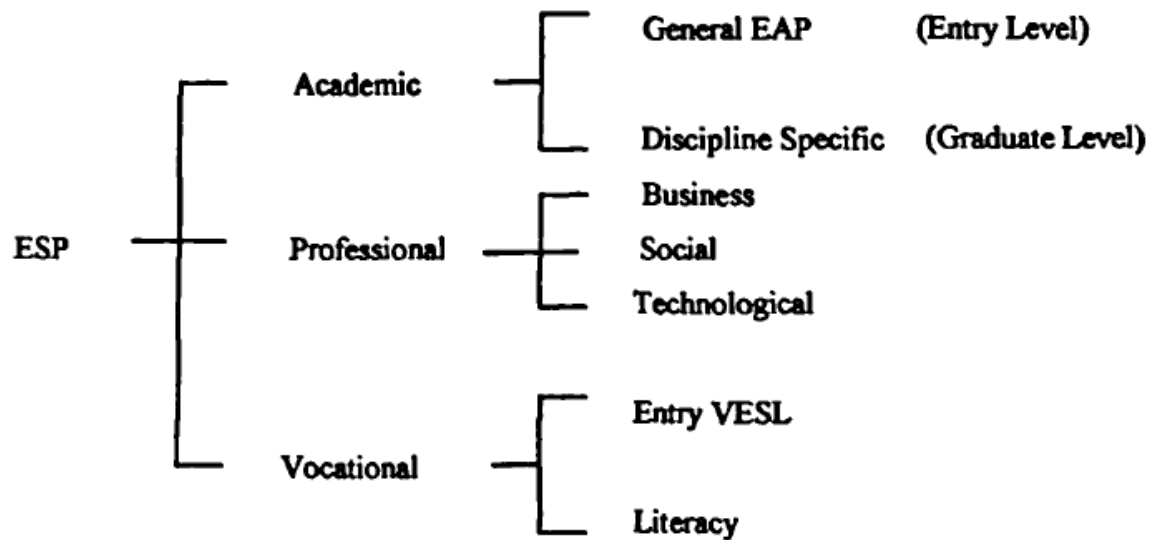


Figure 4.2 (ESP in the USA (Cited from Johns by Robinson, 1991: 4))

4.7 Features of ESP

Although numerous factors influence the design and implementation of the ESP programmes, there are a number of features that are central to ESP courses.

First, ESP courses are generally designed to serve particular purposes, and as such, according to Robinson, ESP is "... goal oriented. That is, students study English not because they are interested in the English language (or English-language culture) as such but because they need English for study or work purposes" (Robinson, 1991: 2). Widdowson considers it "... essentially a training operation which seeks to provide learners with a restricted competence to enable them to cope with certain clearly defined tasks. These tasks constitute the specific purposes which the ESP course is designed to meet" (Widdowson, 1983: 6).

Second, ESP basically began to evolve in response to an awareness that some learners had specialised *creeds* that were not fulfilled sufficiently and efficiently by the general English courses (*ELT Documents*, 117, 1984: 2-3). Therefore, the ESP courses are based on needs analysis, a feature which many see as the definitive of ESP courses and which, as Robinson states, "... aims to specify as closely as possible what exactly it is that students have to do through the medium of English" (Robinson, 1991: 3). Needs analysis maybe either target-centred or learner-centred. In the former case, the analysis deals with the future role of the learner and attempts to specify the language skills or linguistic knowledge the learner needs in order to perform the role properly. In the latter case, it attempts to examine individual learners at the beginning of the course to identify their problems as well as their abilities and skills that may enable them to learn well in certain directions. Robinson (1991) states, "Whereas needs analysis formerly focused rather exclusively on target or end-of-course requirements, now it is used to take account of students' initial needs, including learning needs (Robinson, *op. cit.*: 4).

4.8 ESP vs. EGP

It has been indicated that ESP evolved from EGP (English for General Purposes) in response to an awareness that certain types of learners had specialised needs. These learners were predominantly either in tertiary education or undergoing professional training, and had much more limited and finely focused needs (*ELT Documents*, 1984: 2).

Regarding the nature of ESP, Mackay and Mountford state:

... ESP does not represent any new body of dogma as such, but is essentially a pragmatic response to a developing situation in which the many reasons that learners have for learning English are made amenable to more systematic description so that relevant and more effective materials can be prepared for teachers to use. In this sense, then, special should be construed as more specific, with a shift of emphasis in ELT syllabus planning towards the learner's purpose, allied to a growing awareness of the importance of the relationship between language and other areas of the learners' curriculum and/or activities.

(Mackay and Mountford, 1978: 1)

Candlin does not approve of establishing great distinctions between ESP and EGP when, in his preface to Mackay and Mountford's collection of articles on ESP (1978), he says:

The extension of 'special purpose language' beyond registerial differences of lexis and structure towards universalist ideas of concepts and reasoning processes may suggest that the much emphasised distinctions between ESP and 'general' ELT are inappropriate and counterproductive.

(Candlin, in Mackay and Mountford, 1978: viii)

Widdowson believes that "An ESP course is in one sense really no more specific in its purposes than is one designed for general purposes English teaching" (Widdowson, 1983: 5). He indicates that the distinction made between ESP and EGP refers to the way in which purpose is defined, and how it is implemented (*Ibid.*). According to him, "... `purpose' refers to the eventual practical use to which the language will be put in achieving occupational and academic aims" (Widdowson, 1983: 6).

As such, he views it as essentially *a training* concept in which first, the learners' needs are precisely identified and then the course is so designed to cover those needs. Hence, the degree of the success of the course is determined by the extent to which it has been able to provide the learners *with* the restricted competence they need to meet their requirements (*Ibid.*).

Regarding EGP, Widdowson considers it impossible to be defined in this way and, instead, conceives of EGP in *educational* terms, as "... a formulation of objectives which will achieve a potential for later practical use" (*Ibid.*) and indicates that "Mere, it is not a matter of developing a restricted competence to cope *with* a specified set of tasks, but of developing a general capacity for language use" (*Ibid.*).

In response to the question of what the difference is between ESP and EGP, Hutchinson and Waters state: "... in theory nothing, in practice a great deal". In elaborating the point, they indicate:

What distinguishes ESP from General English is not existence of a need as such but rather an awareness of the need. If learners, sponsors and teachers know why the learners need English, that awareness will have an influence on what will be acceptable as reasonable content in the language course and, on the positive side, what potential can be

exploited. Thus, although it might appear on the surface that the ESP course is characterised by its content (Science, Medicine, Commerce, Tourism etc.), this is, in fact, only a secondary consequence of the primary matter of being able to readily specify why the learners need English. Put briefly, it is not so much the nature of the need which distinguishes the ESP from the General Course but rather the awareness of a need

(Hutchinson and Waters, 1987: 53)

Widdowson believes that "With ESP, the prospect of actual language use is brought immediately into the foreground and into focus so that it serves both as the immediate objective and actual aim of learning" (Widdowson, 1983: 105). Therefore, he sees 'specificity' as the degree of correspondence between objectives and aims, and indicates that the closer the correspondence, the more specific the course and the less scope there will be for individual initiative (*Ibid.*).

4.9 Evaluation in ESP

In education, the common purpose of evaluation is seeking to establish the appropriateness, effectiveness and efficiency of teaching programs. Generally, there are two types of evaluation: formative and summative.

Formative evaluation is carried out during the progress of a program or project in which the gained results can be used to alter what is being done. Summative evaluation, in contrast, is done when the program or project has been completed and when any further alterations are too late to make.

For a long time ESP evaluation was forsaken; see Alderson (1979), McGinley (1984 and 1986), Mackay (1981), Murphy (1985) and Swan (1986). In this area, Dudley-Evans (1997) supports the view that there had been few experimental studies that examined the efficacy of ESP courses. On the other hand, some work, such as that of Jenkins et al. (1993), suggests an increasing interest in this area of research.

With the growing concern for ESP course cost-effectiveness in the 1990s, especially with the development of large-scale ESP projects, the need for evaluation started to gain momentum. A number of writers world-wide produced helpful articles on ESP evaluation which included procedural guidelines. They also provided field experiences in evaluation. Directly related to this consideration are studies by Bachman (1981), Brown (1989), Mackay (1981), Murphy (1985), Rea (1983), Elley (1989) and Moody (1979).

An evaluation process may be very wide or very limited in scale. The evaluation subject may be a complete ESP project, a single individual course, or a few areas of the course or program in question. Long (1984) explains that formative evaluations normally look at such aspects as the attitudes of teachers and students towards curriculum improvement or the usability of new materials that are being implemented in the classroom for the first time. Both types of evaluation can be applied to any particular course or project, as was the case with the Brazilian ESP project evaluation report (Celani et al. 1988).

Robinson (1991) includes the issue of cost effectiveness in her consideration of a summative evaluation approach (68). Mackay (1981) proposed a lengthy list of external and internal checks tackling all involved parties' perspectives in a project to avoid faults (113). McGinley (1984) suggested focusing on details such as the methods, lesson evaluation, tests and attitude surveys.

Horey (1984-25) also refers to several different stages of evaluation and different types of evaluators in ESP programs. One instance is the case of a King Abdulaziz University (KAU) project (1975-84) in Saudi Arabia where an initial appraisal by outside experts was followed by an internal evaluation, an independent internal university evaluation, and finally an external independent evaluation based on observations.

In her view of ESP evaluation techniques, Robinson (1980, 26-27) emphasizes that course evaluation should be task-oriented, testing the various skills required by the student together with the main linguistic elements needed in deploying these skills, and should incorporate both objective and subjective techniques, by use of rating scales, questionnaires, and the personal impressions of evaluators .

With regard to evaluation techniques, many of the basic procedures for data collection are the same as those utilized for needs analysis. Some or all of the following may be implemented: questionnaires, checklists, rating scales, interviews, observation, discussion, records and assessment. Examples of procedures to apply in evaluating ESP programs are described by Brown (1989:233). In this regard, Nunan (1989) gives a useful table of procedures for data collection used to analyze the language classroom procedures. It is important for such procedures to be manageable, cost effective and appropriate for the situation (ibid.). Evaluators' knowledge and experience should be implemented when constructing the tools, collecting and analyzing the data (Bell 1982:31). Elley (1989) stresses the need to design evaluation to go with the context and to accept the boundaries of the situation. Bachman (1981) points out that data collection procedure, particularly testing and scaling, are often accompanied by complexity, but the amount and type of information collected should be determined by the types of decisions to be taken.

With regard to the reliability of the evaluation instruments or techniques being used and the validity of the results, Celani et al. (1988), in their account of the Brazilian ESP Project, admit to having some difficulties and small worries, but they had deliberately chosen a qualitative rather than a quantitative approach and noted in the beginning that “objectivity is impossible” (9). Long (1984) acknowledges that some crudity in such situations has to be sometimes accepted (17).

In order to establish some validity of results, Robinson (1991) describes the concept of “*triangulation*”, which applies two or more methods of evaluation of the same point, for example; while seeking information on an aspect of classroom methodology, observation, class discussion and rating scale (67). Otherwise, information on the same point can be gained from different sources, for example, by conducting the same questionnaire or interview to different types of respondents. Triangulation requires that the evaluation project must be controllable in size and without too many aspects being examined at the same time (ibid.).

ESP testing has been largely abandoned. The testing literature has overlooked ESP testing. Alderson (1988, 87-88) explains that it was discouraging to see testing within ESP had the minimal attention paid to it. A student is needed to know how close he is at the start and at the end of an ESP course in achieving performance sufficiently and what type of test to be used to evaluate that

Explaining what may be done for testing learner’s performance in ESP, Wesche (1987) suggests that an ESP test would include performance in a real-life situation. This is normally not practical, so what is more accepted is replicated real-life performance where the whole testing situation is prepared with the most accurate possible representation of the real-life context (29). In connection with that concept, Allison and Webber (1984) give a good review of performance-based, or performative, tests for

communication skills courses for EAP. They support the use of performative tests where the primary aim is to reinforce teaching and learning; but they are less persuaded of the returns of performative testing for selection purposes, specifically when proposing students for future courses of study (ibid.:199).

In their analysis of the reasons for the neglect of testing in ESP, Alderson and Waters (1983) discuss the influence of tests on teaching. Tests are part of the broader process of evaluation, which in itself contributes to the teaching and learning process (43). Corbett (1986) explains that one of the purposes of a short oral-interaction test used in the KAU project was to encourage the students to think about their purpose in learning English and their attitudes towards their English studies (171). In that instance, the test took place in class time and was intended as a routine part of the course. Finally, Holliday (1988), in a discussion of “project work as an evaluation device”, shows how observation of a key classroom activity can be used to assess both students and teachers, and also the role and effectiveness of materials (77-86).

Recently, Dudley-Evans and St. John (1998) have divided evaluation (assessment) in ESP into three main types, classroom assessment, classroom tests and general ESP tests. Classroom assessment is a progressive process in which teachers check the systematic development of the skills the students learn. This does not fall into time and setting constraints, and students may share with their teacher some feedback into it. This type of assessment may also be drawn from the “teacher assessment” of students’ work and from “peer and self-assessment” (210-29).

Dudley-Evans and St. John (1998) elaborate further on ESP testing, explaining that classroom tests are intended to measure proficiency. Classroom tests aim at determining which particular skills need more focus or explanation. Here time and setting constraints affect the efficiency of results. Such tests measure the whole, rather than discrete items (217). They will also contain a series of skills and measure

performance on those skills. Classroom tests may be intended for a “backwash” impact that will result in evaluating what has been taught and how it is taught. This should eventually help enhance the teaching and learning processes in the classroom.

The third type of testing is achievement tests where mastery of a syllabus is measured and which take longer and have a wider perspective than progress or classroom tests (214). In such tests all objectives that have been actually covered through the course are tested. Achievement tests are crucial to organizations and institutions which need to compare the outcome of the course to the objectives behind establishing the ESP course itself (220).

As proposed by Dudley-Evans and St. John (1998:214), in order to present tests with the characteristics explained above, a collaborative effort should be incorporated with subject matter experts. For evaluation of the final version of a test, an outsider should judge such qualities before the tests are implemented.

Together with the previously discussed aspects of ESP testing, it is also important to qualify and prepare the ESP teacher to conduct such activities appropriately. Below is a discussion of teacher training that may prepare teachers to play their roles where the ability to conduct tests is viewed as significant.

4.10 ESP Evaluation Process

Dudley-Evans and St John (1998: 126) emphasize that the way in which ESP evaluation is approached and conducted differs according to the situation. Jasso-Aguilar (2005: 150) reminds us that ‘in conducting an evaluation, it is necessary to examine the social context in which the actors live their lives’. This implies that there are some

contextual factors which might have an influence on the way the evaluation is undertaken or the process in which it is done. It can be suggested, then, that while the significance of needs and evaluation in language learning in general and in ESP in particular cannot be ignored, the process in which evaluation is undertaken has an almost equal significance. Jordan (1997: 23) presents the following list of steps for undertaking an evaluation in EAP, which could also be applicable to other types of ESP:

1. Identify the purpose of the analysis;
2. Delimit student sample;
3. Decide upon approaches;
4. Recognise limitations and constraints;
5. Method selection for data collection;
6. Data Collection;
7. Interpreting and analysing results;
8. Objectives determination;
9. Implement decisions (i.e. decide upon syllabus, content, materials, methods, etc.);
10. Evaluate procedures and result.

It is significant that for Jordan the first step in carrying out an evaluation is to identify its purpose. Therefore, the reasons for analyzing learners' needs should be as clear and specific as those identified by Richards (2001: 52). For instance, when an evaluation of an ESP program is carried out, as this study attempts to do, the purposes may be:

- 1) To determine to what extent the present ESP course helps them to improve their language skills (reading, listening, speaking, writing), grammar and vocabulary;
2. To identify language difficulties and problems encountered in their current place of learning English and in their future workplaces;
3. To determine to what extent the present ESP course adequately prepares them both for their studies and for their target careers;
4. To determine to what extent their needs are met by the present ESP course and its materials;

5. To determine the extent to which the English language needs assumed by their sponsors are actual needs;
6. To determine what language skills, activities and tasks will be required to enable them to function effectively in their academic discipline and future workplaces;
7. To identify their attitudes towards learning English and ESP.

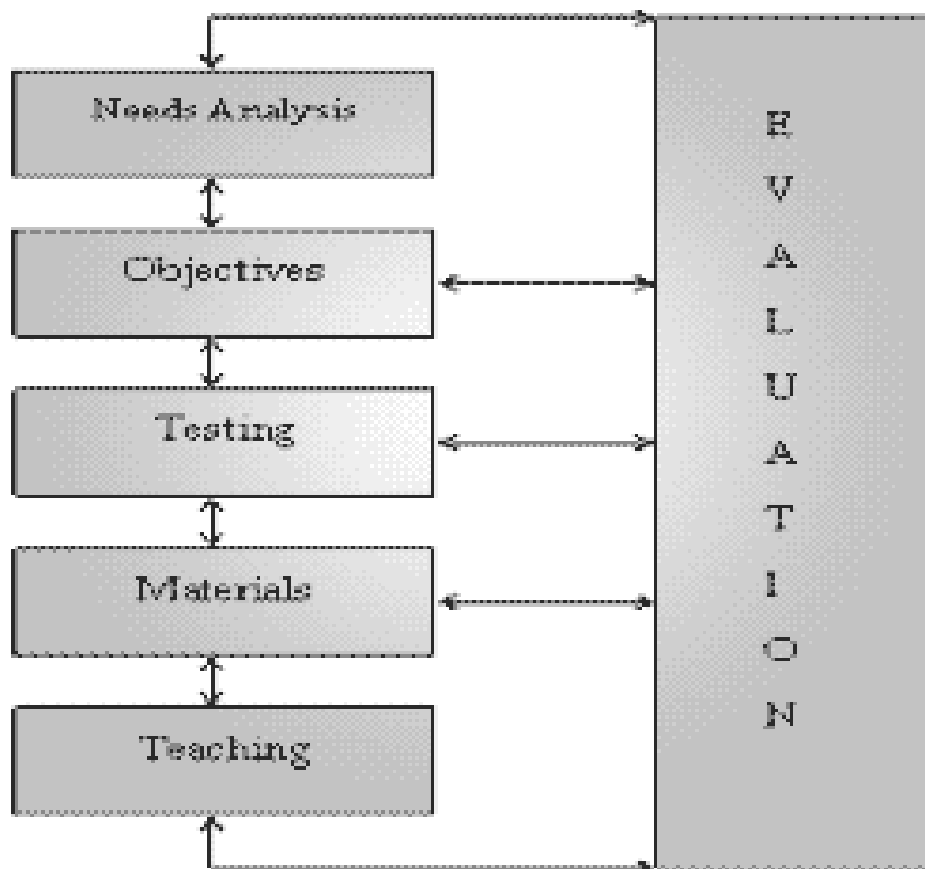


Figure 4.3 (Brown's Language Curriculum Development Model (Brown, 1989: 235))

Taking these purposes into consideration and following the ESP curriculum development model presented in Figure above, the evaluation process of the current study starts by identifying its main purpose (what information to collect and why), its

informants and data collection methods. Triangulation of informants and methods is of paramount importance in evaluation in order to have different viewpoints and data on each aspect of the ESP course and the needs (Jasso-Aguilar, 2005; Long, 2005c; Orr, 2005).

Once the purpose, informants and methods of the evaluation have been identified, the next step is the collection of the required data on target needs. Hyland (2006: 78) lists the most widely used procedures for collecting needs data: questionnaires, analysis of authentic spoken and written texts, observations, informal consultations with faculty members, learners and ESP teachers, and assessment results. However, as Richards (2001: 63) notes, it is important to make sure that only data which will be used is collected.

The next step concerns organizing, analyzing, interpreting and reporting the data collected. Before data collection, a decision has to be made on the statistical techniques that will be used in analyzing the quantitative data, and on the method(s) of qualitative data analysis. After the analysis and interpretation of the data, it is now possible to make use of the analysed data to produce a profile of the typical learning and target needs. While the findings from an evaluation are not absolute but relative (Dudley-Evans and St John, 1998: 126), 'needs will have to be prioritized because not all of them may be practical to address in a language program' and 'decisions will therefore have to be made concerning which of the needs are critical, which are important, and which are merely desirable' (Richards 2001: 65-66). Scrivener (2005:73) suggests a range of options for making use of the data obtained from an ESP evaluative study. They are listed below in approximate (increasing) order of the extent to which account is taken of the data.

- Take no account of the evaluation data. Continue with the current program as if the data had not been collected.
- Review the data, but decide that the original program plan is likely to achieve something very close to the desired outcomes, so continue using the original plan.

- Continue with the program as before, but allow the data to influence small aspects of how to help or deal with individuals in class.
- Continue with the program as before but add a limited number of extra activities, lessons or variations to satisfy some stated needs.
- Re-plan the program, much as before, but aiming to cover the materials in less time (or drop elements) in order to add a large number of extra activities or lessons to satisfy some stated needs.
- Re-plan the program to incorporate substantial elements of the needs alongside relevant elements from the original plan.
- Put the original program plan to one side and base a new course plan entirely on the stated needs.

Given that evaluation is seen in ESP as the foundation on which all other decisions are or should be made (Belcher, 2006: 135) and that evaluation is the starting point for developing ESP courses (Richards, 2001: 33), the evaluation process presented above implies that the main and ultimate purpose of the evaluation process is to develop an existing ESP program which would better meet the students' needs.

4.11 Summary

In this chapter the place of foreign language teaching, and in particular ELT, in an educational system was discussed, focusing mainly on teaching English for Specific Purposes. It examined different roles taken by ELT and how ESP originated and developed as a sub-discipline in the domain of ELT. The main factors that contributed to the development of ESP were identified, and the distinctive features of ESP which distinguish it from EGP were analysed. Finally, evaluation in ESP, the major concern of this study, and its current status in the context of second/foreign language education was discussed. The next chapter will talk about the role of education program evaluation more in detail and focused way .

CHAPTER 5

EDUCATIONAL PROGRAMME EVALUATION

5.1. Introduction

This Chapter is an overview of the available literature on program evaluation. It also looks at the role of evaluation in the field of education to disclose its basic norms and their use and applicability with reference to problems in language program evaluation. Historical trends and different approaches and models used for program evaluation including a brief description of different evaluation studies conducted in abroad and Pakistan are also examined.

After drawing upon programme evaluation as a special case of social science research, addressing issues of objectivity, subjectivity, and the role of evaluator in evaluation, the chapter makes a case for a particular definition of programme evaluation and discusses the significance of programme evaluation in education. Following this, historical trends in programme evaluation are discussed, focusing on the product-oriented, professional judgement oriented, process-oriented, and decision facilitation approaches, which have been developed over the past forty years in education. Three dimensions of evaluation: formative vs. summative, product vs. process, and qualitative vs. quantitative, which appear to have dominated the evaluative literature and are specifically applicable to language programmes, are explained. The chapter concludes with an attempt to bring together the above mentioned elements with a view to synthesizing them into a plausible model which is best suited to this study.

5.2. Programme Evaluation

5.2.1. Preamble: Social Research and the Researcher Role

Investigation of different aspects of human activity is said to be the domain of social science research. Psychology, for instance, investigates the behaviour of individuals;

Sociology, examines groups and their characteristics; and educational research is viewed as an endeavour to expand understanding of the teaching/learning situations, covering the cognitive, affective and psychomotor domains, thus drawing upon the perceptions of both psychology and sociology (Black, 1993: 1). Resolving such issues would require researchers to address theories which underlie social sciences as well as to choose the appropriate research methods and instruments for the selected specific questions.

Cohen and Manion (2007) present a comprehensive introduction leading to the classification of two research 'paradigms', historically, deriving from objectivist (realism, positivism, determinism, nomothetic) and subjectivist (nominalism, anti-positivism, voluntarism, ideographic) schools of thought. Summarily, they indicate:

The normative paradigm (model) contains two major orienting ideas: first, that human behaviour is essentially rule-governed; and second, that it should be investigated by the methods of natural science. The interpretive paradigm, in contrast to its normative counterpart, is characterised by a concern for the individual. Whereas normative studies are positivist, all theories constructed within the context of the interpretive paradigm tend to be anti-positivist.

(Cohen and Manion, 2007: 36)

Positivists are, therefore, said to believe in an external, objective reality which is rational and independent of the observer and thereby seek generalisations and 'hard' quantitative data. The interpretivists, on the other hand, hold the view that the observer

makes a difference to the observed and that reality is a human construct, hence, the researcher's aim is to explore perspectives and shared meanings in order to develop insights into situations (cf. May, 2004; Cohen and Manion, 2007).

Regarding the above competing perspectives, Black indicates, "Though the anti-positivists level the criticism that science tends to be dehumanizing, it can be argued that science (or more appropriately, a scientific approach) is a means not an end; with it we can both better understand the human condition and predict the consequences of action, generalised to some degree" (Black, 1993: 2). He believes that "one goal of scientific research is to be self-policing through rigor and consistency of practice. This is necessary if the conclusions drawn at the end of a piece of complex research are to be valid and replicable" (*Ibid.*). Nevertheless, he admits that " While achievement of this goal through so-called good practice is implicit in any study, scientific research is just as prone to bias and/or poor practice as any approach" (*op. cit.*: 3). And Marks, in this respect, points out, "The most significant challenge to an old and entrenched view that science is the aloof, objective collection of facts involves recognising that *people* are the ones doing science -- with their own motivations, ambitions, prejudices and personalities" (Marks, 2005: 380).

Cohen and Manion summarize the position regarding the two perspectives when closing their discussion of the subject as follows:

We will restrict its [the term research] usages to those activities and undertakings aimed at developing a science of behaviour, the word 'science' itself implying both normative and interpretive perspectives. Accordingly, when we speak of social research, we have in mind the systematic and scholarly application of the principles of a science of behaviour to the problems of people within their social contexts and when we use the term educational research, we likewise have in mind the application

of these same principles to the problems of teaching and learning within the formal educational framework and to the clarification of issues having direct or indirect bearing on these concepts.

(Cohen and Manion, 2007: 40)

The two perspectives of social science just discussed, however, represent different ways of viewing social reality as well as different ways of interpreting it. Cohen and Manion approach these two conceptions of the social world by identifying and examining four sets of assumptions underpinning them: ontological assumptions, epistemological assumptions, the relationship between human beings and their environment, and methodological concerns of researchers (Cohen and Manion, 2007: 6). Summarily, ontological assumptions concern the nature or essence of the social phenomena being investigated, dealing with the question whether social reality is external to individuals or it is the product of individual consciousness. The question, according to Cohen and Manion, derives from the nominalist-realist debate in philosophy: one (the nominalist) holding the view that "objects of thought are merely words and there is no independently accessible thing constituting the meaning of a word"; the other (the realist), contending that "objects have an independent existence and are not dependent for it on the knower" (Ibid.).

Epistemological assumptions "concern the bases of knowledge -- its nature and forms, how it can be acquired, and how communicated to other human beings" (Ibid.). It deals with the question whether 'knowledge' is "hard, real and capable of being transmitted in tangible form, or ... [it] is of a softer, more subjective, spiritual or even transcendental kind, based on experience and insight of a unique and essentially personal nature" (Ibid.). Cohen and Manion indicate that "The view that knowledge is had, objective and tangible will demand of researchers an observer role, together with an allegiance to the methods of natural science; to see knowledge as personal, subjective and unique, however, imposes on researchers an involvement with their subjects and a rejection of

ways of the natural scientist. To subscribe to the former is to be positivist; to the latter, anti-positivist" (Ibid.).

Ontology is the nature of reality (Hudson and Ozanne, 1988) and the epistemology can be defined as the relationship between the researcher and the reality (Carson et al., 2001) or how this reality is captured or known.

As far as the ontological base of this study is concerned, all the facts show that English language program at the Engineering universities of the Punjab, Pakistan is not working well. It did not produce good results. This is the reality of the program based on the facts and results. But no one knew, why this program is not effective? The researcher evaluated the whole program and found out the reasons behind the ineffectiveness of the program (Details in Data analysis chapters and conclusion).

The researcher has received English Language as a Colonial Heritage. It being his Second Language, he could not develop a complete familiarity with its nuances rather he remained conscious about its use for professional and personal purposes. His intellectual exploration into the cause of his inability to use English Language proficiently led him to the view that there has been some flaw in the syllabus and mechanism through which he has been taught this language from Primary level to his professional degrees.

This notion was further strengthened when he confronted the same problem from another view point –a teacher's view point. He has been teaching English language course titled "Communication Skills" in many engineering universities of Lahore. Students and other colleagues from engineering disciplines always complain about the students' poor standards of English language even after passing one module of English language in their four year engineering degree program. Above mentioned notions motivated him to evaluate the existing engineering English in Pakistan.

On Epistimoligac level, the researcher has a strong link with reality , being an insider . It was and will be crucial for to clarify my role as an insider to make my research credible.

Although there are various advantages of being an insider-researcher, there are also problems associated with being an insider. For example, greater familiarity can lead to a loss of objectivity. Unconsciously making wrong assumptions about the research process based on the researcher's prior knowledge can be considered a bias (DeLyser, 2001; Hewitt-Taylor, 2002).

Being an insider I confronted with role duality. Like other insider researchers I also struggled to balance their insider role: (instructor) and (the researcher) (DeLyser, 2001; Gerrish, 1997). As an insider, the problem is not just that the researcher may not receive or see important information. Another risk may be that the insider-researcher gains access to sensitive information. To conduct credible insider research, insider-researchers must constitute an explicit awareness of the possible effects of perceived bias on data collection and analysis, respect the ethical issues related to the anonymity of the organization and individual participants and consider and address the issues about the influencing researcher's insider role on coercion, compliance and access to privileged information, at each and every stage of the research (Smyth & Holian, 2008).

Since the research setting was my working area, I collected the data as an insider participant observer. Insider participant observation (being a member of a group as well as the researcher) is considered the most important and challenging instrument in qualitative studies (Herrmann, 1989). I was already an accepted staff member, In this case, being accepted meant that I was friendly with staff members but also have a strict professional relationship. Therefore, I carried out the research from within in the sense that I was on site, yet professionally was not an integral part of the one of the engineering universities. As I was a young faculty member, I did not have a deep knowledge about the events occurring at the engineering university. Also, I did not have an administration role at any of the engineering university. I did not have power and authority over the staff, which can affect the data collection process negatively (Smyth & Holian, 2008).

Although it was easy for me to generate "real questions" to which I did not know the answer, I had difficulties in developing questions to which I already knew the answers. Real questions mean that we discover their answer organically. However for our

research aim I had to ask this question to the participants. I was afraid of giving participants the impression that they were being tested. In fact, the purpose of asking this question was not to test but to understand the participants' understanding of the program. so with the help of my supervisor i designed questions in such a way that they did not give a feel of being tested.

The assumptions identified above have inevitable implications concerning the role of the researcher, and in the case of the present study, the evaluator, in undertaking a research enterprise. Evaluation literature draws upon this issue, identifying the evaluator as either an 'outsider' or an 'insider', implying the question as to whether evaluation be conducted by someone from within the programme, or by an outsider. A common paradigm for conducting evaluations of particularly language education programmes is that some 'expert', or a team of experts, is appointed by an organisation to carry out the task. He/she visits the programme, familiarises him or herself with its aims and objectives, its history, personnel, achievements and problems, and at the end submits a report, with recommendations for making future decisions.

Alderson and Scott, addressing the issue, call the outside expert a M OE (Jet-In Jet-Out Expert), and suggest that "most outsider evaluations on the JIOE model are perceived by insiders as at least threatening to themselves and the future of their project, and at worst as irrelevant to the interests and perspectives of the project" (Alderson and Scott, 2000: 26-27). For them, a participatory model would be preferable, that is, one "centred on insiders though benefiting from the advice of outsiders" (op. cit.: 27). The participatory model, they argue, is good because participants can be expected to do a fair share of

the "donkey-work", but also because the participants will directly benefit from the process.

One reason given for involving outsiders alone in an evaluation is that an outside expert is believed to give a certain amount of impartiality and credibility to the results of the evaluation. Another reason that outsiders are perhaps preferred is that only then can objectivity be guaranteed. Still another principal argument in favour of an outside evaluation is that it might provide a fresh perspective. Insiders, however, have the advantage of knowing how their organisations work, knowing the programme intimately, and knowing the staff who make the programme work. In addition, they are trusted and their evaluations are likely to be used. The disadvantage of an outsider is that he or she "cannot possibly gain an adequate understanding of the background of the project, the nature of its development over time, the reason for important decisions and the likely effect of alternative decisions, the status ante, and the organic perceptions of all associated with the project. Thus, he or she is quite likely to misrepresent the project or, worse, to dismiss its achievements" (Alderson and Scott, 2000: 26).

With respect to the present research, it is worth mentioning that the author/researcher is an 'insider' of the ESP programme under study. As an academic member, he has dealt with the ESP courses both as an instructor in three universities. He has also held administrative positions with direct experience of dealing with administrative aspects of higher education, and is aware of difficulties and problems associated with attempts to improve the quality of English language teaching in Punjab, Pakistan. Teaching different levels of English, from basic to advanced courses, to learners of English as a foreign language for over 09 years has brought him widespread experience which has led him to develop new insights in foreign language teaching and learning. He has witnessed the working of both the ex- and the present English language programmes at the university level, and is very familiar with the current programme.

He knows many of the staff working in English departments and is familiar with some on personal basis. This particularly gave the researcher the advantage of gaining access both to research sites and to the informants' knowledge, views and experiences. It was, therefore, the impression of this researcher that a sense of mutual trust persisted throughout the fieldwork, particularly with the teachers (with the students, however, this atmosphere could not be easily established). Although he was no longer an insider, he was not perceived as a complete outsider either. This gave the researcher a double advantage: being no longer an insider, gave him a sense of impartiality, and not being viewed as an outsider, gave the informants a sense of trust and confidence, which would presumably add to the credibility of the results of the evaluation.

In addition to the results achieved in this study, several years' experience of dealing with the ESP courses along with anecdotal evidence regarding the quality of English language programmes in Punjab, Pakistan resulted in the conviction that the ESP programme, should be rigorously and systematically evaluated for the first time in order to find out its merits and problems for the purpose of improvement. It appeared that there were various difficulties arising from different sources. Though closely interlinked in their effects, the causes of the difficulties seemed to be related to the following areas: first and foremost, the students' aspirations and precise needs had never been analysed; secondly, the ESP pedagogy used was a mere adaptation of traditional secondary school methodology, without any deep-rooted attempts to adapt it to the new context; and third, the teaching material was said to be inappropriate to the needs of the students. The result was a lack of interest in the course from both the students and the ESP teachers. The educational institutions, on the other hand, seemed to reveal the impression of regarding the ESP courses more of a burden on their students' timetable than an asset to their educational development, probably because they perceived the ESP courses to be ineffective.

The situation just described appeared undesirable and unfair, particularly in view of the fact that the huge amounts of money, time, and human resources spent in this area seemed to have been wasted. This persuaded the researcher that there was a need to effect a change in the programme in order to improve the situation. Such a change would not be possible unless a thorough examination of the programme were attempted - evaluation was, therefore, believed to be the answer.

It must be conceded that although, as mentioned before, this researcher had several years long experience in teaching the ESP courses and was aware of most of the problems of teaching ESP in the situation, he felt that he was not theoretically oriented enough in ESP to deal with these problems. Nor was he theoretically and practically oriented to carry out an evaluative study. This would, nevertheless, confirm Widdowson's (2003) argument that teachers would not be competent enough to deal with their teaching problems without being theoretically oriented to do so. This would imply that experience would confront the teacher with practical problems, but to adopt a theoretical orientation to the task would be something indispensable to the researcher teacher who is interested in improving and developing the educational situation in his institution.

5.2.2. Definition

A number of writers have attempted a definition of programme evaluation. Depending on the scope of their coverage, definitions vary from very broad perspectives, such as what Richards et al view as "the systematic gathering of information for purposes of making decisions" (Richards et al., 1985) to more restrictive ones such as Popham's, which : "Systematic educational evaluation consists of a formal assessment of the worth of educational phenomena" (Popham, 1975: 8).

Worthen and Sanders define evaluation as follows:

Evaluation is the determination of the worth of a thing. It includes obtaining information for use in judging the worth of a program, product, procedure, or object, or the potential utility of alternative approaches designed to attain specified objectives.

(Worthen and Sanders, 1987: 19)

In the above definitions, evaluation provides for 'formal assessment', determining 'the worth of a program', and 'the potential utility of alternative approaches'. However, as Brown points out, there should also be room for 'informal activities', 'improving the curriculum' in addition that "the processes involved should also be considered for the sake of constantly upgrading and modifying the program to meet new conditions" (Brown, 1989: 223).

Therefore, a good working definition of evaluation suitable for this study might be: "the systematic collection and analysis of all relevant information necessary to promote the improvement of the curriculum, and assess its effectiveness and efficiency, as well as the participants' attitudes within a context of particular institutions involved" (Ibid.), since it can apply to programme design, implementation and outcomes, and can relate evaluation to participants' reactions and also to educational contexts. In addition, as Brown points out:

This definition requires that information not only be gathered but also analyzed, and that both should be done systematically.... also ... there are two purposes: the promotion of improvement as well as the assessment of effectiveness .. Finally, this definition stresses that evaluation is necessarily site-specific in the sense that it must focus on a particular curriculum, and will be affected by and bound to the institutions which are linked to the program, whether they be parent-teacher associations, university administration, national or local governments, etc.

(Brown, 1989: 223-4)

5.2.3. Purpose

Generally speaking then, evaluation is a process through which the evaluator provides information and judgments to assist in making decisions for the purpose of improvement. McCormick and James perceive the role of evaluation as providing a mode of accountability, professional development and institutional improvement, and facilitating curriculum review (McCormick, James and Pedder, 2006: 172).

Weir and Roberts believe that "The purpose of evaluation is to collect information systematically in order to indicate the worth or merit of a programme or project (from certain aspects or as a whole) and to inform decision making" (Weir and Roberts 2005: 4), and indicate that "decisions may be made by staff who are `insiders' in order to improve their programme or project, or they may be made by `outsiders' (e.g. employees of the bureaucracy or of a funding body) in order to determine educational policy and spending" (Ibid.).

In the area of language teaching, in response to the question `why is evaluation required', Alderson states:

The aim might be to convince a sceptical language teaching profession that a particular method `works' and should be introduced more widely. The aim might be to investigate whether a project has produced `value for money' -- to satisfy government that taxpayer's money has been wisely spent. Or the aim might be to contribute to institutional decisions on whether to discard or continue a programme/methodology etc.

(Alderson, 1992: 275)

Murphy suggests that the purpose of evaluation is threefold: `assessment, accountability, awareness' (Murphy, 1985, quoted in Robinson, 1991: 67). Bell enumerates twenty-four possible purposes for an evaluation project, including `to guide

any curriculum changes', 'to document events', 'to measure cost-effectiveness', 'to determine curriculum-related in-service needs of staff, 'to identify any unintended outcomes of the programme', and 'to clarify objectives' (Bell, 1982, quoted in Robinson, 1991:67).

Similarly Alderson lists purposes for evaluation as follows:

- To decide whether the programme has had the intended effects
To identify what effects a programme has had
- To determine whether a programme has provided value for money
To vindicate a decision
- To justify future courses of action
- To compare approaches/methodologies/textbooks/etc.
- To identify areas for improvement in an ongoing programme
To show the positive achievements of teachers and pupils
To motivate teachers
- To allay suspicions among parents or sponsors

(Alderson, 1992: 276)

Thus, the improvement and, consequently, the success and, ultimately, the justification for the continued existence of an educational provision is determined by evaluation. In this connection, Johnson emphasises that curriculum development and renewal can only proceed effectively if supported by evaluation (Johnson, 2004). Therefore, evaluation must be regarded as an indispensable component of any educational programme. That is why Hargreaves, while considering evaluation as an integral part of educational planning, argues that "decisions relating to evaluation should be taken during and as part of the curriculum planning process and not as an afterthought to implementation" (Hargreaves, 2003: 35). Hence, the correlation between the intended objectives and their fulfillment, which actually involves the consideration of many variables and factors, is a measure of determining to what extent the instructional programme has been successful. This leads curriculum developers to detect the

strengths and weaknesses of the programme in order to devise strategies for the improvement of the areas where inadequacies have been identified.

5.2.4. Historical Trends

The field of evaluation has been the forum of much challenge, change, growth and development in the last four decades. Much of this development came as a result of increasing efforts to promote progressive social change with successively more efficient, and more effective, programming (Chinapah and Miron, 1990: 25). This created great concern about evaluation, which led to substantial increase in the scope and scale of evaluation activities. Accordingly, educational evaluation, gaining the focus of attention, expanded and diversified to such an extent that, as Norris points out, it is now extremely difficult to encompass the field as a whole (Norris, 1990: 9). The present study is very important as there is no detailed evaluative study in past in Pakistan regarding an educational program.

Historically speaking, prior to the 1960's and 1970's, despite the abundant vocal support for evaluation, there is little evidence indicating any substantial growth in evaluation activities and, indeed, actual educational evaluations, at least of a systematic sort, were rare (Popham, 1975: 2). In addition, as Popham observes, "Educational historians who set out to recap the frequency with which formal educational evaluations have been conducted or to the midpoint of this century are destined to do more hunting than fishing" (Ibid.). However, this author points out that "... starting around the 1950's, at least in the United States, developments occurred that led to a burgeoning interest in educational evaluation" (Ibid.).

Evaluation emerged as a major methodology for social planning and control in particular in the USA and the UK (Norris, 1990: 9), and although educational evaluation has not

developed similarly in the USA and the UK the underlying values and beliefs that gave rise to evaluation are very similar: the belief that the structure of the society is not immutable, that the inherited order is not pre-ordained, that social systems can be rationally managed and are amenable to research and development. (*Ibid.*).

It is generally believed that the growth of educational evaluation in the USA mainly occurred in the 1960's, which resulted in an explosion of interest in programme evaluation (Norris, 1990; Alderson and Beretta, 2004). Two reasons generally accounted for this. First, in the wake of the launch of Sputnik in 1957 and the resultant concept of technological lag, the US poured federal funds into curriculum development in science, mathematics and foreign languages. This massive increase in federal support for curriculum development was accompanied by a growing interest in evaluation. The second reason was that the social and political reforms taking place in the USA led to massive compensatory education programmes, and the ensuing social legislation to mandate project reporting under the Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965 (ESEA 1965) for the purposes of accountability

(Norris, 1990; Alderson, 2004).

The development of programmes and the evaluation thus required by law created a demand for evaluation which, as Norris indicates, "was far in excess of supply of social scientists with the requisite skills and experience" (Norris, 1990: 19). One of the consequences of this demand was that educational researchers had to develop theories and methodologies of evaluation that would meet the responsibilities thrust upon them (Alderson and Beretta, 2004: 13).

Many would regard Ralph Tyler as the founder of educational evaluation (Norris, 1990:16). For Tyler, education was essentially about changing the behaviour patterns of pupils; thus the curriculum could be constructed through the specification of desirable

behaviours which were stated as objectives to be achieved. As such, evaluation was a matter of finding out whether the stated objectives were met. Thus, Tyler's work shifted evaluation away from a focus on individual abilities and qualities towards a focus on curriculum design and teaching methods. In fact, he saw evaluation not as a technology for discriminating between individuals, but rather as a means of appraising the degree to which curriculum intentions were realised in practice (Ibid.). Therefore, the process of evaluation for him was "essentially the process of determining to what extent the educational objectives are realised by the program of curriculum and instruction" (Tyler, 1949: 105-6). However, as Beretta indicates, "The problem with confining evaluation to behavioural goals is that it ignores unexpected outcomes, outcomes that are hard to define, that are remote in time, difficult to measure; it ignores changes of perception between the time that objectives are stated and the time they are tested; it encourages arbitrariness with regard to continuous outcome variables" (Beretta, 1992: 14).

As the results from the bulk of evaluations carried out in the 1960's did not appear promising, the Tylerian style of inquiry proved to be inadequate to the demands made of them. Some of the leading educational figures of the time expressed their views in this respect in the articles they published. Cronbach (1963) indicated that "while the curriculum developers sincerely wish to use the skills of evaluation specialists, I am not certain that they have a clear picture of what evaluation can do and should try to do. And, on the other hand, I am becoming convinced that some techniques and habits of thought of evaluation specialist are ill suited to current curriculum studies" (Cronbach, 1963: 672). He proposed an emphasis on course improvement. Stake (1967) discussed a model of evaluation emphasising descriptive data and the importance of value judgements. Scriven (1967) made a distinction between "formative" and "summative" evaluation. And Stufflebeam (1971) emphasised providing information for decision-makers. Thus, evaluation literature began to develop earnestly, producing different so-called models touching upon various evaluation dimensions, which will be summarily reviewed here.

5.3. Major Approaches to Programme Evaluation

A cursory overview of the literature of evaluation shows that in recent decades there has been an increasing awareness of the need to systematise and defend the purposes and methods of educational evaluation. This, in turn, has led to a growing body of literature that challenges and defends the various evaluation models. Clearly, it is vitally important for educational evaluators to inform themselves of the nature of educational evaluation approaches and, at the same time, the various current views on how systematic educational evaluation should take place. However, as Popham points out, "[the evaluator] should not get too caught up in that enticing but enervating game known as comparative model meshing", stating that "Instead of engaging in a game of 'sames and differents', the educational evaluator should become sufficiently conversant with the available models of evaluation to decide which, if any, to employ" (Popham, 1975: 21), and suggesting that "Often a more eclectic approach will be adopted whereby one selectively draws from the several available models those procedures or constructs that appear most helpful" (Ibid.).

Approaches to programme evaluation have been termed differently by different educators. However, depending on the areas to which they are ascribed, they have generally been categorised into four groups: product-oriented, professional judgement oriented, process-oriented, and decision-facilitation approaches (Brown, 1989: 226; Popham, 1975: 22).

5.3.1. Product-oriented Approaches

A product-oriented model of educational evaluation regards evaluation mainly as "the determination of the degree to which an instructional program's goals were achieved" (Popham, 1975: 22). This conception of educational evaluation is usually associated

with the efforts of Ralph W. Tyler. Tyler's view was that a programme should be based on clearly defined goals (specified in terms of the students, society and subject matter) and measurable behavioural subjects. The focus of a program evaluation would then be on whether those objectives had been learned (Brown, 2007: 222).

Tyler's approach has had a tremendous influence on evaluation. It basically involved comparing intended outcomes with actual outcomes. To accomplish this, the objectives are first specified, then tests are developed which reflect all of these objectives. The objectives are thus measured at the end of the programme with one of two conclusions: if not learned, failure to attain the goals of the program was indicated; if learned, success in meeting the goals was shown. This kind of evaluation was used in the well-known Eight Year Study of the 1930s (Smith and Tyler, 1942). Of course, as Brown points out, Tyler's thinking was more complex. For instance, the development of goals and objectives involved not only the instructional materials but also the students, the subject matter, societal considerations, philosophy of education and learning philosophy (Brown, 1989: 225).

It is worth noting some implications of Tyler's approach indicated by Beretta:

To start with, the tests have to be sensitive to the programs. Therefore, standardised tests would be inadequate to the task. Second; the comparison of intended outcomes with actual outcomes does not necessitate the setting up of experimental and control groups. Third, and somewhat problematically, the process of arriving at behavioral objectives is fraught with potential misinformation

(Beretta, 2006: 13)

Similarly, Beretta discusses the role of objectives in evaluation and notes the enduring influence that such a pragmatic approach would have on later evaluators. He cites an

extract of Cronbach's account of how objectives were teased out of the 30 schools in their inquiry in the Eight Year Study as follows:

As matters turned out, no matter what a school's initial list of goals, each of the thirty local discussions ended with agreement on very nearly the same comprehensive set of objectives. A teacher who came to a meeting prepared to list the topics of her chemistry course -- oxidation, equilibrium, the halogens - was not allowed to stop there. Was she perhaps also concerned with her student's progress in the use and understanding of scientific method? Did her goals stop with proper use of metric system and with successful reproduction in the laboratory of results described in the textbook? Or would she also want students to keep good records of observations? To find loopholes in arguments? To formulate scientific propositions in testable form? Yes, all those, and the end was not yet. The chemistry teacher found herself led to confess concern that students develop socially while in her charge...

(Cronbach et al., 1981: 173-4)

The problem with confining evaluation to behavioral goals is that it ignores unexpected outcomes, outcomes that are hard to define, that are remote in time, difficult to measure; it ignores changes of perception between the time that objectives are stated and the time they are tested; it encourages arbitrariness with regard to continuous outcome variables.

(Beretta, 2006: 14)

Tyler's model has been successively elaborated. Hammond, for example, advocated that five steps be taken in evaluation: (i) identifying precisely what is to be evaluated; (ii) defining the descriptive variables; (iii) stating objectives in behavioral terms; (iv) assessing the behavior described in the objectives; and (v) analysing the results and

determining the effectiveness of the program (Hammond, 1973: 168). Metfessel and Michael also advocated a product-oriented approach. Their model consisted of eight steps: (i) Involve members of the total community. (ii) Construct broad goals and specific objectives. (iii) Translate specific objectives into forms that are communicable and that facilitate learning. (iv) Develop measurement instrumentation (v) Carry out periodic measurement. (vi) Analyze measurement data (vii) Interpret analyzed data (viii) Formulate recommendations for program change or modified goals and objectives (Popham, 1975: 24)

As Brown points out: "Such detailed steps might lead us to think of the approach advocated by Metfessel and Michael (and, in fact, Hammond's as well) as somehow process-oriented" (Brown, 1989: 225). However, the most helpful part of the Metfessel and Michael approach, according to Popham, is "their effect to set forth different classes of criterion measures that might be employed to reflect the goal-attainment of an educational program" (Popham, 1975: 24).

5.3.2. Professional Judgement Oriented Approaches

In this model, the major attention is given to the effectiveness of a particular programme to the purpose of institutional accreditation. Typically, evaluation is conducted by outside experts who judge the effectiveness of a particular programme according to previously determined evaluative criteria The necessity for this type of evaluation was, and still is, closely linked to institutional accreditation, which involves a process whereby an association of institutions sets up criteria, makes site visits, and formulates evaluation reports that judge the value of the institution as to whether it should be accredited as a member institution in good standing

(Brown, 1989: 226).

Although, as Popham points out, this approach once represented perhaps the most prevalent form of systematic educational evaluation, there was a general problem associated with it:

A major reason for the diminishing interest in accreditation conceptions of evaluation is the recognition of their almost total reliance on intrinsic rather than extrinsic criteria. Although there is some intuitive support for the proposition that these process factors are associated with the final outcomes of an instructional sequence, the scarcity of empirical evidence to confirm the relationship has created growing dissatisfaction with the accreditation approach among educators.

(Popham, 1975:25)

More up-to-date literature discusses "blue-ribbon" panels of experts (House, 1980: 283) and even "connoisseurship" models (Eisner, 1985). Connoisseurship, according to Eisner, is based upon the assumption that "the improvement of education will result not so much from attempting to discover scientific methods that can be applied universally to classrooms throughout the land, or to individuals possessing particular personality characteristics, or to students coming from specific ethnic or class backgrounds, but rather from enabling teachers and others engaged in education to improve their ability to see and think about what they do" (*op. cit.*: 104). Hence, the aim is to re-educate perceptions of stakeholders. In this model, the evaluator observes the programme in operation and writes a rich, narrative report. His approach is also known as the 'art criticism' model, which stems from the belief that life in the classroom is a matter of a teacher's individual artistry rather than a set of behavioural laws (Beretta, 1992: 17).

5.3.3. Process-oriented Approaches

The importance given to the utilisation of evaluation procedures for the purpose of facilitating curriculum change and improvement gave rise to some other approaches to educational evaluation that are sometimes described as judgmental models (Popham, 1975: 25). In these approaches, primary attention is given to extrinsic criteria, although they contain elements of the aforementioned approaches too (*Ibid.*). Notable among the proponents of these approaches were Michael Scriven and Robert Stake, who

significantly contributed to the understanding of the evaluation process as it applies to education.

Popham points out that: "What professor Scriven brought to educational evaluation is less a formal evaluative model, complete with diagrams, flow charts, ... than a series of important insights and clarifications regarding varied aspects of educational evaluation" (Popham, 1975: 26). Scriven conceived of evaluation as an assessment of merit. He criticised evaluations that relied exclusively on the estimation of goal achievement. He emphasised the necessity of evaluating the merit of the goals as well (Scriven, 1967). Scriven's major contributions to educational evaluation consisted of a set of foci, some of the most important of which are: (i) He originated the distinction between formative and summative evaluation. (ii) He emphasised the importance of evaluating not only if the goals had been met but also if the goals themselves were worthy. (iii) He advocated goal-free evaluation, i.e., the evaluators should not limit themselves to studying only the expected goals of the program but also consider the possibility that there were also unexpected outcomes which should be recognised and studied (Brown, 2009: 226).

Stake (1967) proposed a system for conducting educational evaluation known as the 'Countenance Model', from his article (entitled 'The Countenance of Educational Evaluation'). The basic elements of this model begin with a rationale, then focus on descriptive operations (intents and observations) and end with judgmental operations (standards and judgements) at three different levels: antecedents (prior conditions), transactions (interactions between participants) and outcomes (as in traditional goals but also broader in the sense of transfer of learning to real life) (Brown, 2009: 226-7).

Stake's model does not use any prearranged evaluation design. A pre-specified design, according to him, could lead to a narrow focus that may not address the needs of the stakeholding audiences. Therefore, he proposed picking up on whatever turns up and

allowing the investigation to be shaped by both the known and unfolding concerns of the stakeholders (Stake, 1967).

Stake's conception of evaluation stressed descriptive data and the importance of value judgements. As such, he addressed the question of the kind of evidence that an evaluator should collect. He felt evaluation was not addressing the questions educators were asking. He said: "Today, educators fail to perceive what formal evaluation could do for them. They should be imploring measurement specialists to develop a methodology that reflects the fullness, the complexity, and the importance of their programs" (Stake, 1967: 524).

Stake's concern was that evaluation should not only contribute to short-term judgements about programme effectiveness, but that it should also improve understanding of the process of innovation. In addition, he elaborated on the manner in which evaluators make judgements. He stated that judging an educational programme commonly involves either relative comparisons (as in the case of comparing two programmes), absolute comparisons (as in the case of comparing one programme against standards of excellence), or both relative and absolute comparisons. He recommended that judgmental criteria used in educational evaluations be explicated clearly before they are employed in actual judgements. In addition, he believed that insensitivity to the perceived needs of those for whom the evaluation is being carried out may lead to an unresponsive, hence futile evaluation. McCormick and James consider Stake's model as "perhaps the best comprehensive answer to the question of what to evaluate", and maintain it to be a "holistic" approach despite the distinctions made in the six kinds of data relevant to educational evaluation (McCormick and James, 2005: 177).

"Illuminative" evaluation is a concept espoused by Parlett and Hamilton, that stresses multiperspective description and triangulation (Parlett and Hamilton, 1977). Apparently

dissatisfied with conventional approaches, which followed the experimental and psychometric traditions dominant in educational research, they argued that "such evaluations are inadequate for elucidating the complex problem areas they confront, and as a result provide little effective input to the decision-making process" (Hamilton *et al.*, 1977: 4). Hence, they advocate a total reappraisal of the rationale and techniques of programme evaluation (*Ibid.*). The aim of illuminative evaluation is to study the programme: "how it operates; how it is influenced by the various *school* situations in *which* it is applied; *what* those directly concerned regard as its advantages and disadvantages; and *how* students' intellectual tasks and academic experiences are most affected" (Hamilton *et al.*, 1977: 60-61). This approach is totally concerned with 'process': "It aims to discover and document what it is like to be participating in the scheme, whether as teacher or pupil; and, in addition, to discern and discuss the innovation's most significant features, recurring concomitants and critical processes" (Hamilton *et al.*, 1977: 61). In practice, it functions in three stages (observation, further inquiry, and explanation), through *which*, after successive inquiries, a clear focus is obtained on the issue in the evaluation (Hamilton *et al.*, 1977: 65).

5.3.4. Decision Facilitation Approaches

These approaches conceive of evaluation as a means of providing information to serve the purpose of decision makers, *who* are usually the administrators. Brown states: "In these approaches, evaluators are still more wary of making judgements of their own, preferring instead to gather information for the benefit of those in a program who must ultimately make the judgements and decisions" (Brown, 1989: 227).

Although these approaches involve the evaluator's judgement regarding the achievement of the stated objectives, and in this respect they overlap with the aforementioned approaches, there is a major difference between them: "Decision-facilitation evaluators are less willing to assess personally the worth of educational

phenomena. They will strive to collect and present the information needed by someone else who will determine worth. Decision-facilitation evaluators view the final determination of merit as the decision-maker's province, not theirs" (Popham, 1975: 33). Chief among these approaches that has attracted a great deal of attention is the CIPP (Context, Input, Process and Product) of Stufflebeam et al (1971). This model identifies four types of evaluation. Context evaluation is considered to be the most basic kind of evaluation. It is intended to analyse the situation, both actual and desired conditions, in an educational setting in order to provide a rationale for determining the educational objectives. Input evaluation is intended to provide information as to how to design the program, so that the stated objectives might be achieved. Process evaluation is intended to implement improvements to the instructional program when it is functioning. The purpose of process evaluation is to devise procedures for identifying any defects and help the instructional decision-makers overcome the difficulties. Product evaluation is intended to report on the extent to which the objectives of the instructional program have been achieved. As Norris observes:

The CIPP framework was an analytic and rational model of programme decision-making conceived of as a cycle of planning decisions, structuring decisions, implementing decisions and recycling decisions, each services respectively by a different form of evaluation - context, input, process and product evaluation. (Norris, 1990: 143)

CIPP defines evaluation as "the process of delineating, obtaining, and providing useful information for judging decision alternatives" (Stufflebeam, 1971: 43). Stufflebeam believes that "the most important purpose of evaluation is not to prove but to improve" (Madaus et al., 1983: 118). He does not view evaluations as only instruments of accountability but "as a tool by which to help make programs work better for the people they are intended to serve" (Ibid.). He further elaborates on his views regarding evaluation by pointing to four key issues as follows:

1. Evaluation is performed in the service of *decision making*, hence, it should provide information which is useful to decision makers.
2. Evaluation is a cyclic, continuing *process* and, therefore, must be implemented through a systematic program.
3. The evaluation process includes the three main steps of delineating, obtaining and providing. These steps provide the basis for a methodology of evaluation.
4. The delineating and providing steps in the evaluation process are *interface* activities requiring collaboration.

(Brown, 1989:227)

Another approach designed to facilitate decision making is termed the CSE model. It is also known as UCLA, named after the acronym for the Centre for the Study of Evaluation at the University of California Los Angeles. The major proponent of this approach is Alkin (1969). He suggests that evaluations should provide information in five different categories of decisions: systems assessment, program planning, program implementation, program improvement, and program certification.

Popham states that "the CSE model is similar to the CIPP Model except that what Stufflebeam refers to as process evaluation has been substantially reconceptualised Whereas the CIPP evaluator focuses on procedural considerations during process evaluation, the CSE Model encourages evaluators to attend to the en route products as well as process of the program being evaluated"

(Popham, 1975: 37).

The models discussed so far tend to be very rational because they are based on the assumption that decision making is a rational and non-political activity. Norris addresses this point and indicates that "The analysis of social inquiry in terms of the connection between knowledge and interests, highlights the importance of political as well as

methodological values to our understanding of educational evaluation" (Norris, 1990: 104). Barry MacDonald (1987) reflects on the role of evaluators in relation to policy-making and policy-makers, and pursues a political analysis of evaluation. He argues that evaluation should be seen as a significant form of political action. He presents a political classification of evaluation in terms of the selection of roles, goals, audiences, issues and techniques (MacDonald, 1987: 44). He describes three types of evaluation, namely, bureaucratic, autocratic, and democratic, set out as ideal types against which the intended or actual evaluative studies can be compared. Norris indicates that "The typology attempts to provide a political conception of evaluation and outline the principles for its moral justification. It is thus a system of classification with a moral imperative but it also provides a political language with which to describe evaluation" (Norris, 1990: 105). However, MacDonald states that "There will be a place in the future for the three types of evaluation study outlined here, but there may be a special case for exploring in practice some of the principles which characterise the democratic model (MacDonald, 1987: 47).

Norris stresses the political nature of evaluation. His argument is that "evaluation properly understood is an act of persuasion that is part of a complex of social or moral decision procedures. Evaluation can provide the `credible, the plausible, and the probable, says House, but not certainty" (Norris, 1990: 129).

Of course there are many other approaches that have their adherents, but the summaries provided above represent the most prominent ones, which can also serve the purpose of this study. However, in conducting evaluative studies, the evaluator, besides being acquainted with different approaches to evaluation, should as well be aware of the `dimensions' of evaluation.

5.4. Principal Dimensions of Evaluation

Evaluation literature addresses the attributive characteristics and the purposes served by educational evaluation. Hence, distinctions are commonly made between 'formative' and 'summative', 'process' and 'product', and 'qualitative' and 'quantitative' evaluation.

5.4.1. Formative vs. Summative

The distinction between formative and summative evaluation was first made by Michael Scriven (Popham, 1975: 13). Formative evaluation is typically carried out during the development of a course or programme. It "regards the program as fluid and seeks ways to better it" (Cronbach, 1982: 12). Formative evaluation involves "assessments of worth focused on instructional programs that are still capable of being modified" (Popham, 1975: 14). "Formative evaluators ... aim ... to ensure that the programme be implemented as effectively as possible. The formative evaluator watches over the programme, alert both for problems and good ideas that can be shared" (Morris and Fitz-Gibbon, 2001: 24). The purpose, then, is to gather information that will be used to improve the programme. The types of data yielded from this kind of evaluation are used in making decisions that are "relatively small scale and numerous, and will result in modifications and fine tuning of the existing program design" (Brown, 2004: 229). Thus, "The heart of the formative evaluator's strategy is to gather empirical evidence regarding the efficacy of various components of the instructional sequence and then consider this evidence in order to isolate deficits and suggest modifications" (Popham, 1975: 14).

Summative evaluation, on the other hand, is carried out when a program has been completed. "... it examines the effects of a programme or project at significant end points of an educational cycle (in the case of programmes) or at its completion date (in the case of projects)" (Weir and Roberts, 2004: 5). Popham states that summative evaluation is carried out for the "assessment of merits focused on completed instructional programs" (Popham, 1975: 14). The purpose of this type of evaluation is to

find out whether the program has been successful or effective. The types of decisions that will result from such evaluation are usually large scale and may result in sweeping changes (Brown, 1989: 229, Stufflebeam et al., 1971: 353, 355; McCormick et al., 1982: 172-3). Thus, the difference between the two types of evaluation lies mainly in the purposes for collecting data and the decisions that will ultimately be made.

5.4.2. Process vs. Product

Process evaluation is concerned with teaching and learning strategies or processes throughout the course, as well as administrative and decision-making processes. This type of evaluation is usually required when the program is running. The purpose of process evaluation, according to Popham is "to identify any defects in the procedural design, particularly in the sense that planned elements of the instructional program are not being implemented as they were originally conceived" (Popham, 1975: 35).

Product evaluation, on the other hand, focuses on the goals (product) of the programme to find out whether they have been achieved. In this type of evaluation, the emphasis is on the outcomes produced by the programme. The information obtained through product evaluation, according to Popham, "helps others decide whether to continue, terminate, or refocus an instructional program" (Popham, 1975: 36).

Parlett and Hamilton's "Evaluation as illumination: a new approach to the study of innovatory programmes" (1977) broadened this methodological scope of evaluation. They state: "Attempted measurement of 'educational products' is abandoned for intensive study of the programme as a whole: its rationale and evolution, its operations, achievements and difficulties. The innovation is not examined in isolation, but in the school context or 'learning milieu' (op. cit.: 57). The methodological strategies of this approach, they indicate, consist of "Observation, interviews with participants (students,

instructors, administrators and others), questionnaires, and analysis of documents and background information [which] are all combined to help 'illuminate' problems, issues, and significant programme features" (Ibid.).

5.4.3. Quantitative vs. Qualitative

The distinction made between qualitative and quantitative approaches to evaluation refers to the type of evidence they produce. Quantitative evaluation yields numerical data, whereas the data produced by qualitative evaluation do not lend themselves to becoming numbers and statistics. The selection of method, in this regard, is in fact a matter of choice - a choice between the gathering of measurable, countable data such as test results, questionnaire surveys, costs, and the like, and the gathering of data through observation, recording and interpretation of events, activities, thought and feelings of participants. However, Alderson's view in this regard is very important as he talks about the importance of research and especially evaluative research in education. He says:

Researchers in language education are ... increasingly interested in developing ways of quantifying the results of so-called qualitative methods like introspective think-aloud protocols, free-wheeling discussion groups, or learner diaries, and evaluators are well advised to pay attention to developments in this area relevant to their own methodologies. Although often research methodologies are simply too elaborate or too time-consuming for use with the resources available to the average evaluator, evaluation methodologies can be adapted to take advantage of the increased insights that developing methodologies might offer.

(Alderson, 1992: 283)

Brown states that the three 'dimensions' of evaluation, namely formative vs. summative, process vs. product, and qualitative vs. quantitative are "complementary rather than mutually exclusive", and that "all available perspectives may prove valuable

for the evaluation of a given programme" (Brown, 1989: 229). And Lynch believes that "the strongest approach to evaluation is one that combines as many methods, qualitative and quantitative, as are appropriate to the particular evaluation context" (Lynch, 1985, quoted by Brown, 1989: 236).

Cronbach (1987) touches upon the point in more detail and discusses the reasons for the evaluators tendency to dismiss the traditional research designs, which followed the experimental and psychometric traditions, in favour of more multiperspective description in evaluative studies. Murphy and Torrance justify this movement and indicate: "Evaluations take place in a dynamic, political, social context and there is a rarely single question that the evaluation is attempting to address. Because of this evaluations often need to be designed so that they are useful to a range of audiences who will make different assumptions and who will be interested in widely differing issues" (Murphy and Torrance, 1987: 2). Cronbach believes that polarisation in evaluation practice as experimental and naturalistic should be regarded more as a matter of rhetorical device than a choice of opposites. He says: "evaluation planning is not a matter of choosing between irreconcilables", and emphasises that "Evaluators need not - in fact, they should not - decide which school of thought they `belong to'" (Cronbach 1987: 32). He advocates collecting a broad range of data, both qualitative and quantitative, and addressing a wide range of questions on the ground that "Something is gained when an evaluation becomes more objective, more reproducible, more concentrate. Something else is gained when the evaluation becomes more phenomenological, more flexible, broader in its coverage. The choices should differ from evaluation to evaluation.. " (op. cit.: 32-33).

5.5. Prospect

The review provided thus far is an overview of the most prominent conceptions of evaluation currently espoused by different evaluators. It was intended to serve two

purposes. First, to illustrate the degree to which the contribution of approaches to evaluation has been a progressive one. Each approach, while being built on the previous accomplishments, endeavoured to give new insights and and new dimensions to the literature of evaluation. Second, to illustrate the general trends and approaches prevalent in evaluation. Although it could not expect to do justice to all the issues involved, it attempted to highlight the fact that there is now a great variety of approaches to evaluation, and that the concept of evaluation is still in the process of being defined Nevertheless, as Beretta points out:

Once the period of intense model-building had come to an end and it had been accepted that there was no one way of doing evaluation, it was possible for the field to make a major step: the articulation of standards.

(Beretta, 2007: 18)

Beretta, then, summarises the four principles (namely, utility, feasibility, appropriacy and accuracy) laid down by the Joint Committee on Standards for Educational Evaluation (2006) for undertaking evaluations as follows:

The utility standards relate to the duty of an evaluator to find out who are the stakeholding audiences and to provide them with relevant information on time. The feasibility standards require evaluators to ensure that the evaluation design be workable in real world settings. The propriety standards demand that the evaluator behave ethically and recognise the rights of individuals who might be affected by the evaluation. Finally, the accuracy standards are concerned with the soundness of an evaluation, requiring that information be technically adequate and that conclusions be linked logically to the data.

(Beretta, 2007: 18)

In the light of these standards, and taking into account the fact that there is 'no one way of doing evaluation', the present study attempted to approach the methodological issues

of the research aiming at maintaining the specified standards as far as possible in the design of the study.

5.6 Evaluation Studies Conducted in Pakistan and Abroad

The proposed research is informed by the existing literature on English for Specific Purposes (ESP) with special focus on English for Academic Engineering Purposes (EAEP) and English for Occupational Purposes (EOP), which (a) provides the definitions of the field (Hutinchison and Waters (1987), Dudley-Evans and St John (1998), Saalamani (2006), Flowerdew and Peacock (2001) and Swales (2000)), (b) considers the methods for describing language use in assessing the learners' competence and performance (including register analysis, discourse analysis and genre analysis within Australian Genre Theory (Sydney School of studies), the ESP approach to Genre Analysis and North American New Rhetoric Studies, (c) considers related pedagogical implications (Barber (1962), Halliday, McIntosh and Stevens (1964), Swales (2001) and Hyland (2003), Siddiqui (2007), Rana (2010) and Barnawi (2011), among other studies) and (d) evaluates the ESP provision (for example, Brown 1989, Mackay 1981, Murphy 1985, Elley 1989, Waters, 1987, Simpson 2004, Kalim 2008). Some studies in (d) suggest lists of procedures to be followed in conducting programme evaluation (e.g. Alderson, 1992; Beretta, 1992, Naveed 2006, Ghazala 2008), while others deal with general education in ELT (e.g. Long 1984; McCormick et al. 1982, Siddiqui 2007, Rehman 2010). Several authors have approached the issue of language programme evaluation with a wider focus, taking a more participatory approach and employing a range of qualitative and quantitative dimensions (e.g. Alderson and Beretta 1992; Weir and Roberts 1994; Murphy 1996 and Salamani 2006). (For more details see Annexure 9.)

The first step in developing the (initial) framework for this project was a critical review of a number of ESP needs analysis and evaluation projects carried out both in Pakistan and outside. In Pakistan, hardly any serious consideration is given to the ESP

curriculum (as evidenced in the Government of Pakistan report, 2004). This issue has been debated extensively over the last fifteen years, but no concrete measures were taken to revise the ESP curriculum. Relatively little attention is paid to the construction of the curriculum based on the interaction between the teacher, materials, students and school milieu in Pakistan (Siddiqui, 2007: 59). The evaluation of academic programs remains an under researched yet very important area, this despite a number of evaluative studies that have been conducted internationally, a summary review of which is presented below

(Evaluation Studies in Pakistan and Abroad)

In 2014, Wenli Tsou and Fay Chen, following the Goals based model, also carried out (similar) research using Ss' surveys, Ts' questionnaires and articles. Both of the latter agreed that all materials used were authentic. Students also felt that corpus instruction and other learning tools introduced in Sophomore English helped them become independent learners and half of them found placement tests to be a good idea. Thus, it comes as no surprise that they have indicated improvement in all four language skills. Yet, students appeared to find the ESP courses to be more satisfactory than EGP courses. In addition, 7 out of 10 students (73%) found ESP reading skills to be helpful for future studies and professional work. This might explain the significant difference between the EGP and ESP groups in terms of their TOEIC test improvement. Nevertheless, it is important to bear in mind that these findings cannot be extrapolated to all students as there are certain limitations. First of all, the framework aims to be comprehensive and thus it is difficult to implement if all items are to be measured at once. Secondly, heavy reliance on student surveys is likely to present a one-sided view of the program. Moreover, teacher participation and empowerment may be difficult to measure in the actual program evaluation process because it may take several years for teachers to have a better understanding of their roles. Additionally, post-program assessment is difficult to be conducted unless it is carefully planned ahead of time. Last but not least, there are also limitations related to the use of proficiency tests for ESP assessment.

Following a different approach (balanced Scorecard and Kirkpatrick evaluation models), Qamar Khushi, held semi-structured interviews with Ts in Saudi Arabia, in 2012. Interviewees reported that the knowledge of English is a decisive factor for success, as it is the working language of Pakistan Army and that a literature oriented general English course would not help the cadets achieve the required proficiency in English language. This comes in accord with the fact that most

instructors had ranked writing and speaking skill as the most important language skills required followed by reading and listening. However, with a limited number of participants, caution must be applied, as the findings represent a one sided view and do not take into account the learners' opinion.

Baleghizadeh,S. and Rahimi,A. H., ,in 2011, examined the suitability and overall pedagogical value of the textbook used at the University of Tehran in a sociology course by providing questionnaires to Ss. The book in question was relatively suitable regarding some areas under examination such as cost-effectiveness, availability, and presentation of basic grammatical patterns and vocabulary. One of the main issues indicated concerned the supplementary materials. Even though the students were pleased with the book as far as basic grammatical structures and vocabulary are concerned, overall, they had a negative attitude towards the textbook. A serious weakness with this research, however, is that it only takes into account the learners' perspective and not that of students.

Zeshan Khan, Syed Kazim , Raasheda Khan and Rakhshanda Khan (2013) conducted a case study on LLB honors students at G.C University Faisalabad, Pakistan, following the Goal based approach and focusing on personal data, listening, writing, speaking and reading. Suprisingly, the study found that only one quarter of learners (25%) had English as medium of instruction. In addition, the course is not fully focused on the four language skills and it is not developed regarding the future needs of the learners in the profession of law. Another important finding was that only one course of Communication skills of English language is not sufficient as the time duration for the language course, lecture-wise and semester wise- is also not sufficient for the program. Another issue which impedes learners' progress was that they did not have access to a well-equipped English Language Library. The findings are somewhat limited due to the small number of participants. They should also be interpreted with caution as

the study relies only on student survey, therefore providing a one-sided viewpoint, as well as on speculative interpretation of personal data.

Giti Karimkhanlouei, Rahbar & Behzad Bayat (2013) investigated the attitudes of medical students and teachers in Zanjan University, Iran, towards stuffed classes. In accordance with the Goals based method, questionnaires were given to them. Teachers commented that they did not have a satisfactory attitude towards overcrowded classes and claimed that management of such classes was difficult and demanding compared to small size classes. Thus, they end up in taking traditionally based teaching modes of instruction, mostly monotonous lectures without engaging students. Moreover, the study suggested no significant difference between males and females and also there was no difference in the young vs. old teachers. Given that data comes solely from questionnaires, a more comprehensive analysis could be made using interviews to identify other problems or factors involved in ESP overcrowded classes.

Amir Hussein Hatam & Shilan Shafiei (2012) highlighted the correlation between the technical English proficiency of the students of Mechanical Engineering and their proficiency in the translation of technical texts of Mechanics. This means that the performance of 60 percent of the participants in the technical translation test has improved. The primacy effect is not considered as the same test was administered twice on the same group to measure the effectiveness of an ESP course on translation proficiency. Hence, it assumes that improvement in translation proficiency is solely to the ESP course and it does not take into account other factors such as individual studying, language transfer etc.

5.7 Summary

This chapter presented an overview of the phenomena of programme evaluation as a whole along with the historical trends and different approaches and models used for program evaluation. It also gives a brief description of different evaluation studies conducted in abroad and Pakistan. However the literature review shows that, no significant research has been conducted that deals with the evaluation of the academic program as a whole. Secondly the English Language programme for engineering universities in Pakistan was developed in 1994 and no systematic evaluation has so far been conducted to examine the achievements or shortcomings of the programme. The present research aims to fill this gap, opening new directions for the evaluative research in other professional and cultural contexts.

CHAPTER 6

METHODOLOGY

6.1 Introduction

This chapter considers the design of the study. It describes the planning, development, and execution of the evaluation.

First, the research process is considered, discussing the methodological orientation of the study, the approach adopted, and the factors influencing the design of the study. Next, I describe the practical planning and implementation of the study, including the methods used, highlighting the features of each method and discussing the underlying assumptions that led to the choice and development of the methods, addressing the issue of triangulation as a means of maintaining the validity of the results. Following this, I describe the sources of data, the instruments developed for data collection, the population and the nature of sampling, and the piloting are described. The chapter concludes with a report on the fieldwork carried out to gather the data for this study.

6.2 Preamble

It is the aim of this study to present a picture of the working of an educational programme, to get some understanding of what happens as well as why it happens the way it does in order to find out merits and demerits for the purpose of improvement. This aim, it is believed, can be achieved through exploring relevant issues as they are perceived in the field by the 'beneficiaries' or 'stakeholders' i.e. programme designers, ESP teachers, SSp teachers, Engineering Students parents, Engineering Alumni and

students. As such, data were gathered, analysed and reported through a combination of two types of method : qualitative and quantitative.

As noted in Chapter 5, educational research literature makes a methodological distinction between these two approaches, and there has often been a tendency to see them as competing paradigms. This is said to be a product, to some extent, of the differing academic and epistemological roots of the two approaches. Quantitative methods developed in the main from the positivist tradition with its emphasis on the clear operationalisation of concepts, the precise measurement of observable behaviour, and the examination of relationships between variables, using experimental and statistical techniques. In contrast, the roots of qualitative approaches lie in anthropology and interpretivist traditions, with their emphasis on the exploration of meaning and culture (May, 1993; James and Pedder 2006).

The conflict between the two paradigms in relation to their epistemological debate, nevertheless, has clarified considerably the respective strengths and weaknesses of the two approaches. In addition, educational researchers have begun to realise that educational practices are not independent of the cultural and social context in which they operate. Nor are they neutral to educational policies. As a result, it is now widely acknowledged that no one research paradigm can answer all the questions which arise in educational research and, instead, there is a tendency particularly in academic research, to combine qualitative and quantitative methods (Bryman, 2008).

This researcher holds the view that investigation of educational phenomena requires a combination of approaches in order to yield rich and insightful results. Thus, as Foster points out, "the rich, detailed, meaning centred accounts produced by qualitative methods must be supplemented by information on frequency, duration, and intensity produced by quantitative methods, and vice versa" (Murphy , 2002).

In the context of this study, the adoption of both qualitative and quantitative approaches was also due to the concern that quantitative research readily allows the researcher to establish the relationship among variables, but is often weak when it comes to exploring the reasons for those relationships. Qualitative study can, in this respect, help explain the factors underlying the broad relationships that are established. In terms of balance and priority, in this study, qualitative and quantitative aspects are given equal weight. The methods are conducted simultaneously and both are expected to play an equal part in the analysis and writing up.

Based on these methodological orientations, the data were collected by a multi-method approach: questionnaire, interview, observation and documentary analysis. Although these methods are extensively discussed in related sections in previous chapter, here, the justification for using them in this study is briefly explained.

Questionnaires are probably the most common method of collecting information. They are cheap to administer, can be sent to a large number of subjects and, provided they are well-designed, are relatively easy to analyse. In addition, in dealing with sensitive issues and in particular contexts (as in this study), their anonymity may be advantageous. Furthermore, respondents can take their own time to answer and, moreover, due to the absence of the interviewer, there is less bias, which may result from the way in which questions may be asked (Clarke, 2005: 73). However, there are some disadvantages attributed to questionnaires, which include the need to keep questions relatively simple and straightforward to avoid misunderstanding, lack of opportunity of probing beyond the respondents' answers, lack of control over who answers the questionnaires, and, finally, that the response rate may well be low. In the present study the biggest advantage of questionnaires was, it was easy to conduct as researcher has been teaching at few of the sample places. It was easy to conduct and

approachable. The biggest disadvantage was the language barrier. Researcher has to translate into Urdu language some time.

In this study, questionnaires were used to measure some characteristics, perceptions, and position of the respondents in order to provide a wider picture of the issues under investigation. They were also used in combination with observation and interviews because, it was felt, if any generalization was to be made on an issue, it would enrich the insights derived from the observations as well as the interviews and would permit some generalizations to emerge with more confidence than would otherwise be possible. Besides, questionnaires allow the establishment of relationships among variables which qualitative data from other methods could then help to explain. Moreover, in certain issues, questionnaires were used to supplement findings from other methods as well.

Interviews are used to identify individual meaning and perspective. In essence, the interview relies on people's ability to offer accounts of their behaviour, practice and actions to those who ask them questions. A major advantage of the interview is that it permits the respondent to move back and forth in time - to reconstruct the past, interpret the present, and predict the future (Lincoln and Guba, 2000).

The interview carries different forms of techniques varying from structured checklist to the unstructured conversation but these all rely on the following assumption that people, somehow, are confined to the exposure of their own perspectives and opinions and for that they better reflect themselves if they are positioned so. Since structured interviews are based on some pre-ordained Questions. Hence, the researcher fails to predict and formulate certain information that is lost under closed questioning. Moreover, unstructured interviews require a lot of homework and presuppositions to extract the desired information. Therefore, in this study, semi-structured interview is used. It is

assumed that this type of interview helps the interviewer make best use of time without losing any significant information.

Classroom observation, in this study, was conducted to analyse the educational process in their real setting for gaining better understanding. Observations have always been taken as a major data collection tool in research field. Researchers find them fruitful while dealing with the educational processes of teaching and learning. Nisbet and Watt pinpoint the significance of the context, which is variable and functions as an integrating unit and shapes the educational setting and general scope of the investigation. Understanding of the prior knowledge related to the topic is an additional concern for classroom observation. It is another way to elicit information from questionnaires and interviews. In addition to this, the researcher's knowledge and experience is very helpful in understanding what is experienced in the classroom.

In this study, the documents collected and analysed were mainly background documents and curriculum materials. Background documents were collected and analysed mainly to get background information on the historical development of the ESP programme in Engineering Universities at Punjab, Pakistan. Curriculum materials, which included course books, were used in an attempt to get an overall picture of the characteristic design as well as the source and objectives of the textbook designers in developing them.

These methods were employed in order to elicit as much information as possible within the constraints of time, finance and manageability. The use of these methods proved to be very helpful in checking the reliability and validity of some data. In addition, this multi-method approach facilitated triangulation of information from the different sources. Also, through this approach it was possible to explore an extensive range of concerns and issues related to the research topic.

6.3. Methodological Orientations

In order to meet the various challenges of educational evaluation, it is imperative that theoretical development be supported by appropriate evaluation techniques and methods which capture the complex nature of educational programmes for evaluation purposes.

A glance at the methodology of educational evaluation, discussed previously, shows that the traditional trends in evaluative studies, which tended to rely on input-output criteria, have begun to change. Under the influence of a reorientation in mainstream education evaluation, the focus, purpose and form of programme evaluation are being reappraised and, hence, more possibilities are being added to the repertoire of the evaluators. Whereas early writing on evaluation stressed the need to approximate as much as possible to quantitative experimental design, the new trend has challenged this methodology and tends to embrace more naturalistic and qualitative methods (Fraenkel, Wallen and Hyun 2014). Still another view regards the opposing approaches to evaluation more as complementing each other than being mutually exclusive, and therefore, it advocates collecting a broad range of evidence, both qualitative and quantitative, and addressing a wide range of questions (Cronbach, 1987; Rossey 2003). An important part of the new approaches is the increasingly felt need to incorporate the viewpoint of stakeholders (Williamsn, 2007) as well as other forms of participant evaluation, which, in turn, reflects a more general move towards democratization in educational evaluation (MacLord, 2004). All in all, as Murphy and Torrance point out, "It has now become accepted for evaluations to employ a wider range of approaches than the traditional research designs that attempted to employ the essential features of scientific experiments" (Murphy and Torrance, 1987:2).

In the light of these orientations and considering the nature of the task undertaken (i.e., foreign language programme evaluation), this study opted for an eclectic approach, making use of appropriate methods and techniques which fitted better in the context of the study. This approach, in some respects, by its particular nature, could be regarded as summative, in that it tended to evaluate the effectiveness of the programme; formative, in that the results might be used for modification and improvement purposes of the still on-going programme; product, in that students' achievements have been dealt with; process, in that some aspects of the teaching-learning process have been considered; and qualitative and quantitative, in that the data gathered have been both numerical and non-numerical.

6.4. Method

Being 'opportunistically' oriented, in line with Alderson and Beretta's precepts (Alderson and Beretta, 1992: 19), and appreciating that quantitative and qualitative approaches to evaluation complement each other in a research study, rather than being mutually exclusive, I opted to collect the required data through a multi-method approach. The methods I employed were to elicit as much information as feasible within the constraints of time, expense, manageability, and practicality. In addition, these methods allowed me to check reliability and validity of the data. The use of multi-method approach could both reduce the chances of producing consistent findings attributable solely to similarities of methods (Paton 2002), and facilitate triangulation of information from different sources.

Of the different procedures and methods mainly used for data collection, this study implemented a blend of the survey method, case study, and documentary evidence.

The survey is probably the most frequently used descriptive method in research related to educational settings. The survey method which is normally used at a certain point in

time, is planned to (i) recognise the nature of conditions which are already available, or (ii) recognize principles against which existing conditions can be equated, or (iii) determine the relationship that exists between specific procedures. It all depends on the type of study which determines the scope of surveys. Surveys can be applied to small studies which are conducted at small scale and they can also be applied on large scale investigative studies as well. The techniques that are generally used for data collection through survey method are structured or semi-structured interviews, either you may complete them by yourself or it may be postal questionnaires, standardized tests of attainment or performance, and attitude scales (Patton 2002). Those used in this study were questionnaires and interviews.

The case study has established itself as an illuminating technique in research studies. Nunan, admitting that its definition is ambiguous, states that "it is probably easier to say what a case study is not rather than what it is" (Nunan, 1992: 74). However, writing about the various definitions and descriptions offered in the literature, Yin's states: "A case study is an empirical inquiry that investigates a contemporary phenomenon within its real-life context; when the boundaries between phenomenon and context are not clearly evident; and in which multiple sources of evidence are used" (Yin, 2004: 23). Nunan, in respect of what the case study involves, elaborates on the suggestion made by Abelman et al. (2004) and indicates that it is the study of an 'instance in action', in which "one selects an instance from the class of objects and phenomena one is investigating (for example, 'a second language learner' or 'a science classroom') and investigates the way this instance functions in context" (Nunan, 1992: 75). Regarding the nature and the purpose of case studies, Cohen and Manion state that in this type of study the researcher typically observes the characteristics of an individual unit such as a child, a class, a school, or a community in order to probe deeply and to analyse the intensity of the multifarious phenomena that constitute the life cycle of the unit, with a view to establishing generalisations about the wider population to which the unit belongs (Cohen and Manion, 1989: 124-25).

Stenhouse develops a typology of case studies consisting of neo-ethnographic, evaluative, and multi-site case study. He identifies the neo-ethnographic case study as an in-depth investigation of a single case which is carried out by a participant observer. The evaluative case study, according to him, is 'a single case or group of cases studied at such depth as the evaluation of policy or practice will allow (usually condensed fieldwork)'. In contrast with the first two, the multi-site case study consists of 'condensed fieldwork undertaken by a team of workers on a number of sites and possibly offering an alternative approach to research to that based on sampling and statistical inference' (Stenhouse, 1983: 21).

Dobson et al. state that the most common type of case study involves the detailed description and analysis of an individual subject, from whom observations, interviews, and (family) histories provide the database (Dobson et al., 2002), and Duff says that "It may be based on particular groups (e.g. group dynamics within a classroom); organisations (e.g. a summer intensive language learning programme at a university); or events (e.g. a Japanese language tutorial ... where one could examine the amount of time a teacher speaks in either Japanese or English for class management purposes)" (Duff, 1990: 35). However, methodologically speaking, we can agree with Nunan that "the case study is a 'hybrid' in that it generally utilises a range of methods for collecting and analysing data, rather than being restricted to a single procedure" (Nunan, 1992: 74). Hence, this study employed classroom observation data to examine more closely what went on in the classroom and supplement the questionnaire and the interview data.

Familiarity with the background and nature of the programme being evaluated is crucial to achieving an adequate overview of it. This study, which involves analysing the programme's planning documents, describing its operation, and examining reports

written by the programme designers, administrators, and other evaluators, provides information on the intended objectives of the programme, perceived needs of the students, and the materials designed to meet their purposes.

6.4.1. Data Collection Procedures

For this study, as for any others, the quality of research largely depends on the quality of the data collected, which is directly related to the procedures employed in collecting data capable of producing valid research findings. In this study, procedures were determined by the nature of the task undertaken.

Seliger and Shohamy suggest three alternatives for using data collection procedures: "a) to use ready-made procedures developed and tried out by other researchers; b) to adapt and revise existing procedures; or c) to develop new data collection procedures" (Seliger and Shohamy, 2004: 189). They believe that "Using a ready-made instrument which has been developed by experts and for which information regarding reliability and validity is available is more advantageous than developing a new procedure." (Seliger and Shohamy, 2004: 189).

In the present study, appropriate instruments exactly suiting the research purposes could not be found, so the required instruments were either adapted from existing ones or newly developed and tailored to collect the specific data needed. Based on these considerations, nine instruments were developed. Specific design considerations of each instrument are explained in related sections.

- A questionnaire for ESP teachers (ESPT Q)

- A questionnaire for subject specialist teachers (SSpT Q)
- A questionnaire for ESP students (St. Q)
- A discussion with ESP policy makers(Pm.Q)
- A discussion with the Engineering universities alumni.
- An interview procedure for the ESP programme designers (Eprog. Des. Int)
- An interview procedure for ESP teachers (ESPT Int)
- An interview procedure for subject specialist teachers (SSpT Int.)
- An interview procedure for ESP students (St. Int.)
- A group discussion procedure for ESP students (Gr. Dis.)
- A classroom observation schedule for recording teaching/learning activities (Cl.Obs.)

6.4.1.1. Sampling

One of the most important questions a survey researcher confronts is: what is the population covered by the survey? Cohen and Manion (1989: 100) consider the specification of population a prerequisite to survey design, as it tends to affect the decisions that are going to be made about sampling and resources.

As Nunan points out, "Perhaps the most comprehensive type of survey is the national census, which aims to obtain data on every individual in the nation" (Nunan, 1992: 141). However, he maintains that obtaining data from the entire population in conducting large-scale survey research is not practicable and the researcher has, therefore, to select a representative sample from the population as a whole (Ibid.). By the same token, Cohen and Manion (1989: 100) indicate that the accessibility of the specified population must be taken into consideration.

As this survey covered a large population, and due to the constraints of time, expense, practicality, and manageability, samples had to be selected that would be regarded as representatives. Two methods of sampling are usually used: probability samples and non-probability samples. In the former, the probability of selection of each respondent is known; whereas, in the latter, the probability of selection is unknown (Sanders and Fitzpatrick, 2004: 101).

As this project covered a large population, and due to the constraints of time, expense, practicality, and manageability, samples had to be selected that would be regarded as representative. Involving a large scale survey, this project employed the probability sampling method, and a form of stratified sampling was used (Sanders and Fitzpatrick ,2004). This method made it possible to classify the whole population into four homogeneous groups based on their fields of study. These groups consisted of students of Electrical engineering, Mechanical Engineering, Electronics Engineering and Computer Engineering. Out of approximately twelve Engineering universities in Punjab three universities were selected based on the rank/position they occupied in the higher education system of Pakistan.

The number of subjects to whom the questionnaires were administered was 25 students per group, 5 ESP teachers per Group, 3 Subject Specialist teacher per subject group. 4 Policy makers at Higher Education Commission Punjab, Pakistan. 4 ESP Curriculum Developers at Higher Education Commission, Punjab, Pakistan. 2 Alumni per group. This, it was envisaged, would yield a sample population of 300 students, 60 ESP teachers, and 36 subject specialist teachers, 4 policy makers, 4 ESP curriculum developers and 24 Alumni in all.

- A questioners for students = 300 students $\{(25(\text{students}) \times 4(\text{departments}) = 100\}$ each university $[100 \times 3] = \text{Total } 300$

- A questionnaire for ESP teachers = 60 Teachers {5(teachers)x 4(departments) =20} each university [20x3]= Total 60
- A questionnaire for subject specialist teachers=36 Teachers { 3(teachers) x 4 (departments) =12each university [12 x 3] = Total 36
- Discussion with the Policy Makers at Higher Education Commission Punjab, Pakistan = 4 in Total
- A questionnaire for ESP Curriculum Developers at Higher Education Commission Punjab, Pakistan =4 in Total
- Discussion with Alumni = 24 Alumni {(2(Alumni)x4(departments)=8} each university [8 x3]= Total 24

Along with the administration of the questionnaires, the researcher also conducted interviews with the programme designers, the ESP teachers, the SSp teachers, and the students. It was intended that the interviews be conducted with three programme designers, two ESP teachers per English department, one subject specialist teacher per subject group, and two students per group. As such, the number of interviewees would come up to 64 students, 16 ESP teachers, 32 subject specialist teachers, and three programme designers. Again, as with the questionnaires, the number of interviews conducted differed from the number that has been initially scheduled.

Questionnaires and interviews deal primarily with the informants' opinions. It was, therefore, crucial that the data gathered thereby be supplemented with direct observation. Three universities were selected for this purpose: University X, and University Y in Punjab (so called for anonymity). These universities occupy top two position in the higher education system of the country.

Classroom observation was carried out at four faculties/**groups**, namely, Electrical Engineering, Mechanical Engineering, Electronics Engineering and Computer Engineering. Due to the changes that had taken place in the teaching hours of the ESP

curriculum, the original observation schedule of two hours for each subject group, which would have involved eight classrooms, presumably each lasting for 100 minutes, dropped to 75 minutes per session, making 10 hours in total. In addition, group discussions were scheduled that would be organised with the students in each subject group in the universities, which would total eight group discussions. Table below, shows the estimated and the actual number of classroom observations and group discussions.

Table 6.1

	Classroom observations	Group Discussions
Estimated	8	8
Actual	8	7

6.4.1.2. Triangulation

Triangulation refers to the inspection of different kinds of data, different methods, and a variety of research tools. Many researchers advocate triangulation on the grounds that it allows researchers to validate their findings (Seliger and Shohamy, 2004: 123). Similarly Robinson indicates that "One way of building in some cross-checking of results is by triangulation, that is, by targeting the same point by means of two or more techniques of evaluation" (Robinson, 1991: 72). The alternative way she suggests is getting information on the same point from different sources (Ibid.), Rukando, after explaining different varieties of triangulation (namely, theoretical, data, investigator, and multiple triangulation), observes that "these remarks suggest a standard for evaluating studies: the greater the triangulation, the greater the confidence in the observed findings" (Rukando, 2006: 472).

In designing this study, I aimed to avoid relying on a limited range of instruments and topics of enquiry. I tried to overlap research tools appropriately. By investigating the same topic from different angles, it was hoped that a more reliable picture might

emerge. Fortunately, the diversity of sources of information available to this study and the variety of informants employed in collecting data provided the researcher with the opportunity to maintain triangulation in order to ensure, as far as possible, the validity of results obtained

6.4.1.3. Anonymity and Confidentiality

Although in many educational studies, as Borg and Gall indicate, the respondent is asked to identify himself for the purpose of follow-up activities (Borg and Gall, 1983: 424), due to the particular nature of this study, anonymity was called for. This reassured the respondents about potential intimidation which they might have felt they risked in disclosing the information. In addition, anonymity tended to produce more accurate responses.

As Best points out, "the anonymous instrument is most likely to produce objective responses" (Best, 1981: 178). Hence, all the participants in this study were asked to return the questionnaires anonymously, and they were assured (both verbally and in writing) that all the information gathered would be treated confidentially. Therefore, the anonymity of sites and persons is preserved in this study.

6.4.1.4. Piloting: improving the validity and reliability of the instruments

Due to potential problems involved in data collection instruments, researchers consider pilot study an important phase in the process of research. Borg and Gall view piloting as a preliminary trial of research measures and techniques in the development of a sound research plan: besides serving all the purposes of the usual try-out, it provides the researcher with additional knowledge that leads to improved research and can help to improve the validity and reliability of instruments (Borg and Gall, 1983: 100).

Seliger and Shohamy believe that two types of information are collected during the pilot study. "One relates to practical aspects of administering the data collection tool, such as the time required to administer the instrument, and the clarity of the instructions. The other relates to the reliability and validity of the instrument" (Seliger and Shohamy, 2004: 195). The information thus obtained gives the researcher the opportunity to find out whether the questions are yielding the kind of data required and, where necessary, to revise or to eliminate any questions which may be ambiguous or confusing to the informant.

The piloting for this study was carried out in 2014 at the same universities and submitted as RS4 to the Research Graduate school at University of Bedfordshire. For pilot study the data was as following,

The questionnaires were administered with 60 students, 12 ESP teachers, 18 subject specialists, 3 ESP course designers, 4 policy makers, 24 alumni and 10 parents. Along with the administration of the questionnaires, the researcher also conducted interviews with 1 ESP programme designer, 9 ESP teachers, 6 subject specialists, 1 policy maker, 4 alumni, 3 parents and 12 students. Due to the nature of this study, anonymity was called for as in line with Brog and Gall (1983) anonymity tends to produce more accurate results.

Through pilot study I got following results.

See Annex 1 (Final results of RS4)

6.4.1.5. Fieldwork Timetable

As already mentioned, the data required for this study were collected from 3 engineering universities in Punjab, Pakistan, located in different parts of the province and far distant from one another. Due to constraints of time, accessibility, and

complexity of data gathering instruments, it was practically impossible to gather the required data without the researcher's being based at each university exclusively. Therefore, the following timetable was made to optimize the use of available time and, as far as possible, to collect the most accurate data. The researcher also contacted and met a few Alumni, Parents and teachers on weekends to finish the research within the time limits.

Table 6.2 (Fieldwork Timetable)

University	Department	Research Inst.	Time (days)	Total Time (days)
X	Electrical Engineering	Q & Int & Group Discussion and Class Observation	10	40
	Mechanical Engineering	Q & Int & Group Discussion and Class Observation	10	
	Electronics Engineering	Q & Int & Group Discussion and Class Observation	10	
	Computer Engineering	Q & Int & Group Discussion and Class Observation	10	
Y	Electrical Engineering	Q & Int & Group Discussion and Class Observation	10	40
	Mechanical Engineering	Q & Int & Group Discussion and Class Observation	10	
	Electronics Engineering	Q & Int & Group Discussion and Class Observation	10	
	Computer	V	10	

6.4.2. Questionnaires

Questionnaires are relatively popular means of collecting data. They usually include questions or statements to which the subject is expected to respond anonymously. Like interviews, questionnaires require subjects to provide information in response to a stimulus provided by the researcher. Walker considers questionnaires as interview by proxy, and indicates that "the form is the same as it would be in a face-to-face interview, but in order to remove the interviewer the subject is presented with what, essentially, is structured transcript with the responses missing" (Walker, 2005: 228).

In second language acquisition research, questionnaires are used mostly to collect data on phenomena which are not easily observed, such as attitudes, motivation, and self-concepts (Seliger and Shohamy, 2004: 172). Nunan observes that the data collected through questionnaires, "are more amenable to quantification than discursive data such as free-form fieldnotes, participant observers' journals, and transcripts of oral language" (Hunan, 1992: 143). Seliger and Shohamy attribute several advantages to questionnaires:

- a) *They are self-administered and can be given to large groups of subjects at the same time. They are therefore less expensive to administer than other procedures such as interviews.*
- b) *When anonymity is assured, subjects tend to share information of a sensitive nature more easily.*
- c) *Since the same questionnaire is given to the all subjects, the data are more uniform and standard*
- d) *since they are usually given to all subjects of the research at exactly the same time, the data are more accurate.*

(Seliger and Shohamy, 2004: 172)

The construction of questionnaires that yield valid and reliable data is a complex task. On the wording of the questions, Nunan says, "a danger with any type of elicitation device is that the responses one gets will be artefacts of the elicitation devices

themselves. It is particularly important that the researchers not reveal their own attitudes through leading questions...

(Hunan, 1992: 143).

Richterich and Chancerel (2005) discuss the construction and design of questionnaires in relation to needs analysis and touch upon certain related problems. Alderson and Scott (1992) report a Brazilian programme evaluation and give examples of the questionnaires drawn up for the relevant informants and discuss design and piloting. Mackay (1981) describes the development of 'a pool of approximately 150 questions' which was 'selectively drawn upon' to produce a number of questionnaires. These sources, along with some others, mainly gave me the insight and provided me with guide-lines for constructing the questionnaires. In particular, the example questionnaires given by the Brazilian evaluation report (Alderson and Scott, 1992). Those questionnaires were adopted and adapted to suit the needs of this investigation.

Seliger and Shohamy attribute two major problems to the questionnaire: (i) the relative low response rates, especially with mailed questionnaires, which may influence the validity of the findings and (ii) its inappropriacy for subjects who cannot read and write, which is particularly relevant to research in second language, as subjects very often have problems reading and providing answers in the second language (Seliger and Shohamy, 2004: 172).

The questionnaires in this study, which had originally been developed in English, were all (except the ESP Teacher Questionnaire) translated into Urdu in order to ensure that the questions would be properly understood by the respondents and answered correctly. In addition, virtually all the questionnaires were administered by the researcher (i.e. the researcher visited each university and handed them out), which produced a comparatively reasonable return rate of about two thirds.

Depending on their degree of explicitness, questionnaires are identified as either structured or unstructured (Seliger and Shohamy, 1989: 2004). A structured questionnaire is one in which the range of possible responses is determined by the researcher and "may require the subject to mark responses, to check agreements or disagreements, or to select among a number of alternatives" (op. cit.: 172-3). An unstructured questionnaire is one in which the subject can decide what to say and how to say it, often in a descriptive manner (Nunan, 1992: 143).

Seliger and Shohamy consider structured questionnaires to be more efficient than unstructured ones. In addition, they can be more easily scored (Seliger and Shohamy, 1989: 173). However, as Nunan points out: "While responses to closed questions are easier to collate and analyse, one often obtains more useful information from open questions. It is also likely that responses to open questions will more accurately reflect what the respondent wants to say" (Nunan, 1992: 143).

Almost all the questionnaires developed for this study were of semi-structured type. Although, due to the nature of this type of questionnaire, the possible responses had been determined by the researcher, where appropriate, provision had been made for the respondents to indicate their own responses as well. Thus, the type of data yielded was mostly in the form of checks, numbers and rankings.

The design of the questionnaires was based on a number of scales. Each scale included a number of questions intended to elicit data on an aspect of the programme needing to be measured. In addition, each questionnaire included questions to obtain background information about the subjects.

In constructing or adapting the questionnaire items, care was taken to be clear about the objectives of the study so that each item would be directly referenced against one or more of the research objectives. Similarly, the analysis of the data to be gathered was thought through. Based on these considerations, the questionnaires were so designed to elicit information on each of the programme components, namely, Programme Objectives, Approach/Method, Classroom Management, Materials, Learning Outcomes, Impact on Outsiders, and Attitudes of all those who had affected/had been affected by the programme.

Three types of questionnaires were distributed:

- ESP Teacher Questionnaire: distributed to teachers in English departments
- Subject Specialist Questionnaire: distributed to teachers in subject departments
- Student Questionnaire: distributed to students of different disciplines in subject departments (i.e. Electrical Engineering, Mechanical Engineering, Electronics Engineering and Computer Engineering)

The questionnaires were designed to cover the following content areas for evaluation:

1. Attitudes and Motivation: to elicit the prevailing attitudes of the relevant informants toward learning and using English in an academic setting. This included both students and teachers of subject specialisms.
2. Approach/Method: to find out the methodology employed in ESP classes and to attempt to identify a set of principles which by common consensus could be called 'programme principles'.
3. Classroom Management: to identify what classroom management procedures were used and *how* they were perceived by the students and ESP teachers.

4. Materials: to find out the students' and ESP teachers' perceptions of the materials and *how* they reacted to them, particularly because they used ready-made materials.

5. Learning Outcomes: to find out students' achievement in the courses, in language or skill acquisition; the use to which English is put in their real life; academic and professional settings; and teachers' perception of the issue.

6. Impact on Outsiders: to find out the SSp teachers' perception of any change that might have taken place in the students as a consequence of the programme. Also, to find out how students viewed themselves in this respect.

6.4.3. Interviews

As a research technique in data collection, the interview has been defined as 'a two-person conversation initiated by the interviewer for the specific purpose of obtaining research-relevant information, and focused by him on content specified by research objectives of systematic description, prediction, or explanation' (Cornell and Kahn, 1968, cited by Cohen and Manion, 2002: 308-9). Guba and Lincoln consider the interview 'perhaps the oldest and certainly one of the most respected of tools that the inquirer can use' (Guba and Lincoln, 2005: 154).

Cohen and Manion (2002: 308-9) regard the interview as a research technique which may serve three purposes: as the principal means of gathering information having direct bearing on the research objectives; as a means of testing hypotheses, or suggesting new ones, or identifying variables and relationships; and as a supplementary means in conjunction with other methods in a research undertaking.

Interviewing has been categorised in a number of ways. Cohen and Manion distinguish four kinds of interview: the structured interview, the

unstructured interview, the non-directive interview; and the focused interview (Cohen and Manion, 2002: 309). Pedder and James distinguish between structured and unstructured interviews and consider them as "points on a continuum of types. At one end there are structured interviews with precisely worded questions and pre-specified responses (like a questionnaire); at the other end are unstructured, non-directive interviews with the respondents (interviewees) dictating the topics to be discussed... Between them lie variously described compromises: the focused interview; the semi-structured interview; and the informal, conversational interview

(Pedder and James, 2006: 225).

The interview, by its nature, involves the gathering of data through direct interaction between individuals. The individuals, being human beings, have their own perspectives and, as in any other social interaction, influence each other. Thus, "the outcome of an interview or series of interviews is dependent on the participants - the interviewers) and the interviewees) - and is a summary of their interaction" (Downey and Watts, 1987: 33). However, as Cohen and Manion point out, "although...the respective roles of the interviewer and interviewee may vary and the motives for taking part may differ, a common denominator is the transaction that takes place between seeking information on the part of one and supplying information on the part of the other.

(Cohen and Manion, 2002: 307).

Due to the sensitivity involved in carrying out interviews, and in order to arrange a successful interview which may "elicit rich and varied information on the topic of interest", although "there are no 'cookbook' techniques or sure-fire recipes" (Guba and Lincoln, 1981: 158), it is important to observe certain guide-lines so that the validity and reliability of the interview may be maximised.

Guba and Lincoln (2005: 172-4) give a detailed account of the stages through which an interview could be planned and set up. Included in the stages are: the identification of respondents; making personal contact; preparation for the interview, and executing the interview. Sanders and Fitzpatrick suggest the following guide-lines for planning and conducting interviews:

- (i) Keep the language pitched to the level of the respondent.
- (ii) Try to choose words that have the same meaning for everyone.
- (iii) Avoid long questions. They often become ambiguous and confusing.
- (iv) Do not assume that your respondent possesses factual or firsthand information.
- (v) Establish the frame of reference you have in mind.
- (vi) Either suggest all possible answers to a question or don't suggest any.
- (vii) Protect your respondent's ego.
- (viii) If you are after unpleasant orientations, give your respondent a chance to express his positive feelings first, so that he is not put in an unfavourable light.
- (ix) Decide whether you need a direct question, an indirect question, or a combination.

(Sanders and Fitzpatrick, 2004: 308-9)

Powney and Watts mention 11 task rules suggested by Brenner (1981) that "are aimed at reaching a consistent approach by an interviewer on each occasion and as far as possible, consistency between interviewers in structured situations" (Downey and Watts, 1987: 42), as follows:

- * Read the questions as they are worded in the questionnaire.
- * Ask every question that applies to the respondent.
- * Use prompt cards and other instruments when required
- * Only probe non-directively.
- * Make sure he/she has totally understood an answer and that it is enough .

[Do] not answer for the respondent.

[Do] not give directive information.

[Do] not seek or give unrelated information.

- * Repeat a question or other action when requested by the respondent.
- * When asked for clarification, give it non-directively.
- * Act non-directively to obtain an adequate answer where it is inadequate

The interviews conducted in this study were more of a semi-structured nature in the sense that the researcher asked a set of predetermined questions but for the most part tried to get the informants to say whatever they had to say about the programme in their own words. Before the interviews, at their request, they were given a list of the questions to be covered. However, this list served more as a guide. It was not followed in any particular order, and in many cases questions arose during the course of the interviews which were not part of the list. Therefore, for the most part, the interviewees spoke naturally and spontaneously about the programme, although they had no doubt given the issues some thought.

With the informants' permission, most of the interviews were audio-tape recorded, and the recordings were subsequently transcribed. Since few of the interviews had been conducted in Urdu or bilingually (Urdu and English), the transcripts were translated into

English, producing a body of qualitative data which constituted the raw material to be organised and analysed.

With students, the researcher took notes in interviews where he felt that audio-recording might have an intimidating effect on them. The students were representatives from each class to which the questionnaire had been administered. In fact, they were volunteers who were selected with the consent of the students and it was my impression that there was a reasonably good mix of personalities and student types. That is, they included both the 'leaders' and the 'followers', particularly in the discussion groups.

The qualitative data thus collected were 'reduced' through a series of steps to develop a thematic framework. Four sets of themes were derived from the original interview schedule each corresponding to one group of interviewees, i.e., the students, the ESP teachers, the SSp teachers, and the programme designers. Taking into account the extent and character of actual comments made in response to the original questions, the process, in effect, led in some cases to the sub-division, in others to the fusion, of the original schedule of topics.

From the inspection of samples of transcripts, a category system was developed in order to analyse comments in relation to each theme. Thus, all comments that were judged to relate to each theme were categorised accordingly, producing a set of tables which indicated both the number as well as the type of comments made for each theme. These tables provided the basis for writing a descriptive account of comments made along with some quantitative indications concerning the representativeness of the different comment types. These sections, which in some cases have been furnished with selections of direct quotations taken from translations of the actual transcripts, constitute the main part of the chapter 7 on 'Interview Data Analysis'.

The interviews conducted in this study covered four types of informants:

- Programme Designer Interviews: conducted with ex- and current members of the ESP Programme Designing Committee
- ESP Teacher Interviews: conducted with ESP teachers in English departments
- SSp Teacher Interviews: conducted with teachers in subject departments (Electrical, Mechanical, Electronics, Computer engineering's)
- Student Interviews: conducted with students of different disciplines in subject departments (Electrical, Mechanical, Electronics, Computer engineering's)

In addition, group discussions were conducted with students of different subject specialisms. Student interview questions were used to serve this purpose. The results of these discussions, after refinements, were eventually incorporated in the corpus of the student interview results.

Due to the students' reluctance to take part in the interview, their comments appeared to be mostly concise and less elaborative in nature. Therefore, the researcher had to complement them by asking follow-up questions. See appendix 4 for the original interview format.

The researcher has discussed the traditional and dictatorial education system of Pakistan in Chapter 2. In Pakistan, the classroom is mostly teacher-centered and controlled by the teacher. The students were reluctant to answer many questions in detail due to many reasons. Few students shared their following concerns with the researcher. The researcher assured them about the anonymity and confidentiality of the research results (discussed in detail in Research Methodology)

- The students were of the view; the researcher might disclose their answers to the university administration.
- The researcher might tell their grievances to other teachers (who seems to be his colleagues). And probably their teachers will not treat them in a right way afterwards.
- The students were also concerned that it might create a bad repo between them and their teachers that they are so open and criticising about their teaching methods and expertise regarding pedagogical skills.
- Few students were also concerned that if university administration would find their names due to this criticism, they might be expelled from the university.
- Some students felt peer pressure, if their peers knew their names about criticising the university, they might make them feel bad about this later.

6.4.4. Classroom Observations

Talking or lecturing in the classroom has long been the principal medium of instruction. It is considered to be a potent and natural means of learning. For others is an important way to grasp new ideas, understand concepts and to clarify one's own feelings and perceptions about something. Edwards and Westgate state: "It is largely through talk that we develop our concepts of self, as members of various social `worlds' which can be brought into focus and in which we can locate ourselves and recognize the values, rights and obligations which permeate them. As we listen and as we talk, we learn what it is necessary to know, do and say in that area of social life or that setting, and can display the competence necessary to be accepted as a member" (Edwards and Westgate, 2005: 15).

Within the last three decades, the vital role of talk in the classroom has been increasingly recognised. The work of Elven Desuza and his colleagues (2004), amongst

others, has been of central importance in raising the issue of the relationship between talking and learning. The importance accorded to the processes of learning and its value as evidence of how relationships and meanings are organised led classroom researchers to concentrate more on 'interactions' rather than the outcomes of teaching exclusively. As Edwards and Westgate indicate: "...the facts of greatest value for the study of education are those constituted in classroom interaction ... they are most readily displayed in classroom talk ..." (Edwards and Westgate, 2005: 55).

The educational status of talk, the increasingly wide currency of the term 'oracy', coined by Andrew Wilkinson, as "a condition of learning ... [and] a state of being in which the whole school operate" (Wilkinson, 2002: 58), along with an increasing concern regarding the help teachers would presumably get through an informed insight into the language of the classroom accorded talk a central place in the process of learning and was, hence, regarded as a rich source of data for classroom research. Bruner **observes** that the importance accorded to talk is owes much to the fact that "the process of learning how to negotiate communicatively is the very process by which one enters the culture" (Bruner, 1984, quoted in Edwards and Westgate, 200: 15). Similarly, Edwards and Westgate state: Since so much is constituted in and through it, its close inspection should reveal the very constituting processes themselves. In classrooms, that means making 'visible' the curriculum in both its 'manifest' and its 'hidden' forms. It should bring into view the declared agenda of lessons, together with those other meanings to be drawn from them about what it is like to enter given areas of human thought, how the apparent experts behave and use their knowledge, how it feels to be inducted into parts of 'their' knowledge, how pupils define and display their sense of their own capacities and personal worth in their struggle to assimilate school knowledge, or to reject it. (Edwards and Westgate, 2005: 15)

A focus on teacher-student interaction, as manifested in teacher talk and student talk, was thus considered to be an important element of the evaluation, and in particular, the classroom observation. Observations have always been known as a major data collection instrument in social and educational research. They in fact constitute one of a family of data-gathering procedures in which the researcher usually observes a number of behaviours taking place simultaneously, often without determining in advance the particular aspects that will be observed (Seliger and Shohamy, 2002: 162). However, more structured types of observations can also be used for collecting data in quantitative studies (Ibid.).

Observations are mainly used for the purpose of examining a phenomenon or a behaviour while it is in progress. Researchers have found them particularly effective in carrying out studies dealing with the teaching/learning process in educational settings.

In educational research, the value of direct observation has been recognised and there has been a growing interest in locating research in classrooms in order to observe the educational processes in their natural settings. Paul (2007: ix) considers this tendency as "one of the major developments in educational research and a movement away from a 'black box' model of classrooms, where research was concerned with inputs and outputs, to a 'glass box' model where the teaching process itself is the focus of study". However, there is not as much agreement about appropriate methodology for such observation, and the range of techniques employed in the collection and analysis of data has been quite diverse.

The main advantages of collecting data through observation, according to Seliger and Shohamy, are that "they allow the study of a phenomenon at close range with many of the contextual variables present, a feature which is very important in studying language behaviours" (Seliger and Shohamy, 2002: 162). Nevertheless, they caution that this advantage may become a

disadvantage when the closeness introduces biases which may affect the researcher's objectivity; in addition, the presence of the observer in the research situation may alter the behaviour of the subjects observed" (Ibid.).

The observation is commonly performed either by a participant observer, who assumes the role of a subject without the other participants necessarily being aware of the fact and becomes an integral part of the situation he observes, or by a non-participant observer who stands aloof from the situation and simply records in detail as an outsider all the behaviours which take place. From this point of view, observational research is broadly divided into two principal categories: participant observation and non-participant observation (Matthew and David, 2011: 125).

Observational research utilises different observation methods depending on the purpose for which the research is carried out. Hopkins categorises observation methods into four main groups: open observation, focused observation, structured observation, and systematic observation (Hopkins, 2003: 92). Seliger and Shohamy distinguish the types of observation according to their degree of explicitness. They believe that observation types range from low to high degrees of explicitness depending on how they have been structured.

Brayman, however, considers two approaches in observational research - systematic observation and ethnographic or qualitative observation. According to him:

Systematic observation... is the process whereby an observer or a group of observers devise (sic) a systematic set of rules for recording and classifying classroom events. Such a process is sometimes said to be an

objective approach to observation... The results of such observations are normally reported in numerical or quantitative terms as percentages or averages and may then form the basis for a variety of statistical analyses. The second approach is that associated with ethnographic or qualitative observational techniques in which the observer (often called a participant observer, although this term is sometimes used rather imprecisely) attempts to arrive at an understanding of the meaning of social relations and social processes in the classrooms for the subjects being observed and conveys this, typically, by means of field-notes and verbatim accounts of selected episodes rather than by quantitative analysis.

(Brayman, 2012: 11)

The appropriateness and methodological adequacy of the aforementioned approaches have been a matter of debate among the proponents of each. Advocates of systematic techniques suggest that qualitative approaches can be subjective and unreliable (Croll, 1986; McIntyre and McLeod, 1978), while ethnographic observers have argued that the claim to objectivity of the results of systematic observations are largely spurious and that, by concentrating on what can be classified and measured, such techniques miss out what is most important in classrooms (Hamilton and Delamont, 1974; Delamont and Hamilton, 1984 (Croll, 1986: 1-2).

Regarding the foregoing debate between the systematic and ethnographic approaches to observation, Croll's view seems to be a convincing compromise when he says:

Qualitative and quantitative techniques should not be regarded as mutually exclusive approaches but may be complementary. A period of qualitative observation can provide researchers with procedures, definitions and hypotheses for an investigation using systematic techniques. Alternatively (or additionally) the results from systematic observational research may provide a starting point for an ethnographic

investigation by showing statistical regularities in patterns of behaviour and interaction which need to be further investigated in terms of understandings the participants have of them (for example, Delamont, 1976).

(Croll, 1986: 8)

However, regardless of the approaches, since the principles involved in designing and conducting such research apply to a wide variety of specific projects, the specific purposes for which an observation is being conducted are crucially important in deciding on appropriate procedures and definitions. Hopkins (2003: 91-92) suggests some organising questions which illustrate the purpose of observation, as follows:

1. What is the purpose of the observation?
2. What is the *focus* of the observation?
3. What teacher/student behaviours are important to observe?
4. What data gathering methods will best serve the purpose?
5. How will the data be used?

In addition, Hopkins believes that "there are a number of skills associated with classroom which, if not acquired, can have disastrous results for the morale of individuals and the whole staff (Hopkins, 2003: 77). The major problem, according to him, is "moving to judgement too quickly" (Ibid.).

In the area of second language acquisition research, the importance of classroom observation has been well recognised Allwright and Bailey, borrowing Gaies's phrase, state:

The classroom is the crucible - the place where teachers and learners come together and language learning, we hope, happens. It happens, when it happens, as a result of the reactions among the elements that go into the crucible - the teachers and the learners.

(Allwright and Bailey, 1991: 18)

Hence, Allwright considers the classroom as "the first place to look if we really want to understand how to help our learners learn more effectively" (Allwright, 1983: 191-204); or, as Seliger and Shohamy indicate, to investigate "how learners use language in a variety of settings, to study language learning and teaching processes in the classroom, and to study teachers' and students' behaviors" (Seliger and Shohamy, 2002: 162). And Bailey considers classroom observation as "the most unbiased measure of teacher behavior and student performance available.(Bailu, 2008: 335).

The most common type of observation made for investigating the teaching/learning process is interaction analysis, which has a high degree of explicitness. This type of observation involves keeping a record of what goes on in the classrooms observed In this procedure, according to Seliger and Shohamy, "the researcher observes what takes place in the classroom with the aid of an instrument which standardizes both the observer's data collection procedure and the focus of the observation"(Seliger and Shohamy, 2002: 163).

A large number of instruments have so far been developed by different researchers for a variety of aspects of classroom research. Of course, classroom research is not unique to language teaching and did not even originate among language teaching researchers. In fact, it took language teaching some time to begin to catch up with the rest of the educational research world (Allwright, 1983).

Allwright believes that one probable reason why the language teaching profession came late to classroom-centred research was that

... just when teachers of other subjects were losing confidence in their methods, language teachers were enjoying a period of unprecedented confidence in theirs; audiolingualism was being used widely as a method that had been proven, in practice, by its success in military language training programs during World War II and, in theory, by its highly developed origins in linguistics and psychology. This confidence on method, per se, was hardly disturbed by Chomsky's challenge to behaviorism (Chomsky, 1959), since that challenge quickly found expression in the form of an alternative method (dubbed 'cognitive code' by Carroll [1966]) in which, despite Carroll's careful warnings, it seemed right to many to place just as much confidence

(Allwright, 1983: 191-2)

Numerous classroom observation systems have been developed by researchers. Simon and Boyer (1970) presents some 79 systems of classroom observation, and a similar anthology (Galton, 1979) lists over 40. Galton states that "Recent workers in the field have, however, extended the term 'interaction analysis' to include observation systems which cover non-verbal communication such as movement and gesture besides those which simply analyse aspects of pupil and teacher talk" (Galton, 1979: 109). However, he maintains that the essential characteristic of all these systems is that "they involve the presence of an observer in the classroom, the recording of events in a systematic manner as they happen and the coding of the interactions in such a way as to make possible a subsequent analysis of teacher and pupil behaviour" (Ibid.).

Since the observation tools had originally been borrowed from general educational research and, as Patton indicates, consisted of techniques that used observational schedules for the in-class categorisation of teacher behaviour (relatively little attention being paid to learner behaviour at that time, given the focus on teacher training), they had to be modified in order to be, in his words, "appropriate to the obvious complexities of language teaching, where language is

the medium as well as content, where more than one language may be used, and where, as in pronunciation practice, all the learners may need to have a chance to try to produce the same answer to exactly the same question" (Patton 2002: 197).

The classroom observation schedule designed for this study was in fact an adaptation of a schedule used for recording classroom activities in the 'Andhra Pradesh Primary Education Project' carried out by faculty at the Institute of Education, Sussex University (Cooper et al., 1996), and this had originally been developed for primary schools. The adaptation made it particularly appropriate for the foreign language field because it was concerned primarily with verbal behaviour.

It is assumed that the verbal behaviour of an individual, both in the native language and in the target language, provides a relevant sample of his total behaviour with reference to the foreign language instructional process. In this system of interaction analysis, as shown, the various patterns of observable verbal behaviour have been broken down into categories. The first major division is between talk by the teacher and talk by the students, labelled as 'Teacher Dimension' and 'Student Dimension'. Each of these divisions has been further classified on the basis of the type of talk, who is being talked to, and whether the talk involves the native or the foreign language. And finally, the type of pedagogic activity by both the teacher and the students is indicated. The system offers a categorisation of classroom behaviours which is intended to record and describe objectively a whole complex of student and teacher behaviours which occur in an ESP classroom. It operates by requiring the observer to enter a code for each activity at two-minute intervals. **Table 6.3** briefly describes the codes used in the classroom observation schedule.

Table 6.3 (adapted from Cooper, Lacey and Torrance 1996)

TEACHER BEHAVIOUR		
1. The first dimension is whether the teacher is talking, and to whom, or whether the teacher is Silent		
	Whole class	Tw
Teacher	Individual	Ti
Talking to	Individual but for the benefit of whole class	Tiw
	Group	Tg
	Group but for the benefit of whole class	Tgw
Teacher Silent		Ts
2. The second dimension concerns the detailed nature of teacher talk.		
No talking		0
Reprimanding (English/Urdu)		tr (E/U)
Giving information (English/Urdu)		tgi (E/U)
Encouraging correction (English/Urdu)		te (E/U)
Giving directions (English/Urdu)		td (E/U)
Directing pattern drills (English/Urdu)		tdp (E/U)
Praising (English/Urdu)		tp(E/U)
Asking question (English/Urdu)		taq (E/U)
3. The third dimension again concerns the nature of teacher behaviour. The suggested codes cover both pedagogic and non-pedagogic activities.		
No pedagogic activity		0
Observing		To
Doing own work (related to lesson)		Tow
Writing on blackboard		Tbb
Demonstrating or displaying work		Td
Reading from book		Tbk
Giving materials		Tgm
Student Behaviour		
1. The first dimension concerns the way in which the students are organised for learning.		
Organised and working as a class		Sc
Organised and working as a class but working individually		Sci
Organised and working in a group		Sg
Organised in groups but working individually		Sgi
Organised and working in pairs		Sp

Organised in groups but working as class	Sgc
Organised and working individually	Si
2. The second dimension concerns student talk.	
Silent	ss
Individual response (English/Urdu)	sir (E/U)
Choral response (English/Urdu)	. scr (E/U)
Questioning teacher (English/Urdu)	sq̄t (E/U)
Students chatter (English/Urdu)	sch (E/U)
3. The third dimension concerns student learning activity.	
Working with materials	swm
Recording own information	sri
Student reading out loud	sro
Repeating in chorus	src
Student observing	so
Student doing an exercise	sde
Student listening to the teacher	sl
No learning activity	0

6.4.5. Document Analysis

Documents are considered to be important sources of information. In educational research, the background information obtained through consulting existing relevant documents may provide the researcher with a clear picture of the evolution process through which the programme has gone. Such a study, which often involves analysing the programme's planning documents and the description of its operation, as well as reports written by programme designers, administrators, and other possible evaluators, familiarises the researcher with the nature of the programme, which is crucial to achieving an adequate overview of what is in educational research are written as printed sources (David, 2011).

Due to the inaccessibility of the documents required for this study, I could not avail myself of ample relevant documents concerning the planning phase of the programme.

However, the few sources obtained could provide a reasonable account of information regarding the objectives and the bases upon which the foundations of the present programme had been laid, as well as the process through which the programme has achieved its present status. In addition, the insight gained through the interviews conducted with the programme designers supplemented the information obtained from the aforementioned sources. The documents collected and analysed for this study were as follows:

- *An Introduction to the Curriculum Development Higher Education Commission 2000.*
- *University Curriculum: General Courses.* 2000. Punjab, Pakistan
- *English for Students of Engineering.* 1996. Punjab: Crystal book publications, Lahore, Punjab, Pakistan
- *English for Students of Sciences.* 1996. Khalid Book Depot, Lahore, Punjab, Pakistan
- *English for Students of Engineering.* 1996. Punjab: Khalid Book Depot, Lahore, Punjab, Pakistan
- *Reading through Reading: General English.* 2001. Majeed Book Depot, Sahiwal, Punjab, Pakistan

6.4.6. Fieldwork Execution

The fieldwork planned to be carried out for this study, was conducted between October 2014 and June 2015. This time covered a substantial part of the First semester of the Pakistani Engineering university academic year 2014-2015. It is believed that in this period, which constitutes the early part of the semester, worries about the examinations have not yet started and the students are in better position to indicate what they have learned in the ESP courses they have already passed, as well as being able to make judgements on certain aspects needed for this study.

To carry out the fieldwork, preparations needed to be made with respect to two considerations. Instrumental and procedural.

6.4.6.1. Instrument Preparation

In order to make the most efficient use of the time available for carrying out the fieldwork, it was vitally important that the data collection process be started right away. All the questionnaires, namely, student questionnaire, ESP teacher questionnaire, subject specialist questionnaire, Alumni discussion questionnaires, Engineering students parents discussions and the related structured interviews which had been originally developed in English were translated into Urdu as well. Of course, it was not necessary to translate the ESP teacher questionnaire into the native language; however, I deemed it useful to translate the ESP teacher interview as well because some ESP teachers might prefer the interview to be conducted in Urdu - and indeed they mostly did not! Having completed the translations, I had them typed, proof-read, and checked by a colleague for fluency in the native language lest ambiguities or misconceptions might be conveyed through the translation. 20 copies of the student questionnaire, five copies of the ESP teacher questionnaire, and five copies of the subject specialist questionnaires were distributed to relevant informants at the departments of English Languages, University A for piloting. After revising a couple of items in light of comments received from the respondents, the questionnaires were copied and stapled, including a cover letter assuring that the information obtained was to be used for the sole purpose of research. The research instruments having, thus, been prepared, the next step was to negotiate with relevant authorities in order to gain access to research sites.

6.4.6.2. Procedural Preparations

Permission to carry out this research was obtained through negotiating first with the Ministry of Higher Education of Punjab, Pakistan via its representative at the Student Section, The Embassy of the Islamic Republic of Pakistan, London. This was part of the procedure set by the above named ministry for those who intended to conduct research in universities. The next step was getting access to the universities concerned. This involved contacting appropriate officials at each university, which are explained in related sections below.

6.4.7. Questionnaire and Interview Data Collection

6.4.7.1. University X

Although I could not see the vice chancellor but I was informed by his PA that he has already spoken to the respective departments for my research, I set off for the faculties to gather the required data. Via the sub-dean of each faculty, I contacted the department heads and arranged to see the academic members in order to administer the questionnaires and conduct the interviews. Arrangements were also made with some teaching staff to administer student questionnaires to groups of their students who had passed the ESP courses. Meanwhile, I contacted some students and arranged for the interview. Some interviewees, however, were reluctant to have their voice recorded; therefore, I had to take notes of their responses. Data for interviews is presented in the next chapters.

6.4.7.2. University Y

The procedures employed in administering the questionnaires and conducting the interviews in University A were more or less followed at this faculty as well as the other faculties in this university, which yielded the data indicated in the next chapters.

6.4.8. Document Data Collection

Part of my fieldwork involved collecting documents related to the programme and interviewing with the ESP programme designers. For this purpose, while I was in Punjab, Pakistan, collecting data, I contacted the Ministry of Higher Education to locate the relevant sources of information I needed. I was first directed to a section where I found out that they had none of the documents I was after. I was referred to another office, which seemed to be the right place. The man in charge handed me a pamphlet entitled "An Introduction to the Programme Designing for Higher Education", and stated that it had been the only formal publication of that office in this regard. As I enquired about the documents indicating the process of the design and implementation of the programme, he replied that the programme had been designed years before and the related documents had been handed over to different offices; therefore, those I was after, if they ever existed, were not accessible, particularly because they had not been systematically filed either. However, he suggested that I consult the introductions of the English textbooks developed by that Council, which give a good account of the planning and implementation phases of the programme.

Despite the difficulty involved in locating the documents, owing to their apparent loss, I obtained some sources which provide a good account of the objectives and the bases on which the foundations of the present programme had been laid, as well as the process through which the programme has achieved its present status. The documents collected and analysed are listed in coming sections.

6.4.9. Classroom Observation Data Collection

As already mentioned, two universities were selected for this purpose. Significant for occupying three different positions in the higher education system of the country, they

could be regarded as three higher education establishments. Classroom observation was carried out at four faculties, namely, Electrical Engineering, Mechanical Engineering, Electronics Engineering, and Computer Engineering in each university. At each faculty, one class was observed for a period of seventy-five minutes. It must be pointed out that English, as a required course for all university students, is offered by the English Departments and is valued as three units (out of 142-147 unit requirement for the undergraduate level). Students attend for two 75-minute sessions per week, and enroll for 17-week terms. In each university classroom observation was carried out for five hours, which amounted to ten hours over both universities.

Since classes mostly consisted of mixed students of different disciplines in each faculty, selection was opportunist depending on the availability, accessibility, consent and willingness of the teacher for observation, although I had the teachers' permission too. However, it was deemed necessary to take two points into consideration. First, classes should consist of both sexes of students, and second, selection be made of a proportionate number of male/female teachers in each English Department. The reason for this consideration was that in almost all English Departments visited, the number of male English teachers was noticeably higher than that of the female English teachers. Besides, while visiting the faculties, the researcher noticed that the ratio of male/female students differed in different faculties. At the Faculty of Electrical Engineering, with a few exceptions, students were predominantly males. At the Faculty of Electronics Engineering, there seemed to be a more or less equal number of male and female students. At the Faculty of Mechanical, the number of male students was outstandingly higher than that of the female students. And at the Faculty of Computer Engineering, female students outnumbered male students. The selection having, thus, been made, the classes were located and arrangements were made with the related teachers to carry out the observations.

In almost all the observations made, I did my best to be in class in time, before the teacher's arrival. Trying not to be noticed by the students, as a newcomer, I got a seat at the far end of the classroom and remained seated, observing the arrangement of the seats, the position of the teacher, the blackboard, and the teaching artefacts available, if any, in the classroom until the teacher stepped in. Attempting not to catch sight of the teacher, I tried to avoid eye contact, lest impressions might be conveyed through unintentional facial expressions of a stranger - even more, an evaluator! - in the classroom.

Almost all the classrooms observed were large enough to accommodate many more students than were seated. Seats had been fixed to the floor in two sets of parallel rows. This meant that no or seating arrangement involving seat movement was possible. Each set of rows was usually occupied by the students of one sex. Thus, male students were seated on one side of the classroom and female students on the other. This was the custom which all the students observed. The teacher's desk had been fixed on a platform in the front and to one side of the classroom and a good sized white board was seen fixed to the wall. In some classes, of course, there were white boards instead. No other teaching artefacts were noticed in the classroom. Classrooms were all neat, clean, and well-lit, and students tried to be seated on time - - not the least reason being what seemed to me to be the authoritarian behaviour of the teacher.

As a novice observer in handling a set of pre-determined teaching behaviour categories on the observation schedule sheet, I spent one whole period absorbing the ESP class atmosphere and observing interaction patterns without writing them down. Keeping in mind the categories and the codes of the observation schedule and concentrating on the teacher and student behaviours allowed me to 'pilot' the categories to see if they lacked any significant behaviour occurring in the classroom. Based on this, a few alterations were made to the original schedule. In particular, one category (i.e., 'Teacher Asking Question'(taq)) was added to 'Teacher Dimension' and two categories

(i.e., 'Student Listen'(sl) and 'No Pedagogical Activity'(0)) were added to 'Student Dimension'. In addition, talk was distinguished as in either native or target language. Thus, all verbal behaviours were marked either 'E' for English or 'U' for Urdu.

The schedule having, thus, been revised, the relevant classes were observed and the interaction categories were recorded as they occurred during the teaching act. For every classroom observed in each faculty, a separate table was produced (appendix below) and, later, a master table was prepared for each university (appendix below). The results were, then, incorporated in one table to make the comparative study of the two universities possible (appendix below). Additional notes were also taken during the observation which are not included here. None of the teachers had written lesson plans. All the teachers' names have been changed to prevent identification. (Tables presented in next chapters)

6.5. SUMMARY

This chapter presented the methodology of the study in the context of its aims and issues relating to the selection and design of the research instruments. The design and implementation of the research were explained, and the approach and the methods adopted were discussed, highlighting their appropriateness in answering the questions addressed and their ability to produce useful information for illumination and decision-making. Using both qualitative and quantitative data in parallel, besides giving maximum design and analysis flexibility, contributes rich information and enhances understanding of the issues. Finally, the development of data collection instruments, sampling, piloting, and the execution of fieldwork were described, paying heed to triangulation as a means of maintaining the validity of results.

CHAPTER 7

INTERVIEW DATA ANALYSIS

7.1. Introduction

This chapter presents the results gathered from the analysis of the interviews conducted with the ESP teachers, students, the subject specialist teachers, Engineering Alumni, the program designers and Engineering students' parents. The data establishes a considerable source of evidence to triangulate with the questionnaire and the data obtained from observation. The data obtained here will also be used to make inferences about various educational issues such as students' needs, goals and objectives and instructional materials. The chapter presents the total views of majority. It also attempts to illustrate the range of views on important and key topics as well.

The chapter covers five different groups of participants. Part one talks about the results gathered from the interviews and discussions conducted with students. Part two discusses the interviews conducted with ESP teachers. Part three analyses the interviews conducted with subject specialist teachers. Part four presents the views of the programme designers as discussed in the interviews. Part five deals with the thoughts of Engineering Alumni and Engineering students parents. The last part is a summary of the findings and the conclusions made.

7.2. Student Interview Analysis

7.2.1. Theme 1: Students' Perception of Their Language Needs

The students were asked to describe *what* their needs were regarding the use of English. The majority of the students stated *that* they needed English in order to read and understand English texts in their disciplines. They perceived English as a means of getting access to the scientific sources in their subject specialism. Therefore, they considered familiarity with the technical terms in their disciplines to be of primary importance in providing them with the ability to comprehend the specialised texts they dealt with. As such they regarded reading comprehension as the most important skill they needed to develop. As one student pointed out,

"Reading comprehension is what we need to develop. In other words, we need English language in order to be able to understand the English texts in our own field of study"

(St Int.1.3).

Some students based their opinion on a general view of language and considered the feasibility of learning a foreign language as a means of communication and, in particular, English as an international language.

As One student pointed out:

"As a means of communication, we need to know English"

(St. Int 1.10).

A few students mentioned the importance of English as an essential means of success in pursuing studies abroad as well as inside the country. According to one such student:

It is necessary for us to know English as an international language. It is also necessary for continuing studies abroad even at the university, we see that those who are good at English are more successful at the entrance exam to graduate level.

(St. Int. 1.8)

A few other students expressed a broader view of language learning from the perspective of national development:

“The fact is that as a third world country we need to develop. Therefore, we should be able to use the developed countries' scientific sources. So I think learning English is a necessity for us”

(St. Int. 1.9)

Quite a few students mentioned the importance of translation as well.

Generally speaking, students tended to be aware of their needs regarding the use of English. They recognised the instrumental role of English as a vital means of getting access to scientific sources in order to acquire the knowledge they wanted. Similarly, they knew what language skill they needed to develop to achieve this end - i.e. reading comprehension. However, they couldn't help expressing their wish to develop speaking skill for oral communication, without which, it seemed, they felt very ignorant of the English language.

7.2.2. Theme 2: Students' View of Meeting Their Needs

In order to find out to what extent the ESP courses had been able to fulfil the students' needs in English language, they were asked to describe their achievement in English courses. Firstly, there was an overwhelming expression of dissatisfaction with the existing ESP courses. The majority stated that they achieved "very little", "not much", "nothing", and the like. They believed that the courses had been "of no use" to them One student even mentioned that,

"I think I have forgotten much of what I had learned before I entered the university"

(St. Int. 2.4).

Another student said,

"What I can remember from those courses is just a few words"

(St. Int. 2.5).

Students' lack of satisfaction with the ESP courses was attributed to different factors. Some students attributed it to the irrelevancy of the courses to their particular subject specialism:

"The words and expressions used in the textbooks were of no use to us"

(St. Int. 2.3)

Some others indicated the inefficiency of teaching techniques in developing the desired skills in the students:

"Our teachers emphasise grammar and the structure of the language rather than translation and speaking. I have been at this university for three years. I have never seen a teacher ask a student to say just a sentence in English, let alone a dialogue or a conversation. We even couldn't develop the skill of reading as we were supposed to".

(St. Int. 2.1)

Still others believed that the GE and the ESP courses were not much related to each other.

"I have seen many cases where the students took the ESP courses first and then the GE courses. It didn't make much difference"

(St. Int. 2.2).

However, there were some students who considered the general opinion toward the English courses responsible for the existing situation. They believed that the English

courses were not given due importance and, as a result, they were not taken seriously by any of the parties involved:

"I think it must be taken more seriously by the university. It is particularly necessary for our graduate studies"

(St. Int. 2.7).

Generally speaking, the overall impression of the majority of the students was that the English courses neither met their needs nor satisfied their interests. The courses, organised around the abstract study of grammar were, as they understood, inappropriate to their needs and they consequently felt bored and unmotivated. In other words, they favoured the communicative aspect of the English language more than its structure.

7.2.3. Theme 3: Students' Perception of the Objectives of the Course

In response to the question, "what do you think the objectives of these courses are?", the majority of the students stated, though in different words, that the objective was to train them so that they can read and understand English texts and sources in their own discipline. They mostly expressed their perception of the objectives of the ESP courses as follows:

"To develop the skill of reading in student".

(St. Int. 3.1)

"To prepare students with the ability to use English sources"

(St. Int. 3.2)

... to be able to use English sources.

(St. Int. 3.3)

to provide students with the skill to read foreign texts in their own fields.

(St. Int. 3.4)

... to train students so that they can use English texts and sources in their own major.

(St. Int. 3.5)

to be able to read scientific texts in our discipline.

(St. Int. 3.14)

Some students attributed a broader and more general objective to the ESP courses and believed that

"the objective is to give the students access to higher knowledge by using English sources, particularly scientific sources in English"

(St. Int. 3.6),

or

"...to heighten students' knowledge"

(St. Int. 3.9).

A few students considered the communicative aspect of language as the major objective of the courses and indicated that the ESP courses had been intended

"to enable the students to communicate in order to know other cultures and make our culture known to others"

(St. Int. 3.12).

However, there was one student who said, *"I don't know exactly"* (St. Int. 3.8); and another one who stated,

"for those who do not intend to continue their studies, it is simply a course to pass"

(St. Int. 3.7).

All in all, students had similar perception of the objectives of the ESP courses. The majority of them considered the development of the reading skill as the principle aim of the courses, as it presumably could provide them with the ability to read and understand the scientific texts and sources in their own discipline. Nevertheless, there were some who, seemingly unaware of the rationale behind the programme, expressed a global view of language learning and regarded it simply as a means of enhancing communication.

7.2.4. Theme 4: Teaching Method

Next the students were asked to talk about the teaching method and classroom management. The students interpreted and responded to the questions in this area in markedly similar ways. One student said

"What actually happens in the classroom is that the teacher explains certain points in the textbook or translates the given parts of the book, and the students sit passively and just listen to the teacher, and sometimes take notes".

(St. Int. 4.1)

Another student pointed out:

... "[the teacher] usually assigned a text to be studied and translated for the following period The next period he asked quite a few students, who were usually active in the classroom, to read and translate it The other students just listened and took notes"

(St. Int. 4.3)

The next student's description of teaching methodology was in fact *another* version of the two previous ones:

“First, the teacher taught the words by giving synonyms. Then, he read the passage. After that, he went over the previous passage, asking some students to read and translate it. Then, the exercises were done by the students, and the teacher gave grammatical explanation”

(St Int. 4.5)

The common teaching method practised in these classes, as perceived by the students, seems to have been more in line with the traditional way of language teaching. Instruction was mainly teacher centred and the teacher tended to *give* information rather than *elicit* it from the students. Students were rarely engaged in class activities except for a few called upon to do the exercises. All classroom activities seem to have been centred on accomplishing the tasks designed in the textbook. The teacher's role appears to have been more that of an active performer. And the student's that of passive listener.

7.2.5. Theme 5: Students' Perception of Course Accomplishments

The students were then asked to explain what the course had done well or badly, and whether they thought anything should be added to or omitted from the courses. Without referring to any specific points, one student stated his opinion regarding language learning in general as follows:

As far as I can understand, when a child starts learning his native language, no one explains to him the rules of pronunciation or structure of the language. He learns it quite spontaneously. Even when he grows up, if the grammar of the language is not explained, he cannot distinguish between different elements of a sentence in terms of their functions. Therefore, I think spending so much time and energy on teaching grammar

which makes language classes boring and dull is nonsense. Instead, more time should be devoted to developing the speaking skill, and grammar should be limited to only the essential points that help comprehension.

(St. Int. 5.1)

This view was in fact confirmed by the majority of the students although they expressed it in different words:

"I believe that even if grammar is taught for the purpose of learning the language, we have never had the chance of using it in communication"

(St. Int. 5.2).

Some students indicated that since there was no opportunity for them to use the language outside the classroom, teachers had better provide them with the chance of practising it in the classroom; otherwise, they would forget whatever grammar they learned

From what they have expressed, it is clear that the students' dissatisfaction with the courses is mainly centered on their lack of interest in grammar. Courses organised around the abstract study of grammar seem to them inappropriate and dull, which tends to make them bored and unmotivated the students wish for speaking skill. It seems that they feel more satisfied if they can express themselves in the target language:

"The teacher has not ever provided us with the opportunity to say even a single sentence in English,"

said one student (St. Int. 5.2).

7.2.6. Theme 6: Students' Opinions about the Materials

When the students were asked to state their opinion about the materials they used, the majority complained that the materials were not much related to their particular

discipline, although they indicated that some students benefited more from the materials in certain majors:

"Most are not related to our fields. Of course in some disciplines students can benefit from them, but this does not apply to all majors,"

said one student (St. Int. 6.3). Therefore, their general proposition was that ESP textbooks be designed particular to each discipline.

Some students believed that the materials are too grammar-centred. As one student pointed out,

"They [the materials] are all grammar centred. In order to attract the students and arouse their interest in language learning, they should be exposed to science fiction"

(St. Int. 6.2).

A minority of the students indicated that the lessons did not contain a balanced proportion of new words. Some lessons, they believed, included too many and some too few words, which affected the difficulty level of the lessons. Nevertheless, there were some students who believed that the passages selected for the textbooks were interesting.

7.2.7. Theme 7: Problems

After discussing different aspects of the programme, the students were asked to mention what problems they had while taking the ESP courses. Apparently, having stated everything in reply to the previous questions, they felt that they had nothing more to say. With this point in mind, one student jokingly said,

"as far as I can remember, in the English courses we had nothing but problems"

(St. Int. 7.3).

However, some other students indicated that reading comprehension had been their major problem, which, they thought, was due to their weakness in vocabulary. They nevertheless attributed the problem to the teaching of English at high school, where, they believed, too much emphasis is put on grammar at the expense of vocabulary and reading comprehension.

7.2.8. Theme 8: Use of English

In response to the question, "how useful is English for you in general or in getting a job in the future?", *the* majority replied *that* it was an important factor in employment. However, they believed that it depended on the kind of job one chose. A student said

*"All I know is if I know **and** speak English, my job is confirmed"*

(St.Int. 8.4)

Companies run by the private sector, they said, usually employed those who had a good command of the English language. In general, students considered knowledge of the English language a determining factor in employment. In addition, they recognized its necessity for different aspects of life and gave it a global importance.

7.2.9. Theme 9: Suggestions

The suggestion made most by the students was a demand for an increase in the amount of instruction:

"Hours of instruction are not at all enough. They must be increased It is not enough to have an English course for just one tens," said one student (St. Int. 9.20).

Students mainly complained about the recent decision made by the authorities to decrease English courses. Formerly, students took two English courses, with each counting as two units, but in the new programme they had to take only one English course counting as three units. This, they stated, was not at all enough for them.

What most of them suggested in this regard was that our general courses be decreased and English courses be increased instead. One student stated:

"In general, decreasing the English units [courses] was not a good decision made by the authorities. They could easily decrease other general courses which are not of much use to us, and increase the English courses which we need most"

(St. Int. 9.12)

The amount of increase in language instruction proposed by the students varied from 8 hours per week for one term to the inclusion of English as part of each major course. One student said,

"I want the authorities to take this problem seriously. At least provide the students with language laboratories and increase the number of teaching hours to 8 per week" (St. Int. 9.4). Another one said, "I think it must be increased to at least 4 courses"

(St. Int. 9.10)

Still another one said,

English is in fact part of our discipline. It is not a separate subject"

(St. Int 9.13);

therefore, the suggestion, according to another student was that

"English be included as part of each major course. As such, one hour of each major course should be devoted to teaching the terms, expressions, and essential English points necessary for understanding the English texts"

(St. Int. 9.11).

The next suggestion made by the students was related to their demand for educational gadgets and **o n** English courses.

"Audio-visual aids should be used"

(St. Int. 9.8)

"[Language] laboratories should be provided"

(St. Int. 8.15),

"There should be computer labs where we can learn English"

(St Int. 9.16)

were some of the suggestions made in this regard.

Some students demanded homogeneity in the students' knowledge of English in a class as well as the adjustment of the courses to the level of the students.

"Students of a class arc not of the same level,"

said one student (St Int 9.17). Another one said,

"I suggest that the level of the courses be adjusted to the knowledge of the students"

(St Int. 9.5).

Some students gave primary importance to the teachers and demanded that they take a more active role in the development of the students. They nevertheless put part of the blame on other students and believed that

"they [students] do not take it seriously"

(St Int 9.9).

Therefore, they suggested that teachers take the courses more seriously,

"make the most use of the teaching time"

(St Int 9.6)

, and, at the same time,

"... be more serious with the students"

(St Int 9.9),

because as one of them said,

"we students are accustomed to being pushed by the teacher. That is what the system of education has always been like"

(St Int 9.6).

With regard to the appropriate time for offering the English courses, a few suggested that the courses be offered prior to the major courses.

"One reasoned that when both type of courses are offered simultaneously, students tend to be more occupied with the major courses and, as a result, they do not take the English courses seriously"

(St Int 9.7).

However, this proposition is in contrast with the idea of the majority of the students who believed that English courses should be offered continuously throughout the period and, as some students suggested, be regarded as an integrated component of each discipline.

Other suggestions made by the students were related to classroom management and teachers' way of dealing with classroom activities. Some students believed that teachers' general view regarding language teaching should change, and they ought to assume new approaches for developing reading skills in the students. In the approach they suggested, there was no place for grammar and grammatical terms. Instead, there was more concentration on oral presentation of the material, and the teacher tended to correct student errors less frequently lest the students might be discouraged.

All these suggestions indicate that the students dislike the abstract study of grammar and express a wish for the development of speaking skills although they do not undermine the importance of Reading as an essential skill they need for success in their studies.

In addition, there were some students who emphasized the importance of translation and demanded *that* more work be done in *this* part; and many more who believed *that* textbooks should be devised particular to each discipline.

7.3. ESP Teacher Interview Analysis

7.3.1. Theme 1: Training in ESP

The teachers were all asked *to* explain how they became ESP teachers and whether they had any training for this purpose. The majority of them said that they had

experience in teaching General English (GE) and could adapt themselves to undertake teaching the ESP courses. One teacher said:

"I have had no training to teach the ESP courses but because of the need ... as they [the GE teachers] have the knowledge in this field they can ... adjust themselves to the ESP programme"

(ESPT. Int. 1.1)

Another teacher said:

"Anybody else has had training, because no training has been offered for this purpose. Everybody uses his own way of teaching based on his experience. And there is the textbook, which determines what is to be taught and, to some extent, how"

(ESPT. Int. 1.2)

And the next teacher said:

"No, I am afraid not. But the experience I had in teaching GE courses coupled with the advice from other experienced teachers through seasonal meetings helped me develop some insight into teaching the ESP courses"

(ESPT. Int. 1.10)

However, some of them mentioned that they had had some courses dealing with ESP in their graduate studies:

"... I haven't had any training in teaching the ESP courses except the courses I have had in my graduate studies"

(ESPT. Int. 13).

Due to the lack of training, as they mentioned, every teacher followed his own way of teaching. One teacher said.

"Mostly, the ESP teachers, as far as I know, inherit teaching methods from their own teachers"

(ESPT. Int. 1.12)

Another teacher said_

"Everybody uses his own way of teaching based on his experience"

(ESPT. Int. 1.2)

Another said:

"... gradually one develops, so to speak, one's own method"

(ESPT. Int. 1.5).

The majority of the teachers believed that training was necessary for the teachers who intended to undertake teaching the ESP courses and that in-service training should be provided for the teachers who were involved in the programme.

"I believe that it is definitely necessary for novice teachers to be trained, and it would obviously be helpful for us too"

(ESPT. Int. 1.10)

Another teacher said:

"We do need training for ESP, to put ESP teachers under training even before they start teaching ESP. If not, since they have been involved, at least in-service training is necessary for [them]"

(ESPT. Int. 1.1).

Nevertheless, there were a few teachers who believed that ESP teachers did not need to be specially trained for this purpose. They were of the opinion that a general

knowledge of teaching or an experience in teaching GE courses would be sufficient for teaching the ESP courses. One of them stated:

... I haven't had any training in teaching the ESP courses except the courses I have had in my graduate studies. And I think it is not necessary for teachers to be particularly trained for this purpose, because the aim is to acquaint the students with reading strategies in order to develop their reading skills. This can be easily accomplished by teachers who are familiar with them, or at least have passed some courses in this area throughout their studies.

(ESPT. Int. 1.3)

7.3.2. Theme 2: Teachers' Perception of Students' Needs

Teachers were asked to explain what they perceived the needs of the students were with regard to the English language. The majority of them believed that the students needed to develop the ability to read and understand the English sources in their own field. They reasoned that most of the sources, in particular the scientific sources the students used, were in English. Therefore, the major skill they were most in need of was reading comprehension.

A few teachers believed that students' language needs depended on how they make use of the language. Therefore, due to the lack of data regarding students' needs assessment; they indicated that it was not possible to specify their needs. As one teacher pointed out:

..., our students have different language needs depending on the use that is going to be made. Therefore, I'm afraid I can't mention one language skill most needed by all students.

(ESPT. Int. 2.8)

A few others made a distinction between what the students needed to learn and what they wanted to learn. They said as one of them put it

, if their need as far as their courses are concerned is of interest to you, then, I think, as I said, English is a great help. It is the language of many books. But most of the students are interested in learning English because they not only want to read books but they want to be able to communicate with other people not only because of their courses but because of their own interests.

(ESPT. Int. 2.6)

Besides reading comprehension, some teachers indicated that the students needed translation as well. And quite a few mentioned other skills such as writing and understanding too.

7.3.3. Theme 3: Objectives

With regard to the objectives of the ESP courses, the teachers almost unanimously believed that the objective was to develop in the students the ability to read and understand English texts in their own discipline. One teacher said,

"the objective , is to give the students some basic information to enable them to read their textbooks in English"

(ESPT. Int. 3.2)

Another teacher said,

"the purpose of teaching English in the universities is to make the students familiar with the English texts concerning their major"

(ESPT. Int. 3.4).

A minority of teachers considered the objective of the ESP courses being both the development of reading skills and translation.

"The main objective is to enable the students to use scientific sources in their own fields, and somehow translate them into the native language"

(ESPT. Int. 3 11).

The fact that the ESP teachers perceived reading comprehension and, to some extent, translation as the objectives of the ESP courses was justified on the ground that in most scientific areas there were simply not enough Urdu sources available and the students had to rely on English sources. One teacher pointed out:

As you know most of our books, or rather, of our international books, are written in English and they should be able to read these books in the original. So, to have access to the original books, the original language is, I think, of very great importance to the students.

(ESPT. Int 3.6)

Another teacher stated

English in their respective fields. So, they do need to be able to read the material in English.

(ESPT. Int. 3.9)

And the next one said:

The reason is that in most scientific areas enough Urdu sources are not available and students have to rely on the English sources.

(ESPT. Int. 3.13)

7.3.4. Theme 4: Classroom Procedures

When the teachers were asked to explain what classroom procedures they identified with the ESP teaching, they expressed their perceptions in different ways. Some teachers described the step-by-step activities they performed in the classroom:

- a. I read a paragraph first*
- b. I ask them to read the paragraph, and I correct their mistakes.*
- c. I read the paragraph again.*
- d I explain it in Urdu*
- e. I explain it in English.*
- f. I ask them if they have understood.*
- g. Then we do the exercises: I ask them to read an exercise and give the answers. After that, I ask them to translate it into Urdu. Meanwhile, I ask them some questions to make sure that they have understood and not copied the answer - it is a checking and rechecking all the time.*

(ESPT. Int. 4.2)

Another teacher said:

I usually read the new words first while explaining the meaning, pronunciation, and pronunciation keys to the students. Then I start the passage. I do it paragraph by paragraph. I assume that they have read the passage at home. I read the paragraph once. Then, I go over it sentence by sentence. I ask a student to read it again and paraphrase it. If he can't do it in English I'll ask him to do in Urdu. If he couldn't, I would do it myself. I use synonyms. I paraphrase the sentence in English. In case the sentence is complicated I do it in Urdu too. I go over the sentences phrase by phrase, explaining pronoun references, functions of the phrases and the sentences, parts of speech of the words, non-restrictive

clauses, and other contextual clues and parenthetical information, the function of connectives and the way they determine the meaning of the sentences, and how they can help us get meaning from the context. Also, I work on the main idea, the organisation of paragraphs, and the way a general statement is exemplified by other sentences; how they are connected to each other, and in fact, the unity of the paragraph is illustrated in this way.

(ESPT. Int. 4.4)

The type of information given to the students by the above teachers appear to be different. The explanation provided by the first teacher stems to be more content-oriented and deals with the meaning of the passage. The teacher tries to make sure that the students understand what they are reading. However, the second teacher seems to provide the students with more structure-based type of information dealing with the forms and functions of language constituents. He accomplishes it through the analysis of the structure of the sentences.

In tackling the question of classroom procedures, some teachers simply indicated their general perception of teaching and stated more theoretically oriented views of language teaching:

... I think ESP courses are exactly like all other courses if one is going to teach one. First, we should identify the students, their needs, their background, and even their motivations. Having these different things in mind, different procedures may follow... But what is done as a routine in the university is that... we try to adopt a method which will develop the reading skill as much as possible.

(ESPT. Int. 4.7)

In expressing their views regarding classroom procedures in an ESP setting, some teachers compared the ESP methodology with that of the GE and identified no particular procedural difference between the two:

A typical ESP class is not really very much different from an ordinary English language class, in the sense that you can apply the same procedures, the same techniques and methods. Only it is the needs of the students which is in perspective in the ESP class which makes it different.

(ESPT. Int. 4.9)

And another teacher said:

No particular procedures are identified with the ESP teaching. What in fact distinguishes the ESP teaching from the GE teaching is that an ESP teacher has his students' needs in mind while applying the same techniques and procedures used in a GE class.

(ESPT. Int. 4.11)

Despite the ideas developed by the teachers regarding classroom procedures, the common teaching procedures practised in the classroom seemed to have been based on the recommendations given in the coursebook. Teachers tended to follow textbook instructions and concerned themselves mainly with covering the syllabus. As one teacher put it

I don't use any particular procedures in teaching the ESP courses simply because there is not enough time to do so. We are supposed to cover the syllabus, which includes part of the textbook. It would be beneficial to the students if they could be asked to do some outside reading so that class discussions could be organised. But, in that case we wouldn't be able to cover the material. Another problem is with the number of the

students in each class. You cannot maintain a good teaching quality with about fifty students in the classroom.

(ESPT. Int. 4.14)

7.3.5. Theme 5: Opinion about the Material

Almost all the teachers were asked to comment on the materials they used. Since all the teachers used textbooks specially designed for the ESP courses, their comments could be directly associated with particular textbooks. The majority of the teachers believed that the materials were not effective and that they needed to be either changed for better ones or completely revised. One teacher said,

"I myself do not believe that the books we use are suitable for the students, because I have noticed myself during these eleven years that the students do not look to be interested in the books at all"

(ESPT. Int. 5.6)

Another teacher said,

"I personally believe that the materials that have been massively produced for the programme are not appropriate enough to meet the needs of the students. They need to be revised completely"

(ESPT. Int. 5.7)

However, a minority of the teachers indicated that the materials they used were

"some appropriate and some not"

(ESPT. Int. 5.8)

And some talked in favour of the materials, indicating that

"textbooks have been properly designed [and] passages have been well selected"

(ESPT. Int. 5.11).

Although the majority of the teachers made it clear that they considered the materials to be *broadly* inappropriate, many *did* not elaborate on this. When they were asked to provide specific examples of good/bad materials, the answer, as one put it, was,

"I can't say exactly what type of material. I think we should go to the needs of the students"

(ESPT. Int. 5.1)

However, there were a number of teachers who had some explicit criticisms to make.

Many teachers criticised the materials for lack of relevance to the students' discipline. There was very widespread agreement that the language material taught should be relevant to the students' perceived needs. Their ideas relating to material selection were obviously derived from their understanding of the ESP syllabus. They interpreted this to mean that the textbook should include materials pertinent to the students' field of study. One teacher said:

The relationship between what they study and what they need to study does not seem to be a good one. For example, in my class, you just observed, you noticed that the lesson studied did not have anything in common as far as the expressions, the terms, and the jargon of the courses are concerned So, I don't believe that the suitability of the materials to needs is right.

(ESPT. Int. 5.6)

Another teacher said:

They [textbooks] have to be revised.. For instance, I teach this book to the students of Economics. It doesn't say much about Economics. It is more about Management.

(ESPT. Int. 5.2)

Students' notion of materials relevance seems to have affected their sense of interest in and receptivity to what they study. One teacher indicated:

Yesterday I was teaching a book we were supposed to teach. It was English for Students of Sciences. One of the students told me that the text I was going to teach was on Chemistry. He meant that they were not supposed to read such texts, which to him were not relevant. [He was a Physics student].

(ESPT. Int. 5.5)

Some teachers viewed the materials as a problem of how students of different disciplines could benefit from them as they were covered throughout the term. One teacher said:

English for Students of Social Sciences, Books I & II have been designed for the students of four different majors. In book I, the first twelve lessons have been devised for students of Social Sciences. The second twelve have been devised for students of Education. The whole book has been organised from easy to difficult; therefore, the second half is more difficult than the first. WE Because of the shortage of time, we cannot cover more than half of the book. So, practically, students of Education cannot benefit from the materials related to their own field

(ESPT. Int. 5.3)

Second in frequency regarding material, teachers mentioned the inappropriateness of materials to the level of the students. Some materials were mentioned as above and some as below the language level of the students. According to one teacher.

Most are not appropriate to the level of the students. This is particularly true with the materials designed for the students of Humanities. But in the

case of Engineering, the materials are below the English knowledge of the students.

(ESPT. Int. 5.7)

Another teacher mentioned *Reading through Reading* as a difficult textbook for the students, which was also regarded to be too much for one term, and of which, according to many teachers, not more than one third could be covered.

A small number of teachers indicated that the textbooks contained many mistakes, and that the exercises were not well developed. However, they were not prepared to give specific examples to the comments they made in this regard

In addition, a few teachers mentioned that in many cases they came across some passages in the textbooks that had been translated into English although the original texts had already been available in good English.

Generally speaking, the responses indicate that the ESP teachers are not much satisfied with the materials they use. *They* believe that the textbooks have been hurriedly compiled and, therefore, are not well-developed - so contain mistakes, too much material in one book, problems of authenticity, etc. Many of the passages, they indicate, are either irrelevant to the students' discipline or have been organised in such a way that the relevant students cannot benefit due to time constraints. In addition, many teachers are of the opinion that the materials are not appropriate to the level of the students. They are either above or below the language level of the students. Therefore, what the majority of the teachers suggest in this respect is that the current textbooks be completely revised and new textbooks be devised for each discipline.

However, some stated that the passages have been well selected and the textbooks have been properly designed. The only deficiency with them, they indicate, is that the questions (exercises) do not work well. The reason, they believe, is that the students already have the answers and, consequently, do not feel obliged to work properly. What teachers suggest in this regard is that they be allowed to make their own questions based on the passages they study.

7.3.6. Theme 6: Improvements

There was a widespread agreement among the ESP teachers that the current programme needed improvement. One teacher said.

... the problem to me is so serious that almost all aspects should be revised and improved

(ESPT. Int. 6.4)

Another teacher said:

..., what has been recently done regarding the incorporation of the GE and the ESP courses is not at all good. Three hours of instruction is just nothing.

(ESPT. Int. 6.10)

The next teacher said:

... the ESP textbooks are not quite appropriate. There are lots of problems with them. There are some problems on grammatical mistakes.

(ESPT. Int. 6.4)

And the next one said:

... in-service training is essential to update teachers' knowledge of English.

And the next:

Why not change the students! I really mean it.

(ESPT. Int. 6.9)

(ESPT. Int. 6.5)

Thus, the suggestions made by the teachers in relation to the improvements they expected to take place in the programme covered different areas. The majority of the teachers complained about the small amount of time devoted to the English courses. They believed that a three hour instruction per week was just nothing and insisted that the hours of instruction be increased. One teacher said,

"... before,... we used to have six hours' English teaching per week. Then, it came down to four hours. Now, it has come down to three hours. It is just nothing"

(ESPT. Int. 6.2)

Another teacher said.

"First and most important is that more time should be devoted to these courses"

(ESPT. Int. 6.3)

Nevertheless, there was a teacher who believed that

"the hours of instruction do not make much difference. It is the quality of teaching that guarantees learning and develops the students"

(ESPT. Int. 6.11).

The ESP teachers believed that there were several problems related to the instructional materials. Chief among them was the irrelevance of some passages to the students' specialism. In addition, the textbooks seemed to some teachers to be dull and

unattractive. The reason, they believed, was that they did not include any pictures, tables, or charts.

Some teachers criticised the organisation of the lessons and their out-datedness, and indicated that students of all disciplines cannot equally benefit from them. Therefore, they suggested that current textbooks be revised and new textbooks be devised for each discipline. One teacher said:

"If any modifications should be done it should first be done with the materials"

(ESPT. Int. 6.7)

Another teacher stated:

"Lack of variety in most materials has made them rather unattractive and dull to the students. As well as this, they are mostly out-dated"

(ESPT. Int. 6.6)

And another teacher said:

"... new and up-to-date passages can arouse the interest of the students. There is not even one picture in these books"

(ESPT. Int. 6.3)

The reason seemed to a teacher to be

"partly due to the fact that textbook designers didn't have access to more up-to-date sources, and partly due to the fact that they lacked the technical knowledge of the subject matter"

(ESPT. Int. 6.6).

The next suggestion made by most teachers was that the ESP teachers should be provided with in-service training in order to update their knowledge of English as well as get them acquainted with the latest views and techniques in language teaching. One teacher said:

"In-service training is essential for the ESP teachers"

(ESPT. Int. 6.10)

Another teacher elaborated more on this point and said:

Teachers are not well trained or interested. And there are many reasons why this is the case. The teachers are overloaded fast of all; so, it doesn't matter whether they are dealing with ESP or GE. I think they are not using any energy in their classes. They are not really preparing themselves for their classes. So, it is not specific to ESP. But I think they do not have the proper training. Theoretically speaking, they do not know what ESP is; so, they are not able to function well in their classes.

(ESPT. Int. 6.8)

The next point mentioned by some teachers was in relation to the students. There was a widespread agreement among the teachers *that the* students who entered the university were generally weak in English. This problem was mainly linked with the lack of proper language teaching at high school. One teacher, while commenting on the materials, indirectly indicated:

I think if we were concerned with a sort of standard student, those with a standard level of knowledge, with a moderate level of motivation and ability, I think these books might do..., But, it seems that nothing is in its own place.

(ESPT. Int. 6.5)

Another teacher said:

... they [students) complain that they are very weak. They believe that they haven't learned anything at high school.

(ESPT. Int. 6.2)

What they suggested in this regard was that English courses be taken more seriously at high school so that the university entrants may be of more or less a standard in knowledge of English. Another suggestion in this respect was that in the ESP course students be categorised not only in terms of their discipline but also in terms of the level of their knowledge of English. In addition, the teachers overwhelmingly insisted that the number of students in each class be lowered to a manageable level

There was also much insistence on the provision and use of teaching aids. English departments, it seemed, did not use language laboratories, films, or devices for teaching ESP courses. Teachers believed that sticking to the textbook was not enough to develop language proficiency in students, and suggested that teaching aids and in particular language laboratories be provided so that the students might be put more in contact with English, which would to a large extent increase the chance of learning.

7.4. Subject Specialist Teacher Interview Analysis

7.4.1. Theme 1: Importance of English in Academic Performance

The SSp teachers were all asked to indicate to what extent they considered a knowledge of English important for academic performance. Virtually all teachers stated that English was vitally important for success in their discipline. According to a teacher.

community of sciences is English. Every member of this community should know English in order to carry out his affairs.

(SSpT. Int. 1.12)

Another teacher said:

It is very important for our students to learn English particularly because in some disciplines in this faculty we do not have any sources in Urdu.

(SSpT. Int. 1.10)

And the next teacher said:

Since more than 90 % of the sources we use are in English, it is very important for our students to know English

(SSpT. Int. 1.5)

English, as they perceived it, had instrumental value for them, without which they could not get access to the sources of knowledge they required. Therefore, knowledge of the English language was of primary importance for their students and, as one put it:

"the more proficient they [students] are in English, the more successful they are in their own field of study"

(SSpT. Int. 1.6).

7.4.2. Theme 2: Students' Language Needs

The SSp teachers were asked to explain at they thought the needs of their students were with regard to ESP. The majority of the teachers believed that the students primarily needed the ability to read and understand the English sources in their area of specialism.

However, besides reading comprehension, which was considered to be the most important skill the students needed to develop, other language skills were also mentioned by many teachers which were assumed to be required mainly at the graduate level:

At the university, our students mostly need to read and understand scientific sources. However, it sometimes happens that some students, specially at the graduate level, have to take part in international seminars and present their papers as well as understand lectures delivered by others. It is essential that they acquire other skills.

(SSpT. Int. 2.12)

Translation was also mentioned by a number of teachers but it was regarded more like an asset to comprehension than a separate skill on its own:

... we believe that reading and understanding English is different from translating it into Urdu. We simply need to translate it, no matter whether we can translate it accurately into Urdu or not

(SSpT. Int. 1.2)

When they were asked to explain what it was important for the ESP courses to include, the majority made it clear that the ESP courses should provide the students with a knowledge of the general terms and expressions in their area of specialism because, as they said, this would give the students the basic ability to comprehend specialized texts as they advanced in their area of specialism. However, some teachers insisted that students be exposed to *modern* scientific writing because, they believed, scientific writing was the language of modern times.

Therefore, the texts that are used for this purpose must be current English,

(SSpT. Int. 2.9).

7.4.3. Theme 3: Course Effectiveness

The teachers were asked to indicate how effective the current ESP courses were and to what extent they have met the needs of the students. The majority of the teachers did not appear to be very satisfied in this regard. Most thought it was not effective.

A minority of teachers believed that the programme was satisfactory and considered it to be moderately useful. However, they doubted that it would meet the Heads of the students. One teacher said:

Although students have not achieved the goals, the programme is doing satisfactorily.

Another teacher pointed out:

In general it is useful, but for the special purpose that the students need it is not effective.

(SSpT. Int. 3.24)

(SSpT. Int. 3.23)

Nevertheless, there were a few teachers who believed that the programme was adequate for the undergraduate level but insisted that it did not suffice for students pursuing studies beyond that (SSpT. Int. 3.2). One teacher indicated

Honestly speaking, I haven't yet found out whether students who are good at English have learned it in the ESP classes or from other sources.

(SSpT. Int. 3.20)

The majority of the teachers believed that the inefficiency of the programme was mainly due to the fact that it was not taken seriously. They particularly mentioned that the amount of time devoted to these courses was not enough. One teacher said

Students need to spend more time on learning English... Recently they have decreased the English teaching hours to 3 per week, which I think is not a sensible decision.

(SSpT. Int. 3.16)

Many teachers attributed the problem to the background of the students. They blamed the high school for not taking English seriously and, therefore, not training the students well. As a result, when they entered the university they were very weak in English:

The problem, I think, is with the English programme at the secondary level. Entrants to the university are mostly weak in English; therefore, the present programme at the university cannot be of much help to them. They themselves know that their background is not good.

(SSpT. Int. 3.22)

A minority of teachers blamed the teaching method:

I think the reason is that they [ESP teachers] are experts in their own field but are unaware of the other side. It is true that they know how to teach certain rules of grammar, but rules are all abstractions of language... Reading passages have nothing to do with abstract rules. Therefore, they must be complemented with content that experts in the related fields specify.

(SSp. Int. 3.9)

Another teacher said:

It seems to me that students are not trained so well to use the language. They are prepared just for the exam. There is no attempt to make the English language part of their thinking process.

(SSpT. Int. 3.16)

The next teacher said:

The reason, I think, is that since the students are familiar with the testing method, they pass the exam with not much effort, without actually being trained in the way they are supposed to be.

(SSpT. Int. 3.23)

7. 4. 4 Theme 4: Teachers' Use of English Texts

In order to find out how confident the SSp teachers were about the students' knowledge of the English language, they were asked to state if they ever refrained from recommending English texts to the students because of the difficulties they might have *in* understanding. The majority of the teachers stated that they did have such considerations due to the students' weakness in English. One teacher said:

Yes. Because I am sure that it takes them a long time to read and understand one single page of an English text.

(SSpT. Int. 4.9)

Another teacher said:

Yes. In some cases I avoid assigning them books and references in English simply because they can't understand them.

(SSpT. Int. 4.6)

However, a minority of teachers indicated that students' weakness in English was not regarded as a justifiable excuse for not assigning English texts to them. One teacher said:

Even though I know that they have problems understanding English texts, I have to assign them what they need to study in English I have no other choice. I can't find similar sources in Urdu

(SSpT. Int. 4.4)

To alleviate this problem some teachers seemed to make a compromise regarding assigning English texts to the students. They would go over the text together with the students and explain the relevant points to them in the classroom. However, They believed that it took much of their class time.

At the graduate level, however, there were no such considerations. Graduate students were supposed to be competent at least in reading English because the majority of the sources they used were in English and they had to be able to cope with them. As one teacher stated:

... at the graduate level the required texts are assigned to the students regardless of their knowledge of the English language. It is what they have to do.

(SSpT. Int. 4.3)

7.4.5. Theme 5: English in the Labour Market

Next, the teachers were all asked to state their opinion about the role of English in the labour market regarding their graduates seeking employment. The majority of the teachers considered the knowledge of English a favourable factor in getting a job. According to one teacher

Most companies prefer to employ graduates who are good at English because of their commercial relations with foreign countries.

(SSpT. Int. 5.13)

Another teacher said:

Employers mostly prefer to employ those who have a good command of the English language. University graduates who are competent in English can even get employed without resort to their own specialism.

(SSpT. Int. 5.16)

The importance of knowing English was justified on the grounds that since most of the university graduates are attracted to companies in the private sector, they were expected to have a good command of English in order to be able to read catalogues, manuals and reports, as well as carry out correspondence with companies abroad. From another view, as one teacher put it,

"... logically of two persons working in a company, the one who knows English better has the potential to develop and, as a result, can be of more benefit to that company"

(SSpT. Int. 5.6).

7.5. Programme Designer Interview Analysis

7.5.1. Theme 1: Rationale for Centralisation of Language Curriculum Development

The programme designers were asked to explain the reasons) why the Higher Education Commission decided to devise a centralised system of curriculum development for language education at university. The interviewees stated that it was part of a general policy adopted by the authorities in order to devise a uniform system of education to cover all universities and other centres of higher education throughout the country. Prior to the 1985, each university had a programme of its own which was different from that of the others. The new policy, it was assumed, would provide all university students with an equal opportunity to enjoy the same system of education all

over the country. Thus, it was thought, all university graduates would be more or less at the same level of knowledge. The ESP programme was covered by the same policy and had to undergo similar adjustments. The perceived changes in the ESP programme development were justified on the grounds that:

the previous programme, in spite of the huge amount of investment by the related ministries, ended in failure due to the lack of appropriate objectives, motivation, instructional materials, and logical relationship between the university and the pre-university language education...

(English for Students of Sciences: 1994)

7.5.2. Theme 2: Objectives of the ESP Programme

Interviewees were asked to indicate what objectives had been intended for the programme. The principal objective of the ESP programme, they stated, was to provide the students with the training that would lead them to the attainment of a proficiency in reading English materials in their own area of specialism. This would eventually enable them to translate scientific books into the native language, which would result in the acquisition of the scientific knowledge of the western world. According to one interviewee:

... the objective of the ESP programme was set to be the development of a reading ability in the students so that they can read the English sources in their own discipline. Of course, along with this objective, it was anticipated that students who got trained in language would eventually develop the ability to translate Islamic thoughts into another language. So, reading comprehension was regarded as the principle objective of the programme.

(Pro. Des. Int. 2.2)

In the introduction to *Reading through Reading: General English for University Students*, written by one of the interviewees, the objective of language teaching at the university has been stated thus:

In (1980), the Foreign Language Committee on Curriculum development set the improvement of reading comprehension ability of Pakistani students as the main objective of language teaching at the universities in this country. The purpose was to enable the students to read and extract information from the pure and applied scientific materials in their major fields of study.

(Reading through Reading. 1991)

7.5.3. Theme 3: Relevance of the Objectives to the Students' Needs

In order to find out to what extent they considered the objectives relevant to the needs of the students they were asked to comment on this point. The programme designers seemed quite positive about the appropriateness of the objectives to the needs of the students. One of them said,

the objectives were quite in accordance with the needs of the students," and added that "the needs of the students have been well recognised, and the objectives have been well set"

(Pro. Des. Int. 3.1)

Another one pointed out,

"The objective was in accordance with the needs of the students. Our students' principle need is reading foreign sources"

(Pro. Des. Int. 3.2).

However, they indicated that no systematic needs analysis was carried out for this purpose. The reason, as one pointed out, was that "in devising a centralised programme for the whole country, individual needs cannot be taken into consideration; instead, global needs are more of concern," and added that

"... programme designers who were themselves experienced teachers well knew what the students' needs were"

(Pro. Des. Int. 3.2).

Nevertheless, the Urdu preface to the textbook *English for the Students of Sciences* indicates that a survey had been carried out for this purpose. This survey consisted of an opinion questionnaire administered to all subject specialist committees on curriculum development as well as English teachers, experts in the field, and relevant specialists at the Ministry of Training and Education. The results of this survey indicated that all respondents (100%) considered the learning of foreign languages necessary for university students. In addition, **100%** of the respondents mentioned English as their first priority. Other languages such as French (54°0), German (46° o), Arabic (27%), and Russian (5° o) were next in frequency (*English for the Students of Sciences: Preface*).

7.5.4. Theme 4: Measures Taken for the Achievement of the Objectives

The programme was developed in order to make it possible to make achieve specific objectives .The processes they explained in this connectionn were similar. They indicated that the first step taken by the authorities in charge was to organise a committee to plan and coordinate the anticipated activities. This committee, the Foreign Languages Committee on Curriculum Development (hence, FLCCD), mainly centred its activities on the development of the textbooks and devising general principles of the curriculum. The committee organised several meetings, to which experienced teachers from different universities were invited in order to discuss the content of the programme.

Based on the decisions made in these meetings, the programme was envisaged to be developed at three levels: elementary, intermediate, and advanced. For each level appropriate textbooks were to be designed which became the main occupation of the committee. Of course the committee also devised the general guide-lines for designing the textbooks, and the textbooks were to be developed by selected universities.

Depending on the potential and the expertise of the English departments in different universities, each took charge of one or two textbooks. The three levels of language instruction mentioned above were going to include "general English" materials for the elementary level, "semi-specialised" materials for the intermediate, and "specialised" materials for the advanced level.

Eventually, two books were developed for the first level, and eight for the second level. The textbooks for the third level are being developed now, and will soon be published. Although most of these textbooks have been revised, the committee believes that more revision is needed; in addition, some new textbooks should be designed for certain disciplines at the intermediate level. The reason for this, it is thought, is that certain books which were used as common books for several disciplines did not contain enough material for some disciplines.

From what the interviewees said, it was clear that the FLCCD committed itself mainly to the development of the textbooks and didn't concern itself with other areas. No teachers' manuals have been developed for the textbooks, no provisions have been made for the evaluation of the programme or the assessment of students, and virtually nothing has been done regarding teacher training, although interviewees considered all this essential for the improvement of the programme.

7.5.5. Theme 5: Achievement of the Objectives

The programme designers were asked to state to what extent the programme has been able to attain its aims. None of them expressed satisfaction in this regard. In fact they believed that the programme has hardly achieved its intended objectives. One of them said:

I doubt that the students have managed to get to that level of proficiency to read the English sources in their discipline with confidence and understanding. I don't think even one third of them would ever get to that level, because achieving that level of proficiency requires a more extensive programme.

(Pro. Des. Int. 5.2)

However, the programme designers believed that the programme has had many positive effects. First, the involvement of many English teachers, in the design and implementation of the programme was a useful experience through which they got the opportunity to acquaint themselves with different aspects of P. Second, Prior to this programme, the majority of the universities and centres of higher education had only a limited English programme. There were a few universities that offered more extensive English courses. Therefore, the present ESP programme provided more opportunities for a greater number of students at higher education. This was regarded as an improvement in language education overall the universities although a few universities suffered some sort of decline in their language teaching programmes.

In general, the programme designers revealed a positive impression regarding the overall *effect* of the programme on language education at the university level. Nevertheless, they doubted that the programme had been able to achieve the stated objectives. They believed that for the students to get to that level of proficiency to read

the English sources with confidence and understanding would require a more extensive programme.

7.5.6. Theme 6: Suggestions

As a final question, the programme designers were asked to state their present view of the programme and make their comments and suggestions regarding different aspects of the programme. As they believed that the programme had not yet been able to achieve its objectives, they mainly insisted on the proper implementation of the programme. Their suggestions in fact covered a variety of areas. Since they positively advocated the appropriateness of the intended objectives, they basically viewed the existing problems in relation to the way the programme had been set to function. In other words, their general impression of the programme was that the means didn't match the ends. In the main, the general criticism of the programme covered two major perspectives: insufficiency and inefficiency.

Firstly, they are of the view that the instruction hours were too few to be of any practical use. They thoroughly disapprove the recent decrease in the teaching hours. They are of the view that decrease in the teaching time is actually the first step towards deteriorate the quality of language education and learning at the university level. They considered it one step towards deterioration in the quality of language education at university. They further added that three hours of teaching English language per week is not sufficient. Therefore, they think and strongly insist that development of the English language programme was very much related or dependent on the increase in the hours of English language teaching.

Although they did not specify to what extent they wished the number of instructional hours be increased, their general belief was that the programme should assume a

competency-based curriculum, in which the number of the hours of instruction is determined by the needs of the students. What they particularly suggested in this regard was that all university entrants be offered an intensive English course prior to their taking the major courses, in order to provide them with a basic knowledge of English, and then to lead them toward the required English courses.

Further to this, they also recommended that some writing component should be the part of learning curriculum of the programme to meet the needs of the students. Especially those students who would want to follow studies at or to the graduate level because they are required to write their own papers in English. They also added by saying that the existing teaching and learning materials should be revised and or apposite materials which cater to the students writing skills should be developed.

As for increasing the efficiency of the programme, they believed that the proficiency of the students in General English should be first developed and *then they* be led to take the ESP courses. They reasoned that unless the students develop a good knowledge of basic English, basic sentences and basic structures and vocabulary, they will not be ready to study ESP. They furthermore indicated the importance of language laboratories in the development of language proficiency and stated that provisions should be made for the establishment and use of such facilities at the students' convenience. This demand, as one of them said, was justified on the grounds that:

... where the students are never in contact with a native speaker, they cannot read with correct intonation. If we could establish laboratories for the students to listen to native speakers it would have good effects on their pronunciation and intonation. Evidently, reading in a language along with hearing it spoken is more beneficial than simply reading it.

(Pro. Des. Int. 6.1)

The next suggestion made in this regard was the need to employ more trained teachers. The designers were of the opinion that ESP teachers should get trained before they are employed for this purpose. In addition English departments, they believed, should be provided with more teaching staff and provisions should be made regarding in-service training for the current ESP teachers.

The programme designers also believed that it was high time that systematic research was carried out in order to find out the strengths and weaknesses of the programme so that the problematic areas would be clearly detected and necessary measures would be taken accordingly. As one interviewee put it:

I believe that some research must be done in these areas to find out the problematic points, and more experimental research is needed in order to get more evidence on the effectiveness of the courses offered.

(Pro. Des. Int. 6.1)

7.6 Engineering Universities Alumni Interview Analysis

7.6.1 Theme 1: Importance of English Language as a Professional Tool

When the question was asked about the importance of the English language for professional courses, mostly agreed that it is very important to have good command over English language for a professional life. One said

“in principle that learning English in the professional courses is very important and it should be taught to the students of professional degrees”

(A.Int 1.4).

The other was of the view,

“In this global market, we cannot stay alone, we need to communicate and that language is English”

(A.Int 1.7)

A well-known Engineer said

“English has become the language of Science and Technology so in nut shell it has become the language of Engineers”

(A.Int 1.3)

7.6.2 Theme 2 .English Language Courses for Engineers

Most of the interviewees were of the view that whatever they studied on an English Language course was not sufficient to have good English communication skills. One also supported the notion that English courses were not given importance in their times when they were students of English language i.e. some nine or ten years ago and they were having many problems in English communication skills. He said thinking about the past in the nostalgic way “As well as I remember, the students of my times had two book of poetry and two English Novel “Lord of the Flies” and “Mr. Chips”. We had an exam on these two poetry books and two novels.it was a written exam. So in the past even English syllabus was not important”

(A. Int 2.4)

7.6.3 Theme 3 : Duration of the Course

When the question was asked about the duration of the course they had in their engineering studies , most participants were of the view that the duration of the teaching

of English was not sufficient three credit hours a week in total in the professional courses. One of them said

“ 03 credit hours course in a week is just a joke “

(A .Intl 3.4)

Most of them showed their dissatisfaction with the teaching time of the course. They are all of the view that teaching time should be enhance to have better results to have good English language skills. One said

“ Higher Authorities should take notice immediately and give maximum time to improve English Language skills.”

(A.Intl 3.9)

One further added

“Though we have good knowledge about our engineering subject but as I cannot communicate in English so I am far behind then other engineers around the world”

(A Int. 3.8)

The present syllabus, according to them, should be revised and new elements and ingredients should be incorporated in the course.

7.6.4 THEME 4 : Need for a New Curriculum for Engineering English

All participants unanimously agreed that there was at present a need to introduce a new ESP course. On the question of compatibility, the response was varied. One of them said

“many of the engineers working in different organizations believe that present syllabus has the potential to compete the international standards”

(A.Intl 4.4)

There was one another view point that the current syllabus should to be revised and re devised. He was of the view that during the last ten years many new techniques and methods have been embedded in the English language teaching methodology so these methods should be part of our academic program as well.

“ For God sake change the syllabus and make it according to International standards”

(A.Int 4.2)

7.6.5 THEME 5 : Suggestions

On the question of suggestions, all participants said that there should be a proper evaluation of the course and all stakeholders’ suggestions should be included in the curriculum. One of them said

“While formulating the new syllabus for the engineering courses, opinions should be taken from all the stake holders, especially from the people who are actually working in the fields”

(A Intl 5.6)

Another Alumni also suggested that “Lessons and activities should be developed which could enhance the students’ writing and presentation skills” (A Intl .5.8). One another suggested thinking about his past

“My teacher never focused on my writing skills. I used to cram my lessons and reproduce them in my exams and I never participated in my class. I

still feel my writing and presentation skills are very weak. Now teachers should work on these skills”

(A Int 5.4)

There were some very strong suggestions about the regular teacher's training programs . One suggested

“There should be regular refresher courses for the teachers where professional should also be invited to share their experiences”

(A Intl 5.8)

In short all interviewees agreed to the following points

- It is very important to learn English in professional courses so it should be necessary for the student of professional degrees to learn and being taught English language.
- English language courses were not given due importance in the past like eight or ten years ago. That is the reason the students of those time who are professional engineers now finding difficulties in English communication skills. Now it is the high need of time that importance should be given to English language courses.
- As mentioned by students and teachers, the duration of the teaching English course is not sufficient to meet the academic and occupational needs of the world market. So the teaching hours should be enhanced.
- The current syllabus should be revised and re-devised. The new elements of pedagogical skills should be incorporated in the curriculum.
- Syllabus needs to be re-structured as they are of the view we are living in the age of telecommunication and global village. So many new techniques and methods have been introduced so these new technologies and methods should be a part of curriculum.

- While making the new syllabus for the engineering courses, opinions should be taken from all the stake holders, especially from the people who are actually working in the discipline of engineering.
- They are of the view that all lessons and activities should be developed which could be useful and enhance students' all language skills.
- There should be regular refresher and training courses for the teachers where professional should also be invited to share their experiences related to pedagogical skills of modern times.
- Professional engineers and recruiters especially should also be integrated in the curriculum committee to take the practical measure to design a new course so that they may give a better feedback what is required in the modern world.
- They are also of the view that proper and systematic need analysis of the market is essential so that the skilled people should be given and produced by the market.

7.7 Summary of Findings

7.7.1. Needs

- There was an overwhelming agreement among all the parties involved, namely, the ESP teachers, the SSp teachers, the students, the alumni, the engineering students' parents and the programme designers that the students' principal need was the ability to read and understand English texts in their own discipline. Therefore, they all mentioned reading comprehension as the main skill students needed to develop. Translation was also mentioned by a minority of the interviewees as next in frequency. The programme is thus properly designed to meet these needs. However, students expressed their wish for the development of oral skills as well.

7.7.2. Objectives

- Both the ESP teachers and the students, as well as the programme designers,

believed that the main objective of the ESP programme was to improve the reading comprehension ability of the students.

- A minority of the students and the ESP teachers mentioned translation as the second objective of their courses.
- Programme designers did mention the importance of translation and considered it as an objective of the programme. However, it was regarded more a consequence of language learning for the students who would, in the long run, want to engage in translation, than as a skill to be developed in its own right.

7.7.3. Achievements

- The majority of the students did not appear to be satisfied with their achievement in English and did not think the courses fulfil their needs of the English language.
- The SSp teachers expressed doubt regarding the achievements of the programme.
- The majority of the SSp teachers indicated that they refrained from recommending texts in English because of the difficulties their students had in understanding.
- The programme designers believed that the programme had barely achieved its intended objectives. However, they revealed a positive impression of the overall effect of the programme on language education at the university.

7.7.4. Teaching procedures

- Students viewed teaching to be mainly teacher-centred, with the students rarely called upon to take a role in the teaching/learning process.
- Students saw classroom activities as primarily centred on accomplishing the tasks designed in the textbook

- Students perceived the role of the teacher as an active performer providing information, and that of the students as passive listeners consuming information.
- The ESP teachers tended not to see much procedural difference between the GE and the ESP teaching, although, theoretically speaking, the majority did not appear to reveal much awareness of the nuances of the issue.
- The ESP teachers tended to use their 'own' methods derived from and driven more by intuition and experience than by theory and principle,
- However, the dominant influence on their teaching seemed to be the instructions given in the coursebook.

7.7.5. Materials

- The ESP teachers and the students did not reveal much satisfaction with the materials in use. They believed that many of the texts they studied were irrelevant to their subject specialism.
- The ESP teachers largely found the textbooks dull and uninteresting due to the lack of pictures, charts, etc. in them. However, a minority of them as well as some students found the content of the passages interesting and appealing.
- The majority of the ESP teachers believed that most of the materials were, quantitatively and qualitatively, not appropriate to the language level of the students
- The programme designers believed that the materials needed to be revised

7.8.6. Use of English

- Both the students and the SSp teachers attached practical value to English and regarded it as a beneficial factor in competition in the labour market.

7.7.7. Teacher Training

- Almost all the ESP teachers interviewed indicated that they had no training for teaching the ESP courses.
- The programme designers stated that the ESP teachers were not provided with any training for teaching the ESP courses.
- Both the ESP teachers and the programme designers believed that in-service training was necessary for the current *ESP* teachers and that *ESP* teachers should be particularly trained for this purpose before being employed

7.7.8. Suggestions

- **A majority** of the interviewees - the students, the ESP teachers, and the programme designers -- suggested that the hours of instruction be increased
- The majority of the students, the ESP teachers, and the programme designers believed that the current textbooks should be revised and new subject-specific textbooks be devised to cater the needs of the related students.
- Almost all the parties involved complained that English was not taken seriously and insisted that it must be given due importance.
- The interviewees largely believed that the English departments should be equipped with audio-visual facilities as well as language laboratories for the students to use at their convenience.
- Both the ESP teachers and the programme designers considered in-service training necessary for the ESP teachers, and indicated that more staff members should also be employed so that the present teachers wouldn't have to be overloaded
- The ESP teachers insisted that the class size be lowered to a manageable level

- The ESP teachers and the students suggested that the students be categorised by both their discipline and their knowledge of the *English* language.
- The programme designers believed that all university entrants should be offered an intensive English course prior to their taking the ESP major courses.
- Students were generally dissatisfied with too much emphasis on grammar and expressed their wish to develop oral skill,
- Students expected ESP teachers to take the English courses more seriously, make the most use of teaching time, and push them by assigning more work.
- Students suggested that other general courses be decreased and English courses be increased instead.
- SSp teachers believed that there should be cooperation between the English departments and the subject departments so that the art of language teaching be complemented with appropriate content.
- Some students suggested that English be included as part of each subject course. As such, one hour of each subject course would be devoted to teaching the terms, expressions, and the essential points necessary for understanding English texts.
- Programme designers believed that some writing component should be included in the programme.

CHAPTER 8

QUESTIONNAIRE DATA ANALYSIS

8.1. Introduction

The results gathered from the questionnaires administered to the students, the ESP teachers, and the subject specialist teachers are analysed here. The statistical data are descriptively analysed. The different aspects of the programme as set out in the original design of curriculum are discussed here as well. More importantly, the statistical data are utilised to make conclusions about the efficacy of different approaches to education toward the structure, implementation, and implementation of the ESP programme which includes students' needs, instructional materials, goals, and objectives.

This chapter is presented in six parts, each dealing with one topic of concern:

- (i) The informants' general attitude to perception of the programme:
- (ii) The approach/teaching method:
- (iii) Classroom management:
- (iv) Materials:
- (v) Learning outcomes and
- (vi) The impact of the programme on outsiders:

Each part is further divided into sections in accordance with the major headings set out in the original design of the study. Each section is structured as follows:

- A characterisation of the topic
- Procedures for data analysis
- A detailed analysis of frequencies
- Cross-correlations, where appropriate
- Summary of findings
- Gaps and limitations, where appropriate

Some repetition occurs since topics are interrelated, but every effort has been made to keep this to a minimum.

It should also be pointed out that the statistical data, in some cases, involved calculating the Mean Value. This was done in items where the respondents had been asked to rank order the alternatives, Mean value could provide a clear indication of the general tendency of the respondents in a given question.

8.2. Attitudes and Perceptions

The student, the ESP teacher, and the SSp teacher questionnaires probed various attitudes to and perceptions of the programme in general. Each topic is dealt with in a separate section.

8.2.1. Attitudes to the English Language

Table 8.1 shows that a great majority (93.3%) of the respondents viewed ESP as providing access to the specific bibliography in their subject specialism, 84.5% as a way of getting to know other peoples, and 78.5% as a means of access to any text in English . The same question had been included in the ESP teacher questionnaire to elicit their views of the learning of ESP. The majority (61.5%) considered it to be a means of access to any reading matter in English, although their perceptions slightly differed from

those of the students as to whether ESP provided access more to specific bibliography or to reading in general (table 8.1).

- To calculate the mean value, the responses to each alternative were tallied, **then** their values were added up and divided by the number of respondents to get the mean score for each of the alternatives. In ranking, one is the most important, 61.7 (depending on the case) the least, so that the lower the mean, the more important the alternative.

**main items used for this purpose are:

Student questionnaire items 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 17, 18, 21, 22, 25.

ESP teacher questionnaire items 5, 6, 7, 8,

Subject specialist teacher questionnaire items 1, 9

The numbers indicating that ESP is "a preparation to meet the needs of economic development" and "a means for spreading the cultural domination of other nations" in both the student questionnaire and the ESP teacher questionnaire were comparatively low. This item was included because of the anecdotal evidence that as a result of the Islamization of Pakistan in Zia's regime, the general bias of the university students was against foreign languages, but the evidence of this survey does not bear this out (table 8.1).

The figures for the practical usefulness of ESP in the student questionnaire were rather low (30.8%: table 8.1). English is known to be instrumental in Punjab, Pakistan, and is assumed in anecdote at least to have practical value in getting a job. Once again, however, the results obtained from *the* student questionnaire do not strongly confirm this.

Nevertheless, the ESP teachers showed a slightly more positive attitude in this regard (46.2% table 8.1).

Table 8.1 (Learning ESP seems to you to be)

St. Q21/ ESPT Q5: Learning ESP seems to you to be:	%		%	
	Student	No	ESP teacher	No
a preparation to meet the needs of economic development	38.3	61.7	17.3	82.7
a means for spreading cultural domination by other nations	35.7	64.3	15.4	84.6
a way of getting to know other peoples	84.5	15.5	21.2	78.8
a means of access to specific bibliography in your area	93.3	6.7	32.7	67.3
a means of access to any text in English	78.5	21.5	61.5	38.5
useful for getting a job	30.8	69.2	46.2	53.8

Question 9 of the subject specialist questionnaire sought the SSp teachers' opinion regarding the role of English in the labour market. Table 8.2 shows that the majority of the respondents (71%) indicated positively that the knowledge of English was a favorable factor in the labour market competition in their discipline.

Table 8.2 (The knowledge of English as a favourable factor in International labour market)

SSp Q9: In your opinion, is a knowledge of English a favourable factor In the competition in the labour market in your field?	Yes%	No%	Don't know%
	71	14.5	14.5

Likewise, question 22 of student questionnaire *which* asked the students' opinion regarding their perception of the ESP courses in relation to their profession, got a moderately positive attitudinal response rate of 53.7% (table 8.3),

Table 8.3 (Relationship between ESP and profession)

St Q22: How do you consider the ESP in relation to your profession?	Relevant%	Don't Know	Indifferent %
	53.7	41.5	4.8

Clearly the responses provided by the informants in relation to the practical usefulness of ESP do not indicate much consistency. Overall it seems that both students and teachers were positive in their attitudes towards learning and teaching English, but were not necessarily very convinced about its long term practical utility.

8.2.2. Attitudes to Materials

Table 8.4 shows that the majority of students (42.2% "not very appropriate + 14.5% "inappropriate = 56.7%), did not regard the curriculum materials very positively, although the numbers approving of the materials were still a substantial minority (38.8% "appropriate" + 4.5% "very appropriate" = 43.3%). This is consistent with the ESP teachers' response to a similar question asking whether they were satisfied with the

materials they used. As 7.5 indicates, the majority responded negatively to this question.

Table 8.4 (Appropriateness of material used in the course)

ESPT Q2: How appropriate were the materials used on the course?	Percentage %
Very appropriate	4.5 %
Appropriate	38.5 %
Not appropriate	42.2 %
Inappropriate	14.5 %

Table 8.5 (Satisfaction with materials used in class)

ESPT Q6: Are you satisfied with the materials you use?	Percentage %
Yes	26.5 %
No	73.5 %

It is worth mentioning that although two thirds of the ESP teachers expressed their dissatisfaction with the materials they used, only a minority indicated the reasons. Where they were asked to indicate reasons why they *were not* satisfied with the materials, there was no majority response favouring one particular reason (table 8.6).

Table 8.6 (Reason for non-satisfactory materials)

ESPT Q7: If you answered "No" to question 6, please indicate reasons. indicate the reason	Percentage %
Above the students' level	23.1 %
Not relevant to specialist areas	23.1 %
Content out of ate	40.4 %

Objectives not relevant	30.8 %
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As with the ESP teachers, the students' view of materials was also elicited from different perspectives. *Responses* bearing negative values (de-motivating, uninteresting, irrelevant to the area of specialization) are comparatively more frequent than those carrying positive values (arouse interest, related to the area of interest, etc.). Thus, the students, like the ESP teachers, do not appear to be particularly satisfied with the materials they use (table 8.7).

Table 8.7 (Responses against dis satisfaction)

St Q 24: In your opinion, the material used in the class:	Percentage %
were de-motivating	22.3 %
Arouse interest	29 %
were not interesting	44.2 %
were selected carefully	24 %
were related to your interest	17.7 %
were irrelevant to your area of specialization	48.3 %
Were useful	30.8 %

However, as table 8.8 shows, 50.7% of the students stated that their interest in the content of materials was "adequate" and 37% "good" (in contrast with 12.3 % "weak"). Similarly, 66.8 % of the students felt that the layout of the texts was "adequate" and 12% "good" (in contrast with 21.2% "weak"). Nevertheless, 45.8% of the students believed that the relevance of the materials to their field of study was "weak". If positive category

responses are combined (41.8% "adequate" + 12.3% "good" = 54.1%), there is a slight positive overall preference on this question

Table 8.8 (Interest in the ESP Course)

St Q.8 By ticking in the box, please indicate whether in the ESP course:	Percentage %		
	Good %	Adequate %	Weak %
Your interest in the content of course was	37	50.7	12.3
The lay out of the texts was	12	66.8	21.2
The connection between the texts and your specific field was	12.3	41.8	45.8

8.2.3. Attitudes to Classroom Management

Responses to question 25 of the student questionnaire: "You believe this course encourages..." indicate that the most popular choice is "teacher-student relationship" at 48 % and, to a lesser extent, "student attention" at 41.5 % and "student participation" at 40.7 %. The next choice, "class discussion" at 30% is low in frequency (table 8.9). Thus, none of the alternatives indicates a very positive response.

Table 8.9 (What course encourages ?)

St. Q25: You believe this course encourages:	Percentage %
teacher-student relationship	48 %
student attention/concentration in class	41.5 %
student participation	40.7 %
class discussion	30 %

A similar question was put to the ESP teachers to find out what classroom procedures they identified with ESP teaching. The choices bearing the highest number of positive responses

were "student participation" at 59.6 %, "teacher-student interaction" at 53.8%, and "making students aware of objectives and method" as 51.9% (table 8.10). Clearly, there is a disparity in the views expressed by the teachers and the students. Teachers report comparatively high student participation and teacher-student interaction, whereas students' opinion does not indicate such involvement. From the alternatives selected by the students, it can be inferred that the involvement of the students in the classroom is perceived as passive in nature, which is in contrast with the ESP teachers' view indicating active involvement. Classroom observation results will cast further light on this point.

Table 8.10 (Relationship between Classroom procedures and ESP teaching)

ESPT Q8: In your opinion, which of the following classroom procedures would you identify with ESP teaching?	Percentage %
Teacher-student interaction	53.8 %
Discussion	36.5 %
Small Group teaching	26.9 %
Whole-class teaching	59.6 %
Individual teaching	5.8 %
Language used in the classroom	34.6 %
Student participation	59.6 %
Making students aware of objectives and method	51.9 %
Negotiation of course design with students	21.2 %

8.2.4 General Perception of the Course

Table 8.11 shows that only a minority of the students (3% + 32.2% = 35.2%) believed that their needs have been met "completely" or "adequately" by their English courses; the majority (46 %+ 18.8 % = 64.8 %) answered either "inadequately" or "not at all".

Table 8.11 (General Perception of the course)

St. Q1: To what extent has this course met your needs regarding the use of the English language?	Percentage %
Completely	3 %
Adequately	32.2 %
Inadequately	46%
Not at all	18.8 %

Only a quarter stated that they felt more independent in reading English texts:

Table 8.12 (Student independence about the course)

St. Q4: Do you feel more Independent now, to read texts in English?	Yes	No
	25%	75%

A similar response, though slightly more positive, was expressed with respect to fluency and self-confidence:

Table 8.13 (Reading as main emphasis of ESP course)

St. Q17: If the emphasis on your ESP course was reading comprehension, did this help you to read and understand a text in English with greater fluency and self-confidence?	Percentage	Yes	No
		38%	62%

Nevertheless, most students did feel that their English had improved overall:

Table 8.14 (English language proficiency after attending the course)

St. Q5: After attending the course ,do you think your English:	Percentage %
improved a lot	3.3 %
Improved a bit	64.2 %
Stayed the same	29.8 %
Got worse	2.7 %

These results indicate that although students were not very positive about specific aspects of the *effectiveness* of their courses, they did show some satisfaction regarding their general achievements in English.

Subject specialist questionnaire results cast some further attitudinal light on the programme. In response to the question: "Do you consider a knowledge of English important for academic performance in your discipline?", the SSp teachers unanimously (100 %) considered English to be important for academic performance in their subject areas. Thus, it is certainly considered necessary, but the effectiveness of its teaching could be improved.

8.2.5. Summary of Findings

- Students have not expressed much satisfaction with the ESP courses overall. However, they have agreed there was improvement regarding their general achievements in English.
- SSp teachers considered English important for their subjects.
- Students and ESP teachers consider the learning of ESP as instrumental, rather than ideological. Nevertheless, they have different perceptions as to whether it

provides access more to specific bibliography or to reading matter in general.

- A minority of respondents considered ESP a preparation to meet the needs of economic development or a means of spreading the cultural domination of other nations.
- Although a minority of students felt that the ESP course would actually result in increased chances of getting a job, they saw it as moderately relevant to their professions. However, their ESP teachers attached more practical value to a knowledge of English.
- Neither the students nor the ESP teachers expressed much satisfaction with the materials they used.
- Students thought they had a passive role in the classroom. However, teachers' and students' opinions differed as to the amount of opportunity provided for self-expression in the classroom.

8.3. The Approach: Teaching Method

This section aims at finding out what the ESP approach consisted of as perceived by the students and the ESP teachers, and to what extent it was considered appropriate from the point of view of the participants.*

*The items that were analyzed for this purpose were:

Student Questionnaire Items 12, 13, 14, 16, 19,

ESP Teacher Questionnaire Items 2, 3.

8.3.1. Analysis

This section examines the frequencies of responses in relation to the components of the course as perceived by the students and the ESP teachers. Since some items include alternatives to which values of different scales have been assigned, the Mean Value (MV) of each alternative has also been calculated in order to make comparisons more perceptible.

8.3.2. Objectives of the Course

Students were asked to rank order the objectives of the course. The results (table 7.14) indicated that the majority of the students regarded "Improving knowledge of grammar" (MV=3.35) as the most important objective of the course. "Increasing vocabulary" (MV=3.60) and "Developing reading comprehension skill" (MV=3.62) were respectively considered as the second and the third major objectives. (i.e. lower M = higher priority)

Table 8.15 (Most Important objective of the program)

St Q12/ ESPT Q3: List in order of preference the most Important objectives of your ESP course (1 as the highest and 6 as the lowest preferences).	Mean value			
	St-Q	Pref.	ESPT-Q	Pref.
Developing writing skill	4.82	6	5.21	6
Developing the ability to translate texts into Urdu	4.16	4	3.36	3
Developing reading comprehension skill	3.62	3	1.34	1
Improving knowledge of grammar	3.35	1	3.74	4
Increasing vocabulary	3.6	2	2.27	2
Developing speaking skill	4.81	5	4.95	5

In response to a similar question, ESP teachers were asked to rank in order what they thought the objectives of the ESP courses were. The majority chose "Developing reading comprehension skill" (MV=1.34) as the most important objective of the courses.

Comparison of the two shows that the teachers and the students agree on "Increasing vocabulary" as the second major objective of the courses, but there is a difference of opinion between them regarding the first and the third major objectives. The students indicated "Improving knowledge of grammar" as the first major objective, whereas the teachers chose "Developing reading comprehension skill". On the other hand, students perceived "Developing reading comprehension skill" as the third priority, while teachers viewed it as the first priority.

Questions were also included to find out to what extent there was a match between what the students wanted and what was actually taught:

Table 8.16 (Most appropriate to meet your needs)

St. Q13: List in order of preference the objectives you consider most appropriate to meet your needs. (1 as the highest and 7 as the lowest preferences)	Mean Value	Pref.
Developing the ability to understand English	3.38	2
Improving the knowledge of grammar	4.64	6
Developing the ability to understand text organization	4.15	5
Developing reading comprehension skill Developing comprehension	3	1
Increasing vocabulary	4.13	4
Developing writing skills	4.65	7
Developing speaking skills Mg	3.9	3

The results clearly show that there has been a mis-match between what was wanted and what was perceived as taught. Students perceived the course as being primarily grammar-oriented with emphasis on vocabulary, and "Developing reading

comprehension skill" (MV=3.64) being placed next in importance; whereas, from their point of view, the priority ought to have been given to reading comprehension as the most appropriate skill they needed to develop. In addition, the results indicated that there was a great tendency in the students for "Developing speaking skill" and "Developing the ability to understand English". This point has also been confirmed by the responses to question 14, which asks the students to list in order of preference the skills which were not included in the programme but should have been.

Responses to this question (table 8.8) suggest that the majority of the students considered "Reading comprehension" (MV=2.61) as their highest preference, "Translation" (MV=3) as the second and "Speaking" (W=3.15) as the third preference they wished had been included in the programme. Of course reading and translation constituted two major components of the course, but it seems they have not been perceived as having been given due importance.

Table 8.17 (Most important need as perceived by students)

St. Q14:	Mean Value	Preferences
Speaking	3.15	3
Writing in general	4.3	5
Reading comprehension	2.61	1
Understanding spoken English	3.36	4
Writing summaries and abstracts	4.42	6
Translating into Urdu	3	2

It can thus be concluded that students saw the approach as mainly centred on grammar and vocabulary, followed by reading comprehension. Other skills had either been

excluded or paid slight attention. This implies that *although* the *approach* was not totally monolithic, it set itself limited objectives which hardly fulfilled the presumed aims.

8.3.3. Summary of Findings

- Teachers and students had different perceptions of the skills being taught. Teachers considered "reading comprehension" as the most important objective, while the students viewed "grammar" as the major concern of the courses.
- The teaching approach was not totally monolithic. However, concentration seems to have been mainly on grammar and vocabulary.
- There was a discrepancy between what was wanted by the students and what was perceived as tough

8.4 Classroom Management

The topic of classroom management will be extensively examined in **Chapter 9** (Class Observations), where the data gathered through classroom observation will be analysed. However, the questionnaires also give insight into what type of classroom management practices were perceived by the students and the ESP teachers as belonging to the ESP programme. •

8.4.1. Analysis

As table 8.9 indicated, 30% of the respondents thought that the course encouraged "Class discussion", 48% "Teacher-student relationship", 40.7% "Student participation", and 41.5 % "Student attention in class". Although the response rate to the choice "Teacher-student relationship" is a bit higher than the other alternatives, the difference is not large enough to single it out as a characteristic of the programme. In fact, the

figures indicate that the students have in the majority not perceived any of the classroom practices as being particular to the programme.

To find out the ESP teachers' view, they were asked to indicate agreement on classroom procedures identified with ESP teaching (table 7.10). The majority, though only just over half, selected "Student participation" (59.6%), "Whole-class teaching" (59.6 %), "Teacher-student interaction" (53.8 %), and "Making students aware of the objectives" (51.9 %).

°The items that were analysed for this purpose were.

Student Questionnaire item 25;

ESP teacher Questionnaire items 8 and 9

From the data in tables 8.9 and 8.10 we can see that "Student participation" and "Whole-class teaching" comparatively stand out among the alternatives as indicating the view of the majority of ESP teachers. "Whole class teaching", as revealed through classroom observation, was a common practice in the ESP classes. However, "Student participation" was neither confirmed by the students (table 7.9) nor revealed through classroom observation (see Chapter 9 (Class Observations)).

Table 8.18 indicates that the majority of the ESP teachers believed that they used "Discussion" as the most frequently used activity, and "Group work" as next in frequency.

Although, according to the above data, teachers have indicated "Discussion" as the most frequently used activity (table 8.12), the students' view does not confirm it (table 8.9). Class observation does not reveal it either (Ch 9). Perhaps teachers have taken it as what they *would rather* do, but for some reason (e.g. lack of time, students' weakness in English, etc.) they feel unable to do it. "Group work" is the second most frequently used activity indicated by the teachers, but it is also unconfirmed by classroom observation (Ch 9).

Table 8.18 (Teaching procedure used in the classroom)

ESPT Q9 : Of the teaching procedures given below, which do you use?	Percentages %		
	Never	Sometimes	Often
Library visits	67.3	9.6	0
Games, competitions, etc.	53.8	13.5	3.8
Songs, etc.	71.1	0	0
Group work	17.3	42.3	21.2
Projects	32.7	23.1	13.5
Discussions	15.4	21.2	46.2
Role play	44.2	13.5	0

Thus, comparison of tables 8.10 and 8.9 regarding classroom activities shows that teachers and students do not have similar perception of classroom practices. One possible explanation could be the fact that students naturally do not occupy themselves as much with the methodological issues of teaching as they would with the knowledge or the skills being communicated to them; therefore, the discrepancy between their perception of the issue and that of their teachers' might not be regarded as unexpected. However, classroom observation findings (Ch 9) seem to be more in line with the students' view of classroom activities.

A related point with respect to classroom management is student involvement. Item number 3 of the student questionnaire dealt with this topic: As table 8.19 shows, the state of student participation in the classroom is fairly low:

Table 8.19 (Contribution to class with specific knowledge)

St. Q3: Did you have a chance to contribute In class with your specific knowledge and personal experience?	Percentage %
Always	2.7
Usually	19.7
Seldom	33.3
Never	44.3

8.4.2. Summary of Findings

- The majority of the ESP teachers, though only just above half, identified the following procedures as the main characteristics of the ESP classes:
 - student participation
 - whole-class teaching
 - teacher-student interaction
 - making students aware of the objectives
- However, students did not think of a close teacher-student relationship or active participation as characteristic of the ESP classes.
- Broadly speaking, teachers and students had different perceptions of classroom practices.
- There is no indication that the ESP methodology resulted in a high degree of student participation.

8.4.3. Limitations

Evidently, the data obtained from the analysis of the questionnaires regarding classroom management are not sufficient to resolve the question of teachers' and students' different perceptions. Students give a consistently lower rating to factors which teachers consider as characteristic of the programme methodology.

What should actually emerge is whether the students are provided with the opportunity or encouraged at all to contribute. This is not clearly revealed through the questionnaire. Teachers, for instance, indicated "discussions" and "group work" as the most frequent activities; whereas, the students' view does not confirm it. This, of course, could be due to an interpretation of the questionnaire item, in which teachers seem to have given their opinion of what they were supposed to do rather than what they actually did.

In order to be able to interpret the questionnaire results more meaningfully, more relevant data would certainly be required. Classroom observation data, presented in the next chapter, however, will shed more light on these questions.

8.5. Materials

This section examines the role of materials within the programme, to find out how the students and the ESP teachers perceived the materials, and to what extent the participants considered them appropriate.*

*The questions that were analysed for this purpose were

Student Questionnaire Items 2, 16, 24;

ESP teacher Questionnaire Items 6, 7.

8.5.1. Analysis

As table 8.14 shows, 43.3% of the students expressed positive views about the materials (4.5% "very appropriate"+38.8% "appropriate"), and 56.7% (42.2% "not appropriate"+14.5% "inappropriate") had negative views about the materials. Students' attitude about the materials has been confirmed by the ESP teachers. The majority of ESP teachers (73.5%) were also dissatisfied with their teaching materials (table 8.5). Table 8.7 indicates some of the reasons for student dissatisfaction although, as table 8.8 shows, students seemed to be fairly well interested in the content of the materials.

Thus, the lay out and relevance of the texts to their specialist area seemed to be the issue. In fact, their interest seemed to be despite inappropriate materials, rather than because of good materials. The interview data (Ch 7) has already shed more light on this point

With respect to the ESP teachers' view on the materials, previous table reveals that although the majority of teachers expressed their dissatisfaction with the materials, no one reason was selected by a majority.

Although the ESP students all used textbooks which were designed for this purpose and to a large extent determined the programme approach, it was deemed appropriate to examine the students' view of the coherency of the materials measured against the objectives and the programme approach.

Table 8.20 (Aim of reading comprehension)

St. Q 16.if you had practice in reading comprehension, what did it aim to emphasize? (Please list 1-4, with 1 as your highest preference.)	Mean Value
Vocabulary	1.94
Reading strategies	2.47
Grammatical aspects	2.36
Critical Reading	3

Table 8.20 indicates that, again, "vocabulary" and "grammar" have been indicated as a dominant components of the material "reading strategies" has been placed third in importance.

8.5.2. Summary of Findings

- A large majority of the ESP teachers are not satisfied with materials they use, though, the reasons vary.
- * Overall, however, teachers attribute their dissatisfaction with the materials mostly to their out-elatedness.
- Students similarly do not seem to be much satisfied with the materials.
- Students consider the content of the texts interesting, but regard the materials to be only moderately relevant to their area of specialism; believe that the presentation and layout of the texts is not entirely satisfactory, and feel that the materials tend to emphasise mostly vocabulary and grammar.

8.6. Learning Outcomes

This section examines student and teacher perceptions of the learning outcomes of the programme by analysing the relevant questionnaire items from the point of view of the students, the ESP teachers, and the SSp teachers.*

*The items that were analysed for this purpose were:

Student Questionnaire items 4, 5, 12, 15, 17, 19, 20, 26;

ESP Teacher Questionnaire items 3, 4,

SSp Teacher Questionnaire item 5.

One problem involved in the evaluation of learning outcomes was that there were no test data. This might have been accomplished through the administration of a standardised test to relevant students. However, it was impractical to design and conduct such a test. In addition, in view of the sensitivity of the issue, it was decided not to appear judgemental on individual teachers or universities. Asking teachers to test their students with a standardised test might have led to invidious comparisons of results, and identification of the "best" teachers and universities. Besides, one would have needed appropriate standardised tests to cover such a diverse range of specialist subjects in addition to the potential difficulty involved in devising a broad, valid test to evaluate students' understanding of English-in-context. This would certainly have required conducting a different study. Moreover, gaining students' consent to take such a test was beyond the means of this researcher, not to mention the effect of their reluctance in taking the task seriously, which would have affected the test results. Course results from the universities could have been obtained, but identification of students was not possible as they had been asked to complete the questionnaires anonymously. Besides, these results would not have been comparable across courses or institutions. Also, of course, the purpose of this evaluation is not so much to attempt to make absolute judgements about achievement, as to gain insight into how ESP is perceived and taught.

8.6.1. Analysis

This section analyses the frequencies of responses in relation to the students', the ESP teachers', and the SSp teachers' view of the learning outcomes of the programme. Some answers to matching questions were also compared for the purpose of cross correlation.

In order to find out about perceptions of the learning outcomes of the programme, it was necessary to find out to what extent there was coincidence between what students studied (objectives of the course) and at they thought they had learned to do. The answers to matching questions related to the views of the informants in each area were compared

8.6.1.1. *What the Students Studied?*

Table 8.14, section 8.3, shows that both teachers and students regarded "Increasing vocabulary" as the second main objective of the course. But there is no such agreement between them regarding the first and the third major objectives. Teachers viewed "Developing reading comprehension skill" as the first and "Developing the ability to translate texts into Urdu" as the third major objective of the course; whereas students regarded "Improving the knowledge of grammar" as the first objective and placed "Developing reading comprehension skill" third in importance.

The discrepancy between the teachers' and the students' views on the first major objective could be partly due to the fad that teachers, though aware of the objectives of the course, took a round-about approach to achieving it. That is to say, they concentrated mainly on vocabulary and grammar, meaning to improve reading comprehension thereby.

8.6.1.2. What the Students Learned ?

Table 8.21, below, seems to indicate a difference of opinion as to what abilities the students have acquired. The majority of the ESP teachers believed that the students were able to "Know the English language better", "Get the meaning of a text", and "Develop one's own way of reading" in order of importance. However, none of the alternatives were indicated by the majority of the students as those they had learned to do.

8.6.1.3. How Independent in Reading

Table 8.21 (How independent in reading)

St. Q15: As a result of this course, you can now: ESPT Q4: Please indicate whether or not after the ESP course most students are able to	Percentages			
	St -Q	No.	ESPT -Q	No.
Select topics of interest	24.5	3	51.1	8
Select texts of interest	25.3	2	72.3	4
Get the gist of a text	19.7	5	*	*
Find relevant information	34	1	57.4	5
Make summaries	7	8	9.5	9
Use reading strategies	13	6	55.3	6
Develop own way of reading	9.8	7	72.9	3
Get to know the English language better	24.3	4	88.9	1
Get the meaning of a text	*	*	82	2
Use the dictionary	*	*	52.1	7

* did not appear in the relevant questionnaire

8.6.1.4. What Improvements are shown in Reading

However, as table 8.22 shows, the majority of students were of the opinion that their English had "Improved a bit", which shows a feeling of moderate satisfaction by the students. This point is underlined by the students when they were asked to state whether they read English texts with greater fluency and self-confidence. Again only a minority (38 %) indicated such improvement.

Although the students were not particularly positive about their improvement in reading with fluency and self-confidence, they did appear to be satisfied with their achievement of the ability to read "More easily" (table 8.23); in addition the response rates to alternatives "With less difficulty" (47.5%) and "With more confidence" (40.8 %) constitute substantial minorities.

Table 8.22 (What improvements in reading)

St. Q26: Taking into account your knowledge when you started this course, do you believe that you now read and understand texts:	Percentages
With more difficulty	9.5
More easily	50.8
Faster	19
With less difficulty	47.5
With more confidence	40.8

However, table 8.23, below, indicates that, overall, the majority of the students believed that the course "Did not help much". This might have been because they already were

good at English, but this is not a likely explanation. The interview data (Ch 7) has revealed the SSp teachers' view on possible improvements in the students' English.

Table 8.23 (Thinking about ESP course)

St. Q20: Do you think the ESP course: St. Q20:you think the ESP course:	Percentages %
Changed your way of reading English	26
Changed your way of reading Urdu	5.8
Helped you to read for academic purposes	31.7
Helped you to read for other purposes	15.2
Helped you to develop <i>your</i> previous knowledge of English	16
Increased your chance of getting a job	1.5
Did not help much	59.3

8.6.2. Summary of Findings

Students do not appear to feel that they are gaining much from the ESP courses.

- Teachers and students have expressed a difference of opinion as to what the course aims are.
- Students believe that they are learning "grammar" and "vocabulary"; whereas, teachers report that they are developing "reading comprehension" skills.
- Some students believe that their reading skill has improved moderately and about half of the students have indicated that they read "more easily" now

8.7. Impact on 'outsiders'

This section investigates the effect of the programme on outsiders. It attempts to find out whether students are more employable, as well as what effect it has had on other academic departments, such as possible changes they might have made in their course contents. Thus, the view of the SSp teachers as the principal consumers of the products of the programme is examined.

8.7.1. Analysis

Response frequency on the influence of the programme on outsiders from the point of view of the SSp teachers, the students, and the ESP *teachers* is analysed here. Some answers to matching questions will also be compared.

8.7.1.1. Effect on Subject Specialist Academic Departments

40.7% of subject specialist teachers stated that they had to alter the content of their courses due to lack of English knowledge on the part of their students and 33.3 % claimed that they were obliged to alter the content of their courses due to an improvement in the command of English on the part of their students (table 8.24).

The questions that were analysed for this purpose were:

SSp Teacher Questionnaire items 6, 7, 8, 9, 10;

Student Questionnaire items 21, 22,

ESP Teacher Questionnaire item 5.

Table 8.24 (Alterations in the content of course)

SSpT Q6: Have you altered the content of your course due to:	Percentage %	
	Yes	No
A: a lack of knowledge of English on the part of the students	40.7	59.3
B: an improvement in the students' knowledge of English	33.3	66.7

Table 8.25 (Refraining from recommending texts in English classroom)

SSpT Q7: Do you refrain from recommending texts in English because of the difficulties students would have in understanding?	Yes%	No%
	43.5	56.5

8.7.1.2. Getting a Job

Table 8.26 indicates that **82%** of subject specialist teachers believe that they have noticed a relation between knowledge of English and job finding. This result is consistent with their responses to item number 9, in which 71% of the respondents have considered the knowledge of English a favourable factor in the competition in the labour market in their field (previous table).

Table 8.26 (Knowledge of English useful for job)

SSpT Q10: Have you noted whether knowledge of English has helped your students in getting a job?	Yes %	No %	Don't know %
	82	8.2	9.8

Nevertheless, students' view in this respect do not indicate much consistency. In response to question 22 (table 8.13, section 8.2), 53.7 % of respondents considered the ESP course "Relevant" to their profession. But the number of the students who stated that the learning of ESP was useful for getting a job (Q21: table 7.1) comprises only 30.8 % of the respondents. Possibly the questionnaire format has affected the response rate.

8.7.2. Summary of Findings

- Subject specialist teachers attach practical value to knowledge of English; ESP teachers and students, however, perceive the same value in relation to the ESP courses but to a lesser extent.

- Subject specialist academic departments do not seem to have been particularly affected by the ESP courses, but some subject teachers restrict their teaching because of the perceived lack of English comprehension skills of their students.

Chapter 9

Classroom observation data analysis

9.1. Introduction

This chapter discusses the results obtained from the analysis of the data collected through observations carried out at two universities, chosen to illustrate the range of the three universities under investigation. It provides an extensive analysis of the related data, presenting the statistical evidence along with a descriptive account of teacher-student interactions and activities taking place in the classrooms. The data provide additional information which can reasonably triangulate the interview and the questionnaire data and thus help to infer with the efficacy of different educational aspects of the programme.

The chapter is in nine sections, each dealing with one aspect of classroom activities. Section one deals with "Teacher Talk vs. Student Talk", discussing the amount of talk done by each party. Section two discusses the "Distribution of Teacher and Student Talk". Section three touches upon "Questioning", explaining the nature and the type of questions asked by both the teacher and the students. Section four describes the amount and the type of language used by the teacher and the students as the "Language of Instruction". Section five presents the evidence regarding the nature and the type of "Teacher-Student Interaction". Section six provides information regarding "Classroom Organisation" and the way teachers dealt with it. Section seven focuses on the "Types of Teacher Talk", explaining the nature, amount, and distribution of their talk.

Section eight presents a comparative view of the two universities with respect to the patterns of classroom interaction. Section nine provides a summary of findings, drawing together the results obtained through the observations and the inferences made thereby.

Although it would be inappropriate to infer too much from the tallies prepared on a ten-hour observation, certain striking features do emerge. Comparison of the percentage tallies prepared for the two universities (referred to as University X and University Y for anonymity: table 9.1) reveals that there are many similarities between the two universities in the patterns of teaching interaction. Although University X enjoys better status regarding its past prosperity and present educational potential as well as its role in the development of the current English programme, the general teaching activities practised at this university are mostly similar to those practised at University Y. Nevertheless, the differences observed, though not very large, are worth noting as they show a tendency for University X to be more flexible.

Table 9.1 (Key to Classroom Observation Codes)

Teacher Dimension			Student Dimension		
Teacher Talk	Tw	to whole class	Classroom Organization	sc	organised and working as a class
	Ti	to individual		sci	organised as a class but waking individually
	Tiw	to individual but for the benefit of whole class		sg	organised and working in a group
	Tg	to group		sgi	organised in groups but working individually
	Tgw	to group but for the benefit of whole class		SP	organised and working in pairs
	Ts	teacher silent		sge	organised in groups but waking as a class
Types of Talk	tgiE	giving information in English	Student Talk	si	organised and working individually
	Tgiu	giving information in Urdu		ss	Silent
	0	no talking		sirE	individual response in English
	taqE	asking question in English		sqtU	questioning teacher in Urdu
	taqU	asking question in URDU		sqtE	questioning teacher in English
	teE	encouraging correction in English		scrE	choral response in English
	teU	encouraging correction in URDU	Student Activity	sch	Chattering
	tgdE	giving directions in English		sl	Listening
	tgdU	giving directions in Urdu		sro	rending out loud
	tdp	directing pattern drills		sde	doing an exercise
	tpE	praising in English		sri	recording information
	tPU	praising in Urdu		src	repeating in chorus
	trE	reprimanding in English		swm	working with materials
	trU	reprimanding in Urdu		so	Observing
Pedagogic Activity	Tbk	reading aloud from book	0	no learning activity	
	To	Observing			
	0	no pedagogic activity			
	tbb	writing on the blackboard			
	td	demonstrating or displaying work			
	tow	doing own work (related to lesson)			
	tgm	giving out materials			

9.2. Teacher Talk vs. Student Talk

Significant information is revealed by an analysis of the percentage tallies shown in table 8.1. Figures indicate that teachers' talk is 69.6% ($tw+tiw+ti$) and students' is 30.4% ($sir+sgtU+sgtE+scr$) of total talking that occurs in the classroom (not counting category `students chattering: *sch*', table 9.2). Teachers talk more almost double than the students. This, of course, is not surprising although it may not seem instructionally required. Many classroom observation studies have shown these results that instructors spend most of the time talking than students. According to Cubet, "In some language classrooms it has been shown that teachers talk up to 89 percent of the available time" (Cubet, 2011: 26). Chaudron states that "Research in first language classrooms has established that teachers tend to do most of the talking (about 60% of the moves). In L2 classrooms, the research tends to support the conclusion from LI research" (Chaudron, 1988: 50-51). Allwright and Bailey present similar findings and say that "Observations of many different classes, both in content area subjects and in language instruction, consistently show that teachers typically do between one half and three quarters of the talking done in classrooms" (Allwright and Bailey, 1991: 139). Whether this is a good thing or not depends on the role being given to language input in acquisition. If one believes that learners learn best by actually practising in the foreign language, one will probably try to structure classroom activities so that the amount of learner talk is increased at the expense of teacher talk. If on the other hand, one believes that teacher talk is a valuable source of comprehensible input, one will be much less worried by teacher talk dominance (Nunan, 1989:26)

Table 9.2 (Classroom Observation Summary Table (Univs. X And Y))

Teacher Dimension					Student Dimension				
		Percentages of Interactions		Average			Percentages of Interactions		Average
		x	Y				X	Y	
Teacher Talk to	Tw	42.6	31.5	37	Class Group Ind.	sc	65.2	59.8	62.5
	Ts	27.9	35.5	31.7		sci	34.8	40.2	37.5
	Tiw	21.6	31	26.3		sg	0	0	0
	Ti	7.9	1.9	4.9		ogi	0	0	0
	Tg	0	0	0		sp	0	0	0
	Tgw	0	0	0		sgc	0	0	0
Types of Talk	tgiE	12	6.6	9.3	Student Talk	si	0	0	0
	tgiU	28	23	25.5		ss	69.7	57	63.3
	0	27.9	35.5	31.7		sirE	16.4	31.8	24.1
	taqE	4	3.9	3.9		sqtU	9.2	2	5.6
	taqU	0	5.9	3		sqtE	0	0	0
	teE	15.3	16.4	15.8		scrE	0	0.6	0.3
	teU	1.3	0	0.6	Student Activity	sch	4.6	8.6	6.6
	tgdE	7.4	2.6	5		sl	41.4	34.2	37.7
	tgdU	0.7	3.9	2.3		sro	8.5	21	17.7
	Tdp	0	0	0		Sde	20	14.5	17.2
	tpE	2	2	2		sri	25.5	19.7	22.6
	tpP	0	0	0		src	0	1.4	0.7
	tiE	0	0	0		swin	0	1.9	0.9
	tiU	0	1.3	0.7		so	0	0	0
Pedagogic Activity	Tbk	61.7	62.3	62	0	4.5	7.2	5.8	
	to	26.4	36.2	31.3					
	0	1.3	1.3	1.3					
	tbb	9.8	0	4.9					
	Td	0	0	0					
	tow	0.6	0	0.3					
	tgm	0	0	0					

Table 9.3 (Percentages of Teacher and Student Share of Talk)

University	Teacher Talk %	Student Talk %
University X	73.8	26.2
Univers	65.2	34.8
Average(both univs)	69.6	30.4

9.3. Distribution of Teacher and Student Talk

No doubt talk is a major way of conveying information to the students, and also one of the primary means of controlling student behaviour. But of greater importance regarding teacher talk in the classroom is the way it is distributed, or, in Kayle's words, "how does it differ in function, and to what extent is the teacher's speech directed to individuals as opposed to groups of learners?" (Kayle, 2004: 52). According to him, the presumed effect of differences in function of teacher talk is that learners are thereby engaged in learning tasks in different ways. That is, if teachers devote large amounts of time to explanations or management instructions, learners have less time to produce the target language, and similarly, if teachers spend much time in drills or dri11-like questioning, learners may thus have less opportunity to evaluate input or produce creative language (Kayle, 2004: 52).

Table 9.3 explains that out of whole talk teacher directed 54 % toward the whole class. He directed 39% toward individuals but the whole class can be benefited by this, and he directed 7 % toward individual students. Hence over all 93 % (tw+tiw) of total teacher talk is directed toward the whole class. These figures show that the teacher is mostly involved in lecturing methods of teaching and he spends lots of time on lengthy explanations which ultimately results in giving less opportunity to students to interact and talk in target language. We see almost same kind of pattern in student talk section. Table 9.6 talks about the total student talk occurring in the classroom, only 17.6% is student initiated their

discussion with teacher and other students and is primarily and entirely in Urdu. This also involves the basic questions dealing with pronunciation, lexical meaning, checking correct answers, and grammatical questions. In other words, no actual communication in the target language is started or completed by the students. On the other hand, 64.2% of student talk is individual response to teacher's questions. This mainly involves answering factual questions based on the texts in English, i.e. answering (mostly in single words) lexical, grammatical, and comprehension questions in the textbook.

Table 9.4 (Distribution of Total Teacher Talk Over Categories)

University	Teacher Talk %				
	Tw	Tiw	ti	tg	tgw
University X	59	30	11	0	0
University Y	48.9	48.1	3	0	0
Average (both univs)	54	39	7	0	0

It is interesting to know that since these textbooks have been used for several years, they have been handed over to new students with all the exercises already answered. Therefore, as responses to teachers' questions, students need simply read out the answers from the textbook without even once going over the passage. This point applies to the translation section as well. Each lesson includes a short selection intended to be translated into Urdu. Since most of the students have already got the translation in their textbooks the teacher either skips it or quickly goes over it in case some students might wish to check it against their own translations.

9.4. Questioning

Many researchers and practitioners, according to Saleemi, believe that conversation and instructional exchanges between teachers and students provide the best opportunities for the learners to exercise target language skills, to test out their hypothesis about the target language, and to get useful feedback (Saleemi, 2010: 118). The principal way of achieving this is questioning, students should be encouraged to ask more and more questions in the target language. In normal pedagogical environment the teacher often poses all the questions although the need of the time is he should train the students to ask each other questions and ask questions to him as well. Teacher's question are always a primary source of engaging learner's attention, encouraging oral responses, and evaluating learners' progress. (*op. crt.:* 126).

Table 9.4 shows that the questions is only 10.4% (*tagE+tagU*) of the total teacher's talk. Out of which 55.8% (*tagE*) is in English and 44.2% (*tagU*) is in Urdu. This shows that there is a very less effort made by teacher to involve students in any kind of communication especially through questions. On the other hand, all the questions asked by students were only 17.6% of total student talk. They mostly have been in the native language (table 8.6). This shows that students are not encouraged and they are not availing themselves of the chance to use the English language.

Table 9.5 (Distribution of Teacher Talk Over Categories)

Univ.				Types of Teacher Talk									
	tgiE	tgiU	taqE					tgdU	tdp	tpE	tpU	trE	trU
				taqU	toE	toU	tgdE						
Univ. X	16.6	38.8	5.6	0	21.3	1.8	10.3	1	0	2.8	0	0	1.8
Univ. Y	10.5	35.8	6	9.2	25.5	0	4	6	0	3.2	0	0	0
Average	13.4	37.3	5.8	4.6	23.4	0.9	7.2	3.5	0	3	0	0	0.9

9.5. Language of Instruction

It has been generally acknowledged that instruction in the target language makes a difference (e.g. Long, 1983). Almost half of the total types of teacher talk happening in the classroom was in the native language (Urdu) (*tgrU+tagU+teU+tgdU+trU-47.2%*) (table 9.5). Furthermore, all student initiated their talk in the native language as well. It looks that since the major objective of the curriculum in these classes is the development of English reading skill. The teachers are just focused to teach reading skills. They also interested in translation skills as well. It is evident that teacher made a very little effort to deal or teach other language skills as well such as listening and speaking, which would help students develop their general proficiency in English in an effective way. It is, of course, not wise that the native language be banned from an ESP classroom, but its frequent use in instructional exchanges tends to discourage foreign language communication from taking place.

Table 9.6 (Percentages of Total Teacher and Student Talk)

University	Teacher Talk %		Student Talk %	
	English	Urdu	English	Urdu
Univ. X	56.5	43.5	64	36
Univ. Y	49	51	94.2	5.8
Average	52.8	47.2	79.1	20.9

In the classrooms, it was also observed that teachers frequently change the language of instruction (From native to target and from target to native). They did this to make their students understand the content more easily. However, this pedagogical skills did not seem to produce good results. First many students who felt or have the desire that English should be spoken in the classrooms all the time, they felt that this way of teaching is constantly way of distraction for them.

They could not focus properly because they did know that whether the teacher would use next sentence in the native language or target language which ultimately disturbed the teacher's flow of talking in a result also disturbed the understanding flow of students as well. Secondly the students who were weak in target language they completely ignored the target language and they awaited teacher to explain the same idea in the native language (see Chapter 7 on Interviews). Therefore, mixing language teaching method seems to be more of an interruption than an benefit to understanding and language acquisition.

9.6. Teacher-Student Interaction

Widdowson believes that "the learning of language, like the learning of anything else, is a matter of relating knowledge abstracted from past experience as systems, schemata, formulae, to actual instances by procedural, problem solving activity" (Widdowson, 1983: 108). Billgram emphasises the same view in respect to ESP and states that "...particularly in ESP, we are concerned again with problem-solving - with the 'negotiated settlement' rather than the imposed solution" (Billgram, 2009: 97). The achievement of these ends depends primarily on how the teacher sets up activities and participant structures that will provide opportunities for the learners to interact and negotiate meaning, with one another and the teacher, in the target language (Allwright and Bailey, 1991: 139). Table 9.4 shows that 50.7% (*tgiE+tgiU*) of the types of teacher talk is information giving, with (teE: teacher encouraging correction in English) as 23.4% being next in frequency. A prevailing feature of teaching in these classes is a tendency for the teachers to provide the students with the information they presumably require, primarily through explanation. There is little/no attempt on the part of the teacher to involve the students in the teaching-learning process. Teaching seems to consist of a one-way flow of information produced by the teacher to be consumed by the student. Problem-solving' procedure or 'negotiated settlement, in McDonough's sense, are totally absent from

classroom interaction. What seems to constitute the general notion of teaching is an 'imposed solution'.

The teacher's encouragement of corrections in English (*teE*), 23.4% of the total types of teacher talk, usually comprises two types of teacher activity. Most commonly, incorrect utterances produced by the students in response to the questions either posed by the teacher or asked in the textbook are directly corrected by the teacher. It rarely, if ever, happens that another student is called upon to provide the correct form. In other cases, the teacher simply repeats the student's response as a sign of confirmation and as a means of making it understood by other students. In either case no opportunity is provided for the students to interact and 'negotiate for meaning'.

9.7. Classroom Organisation

Classroom organisation has a decisive role in establishing appropriate situations for productive classroom interaction. Although studies shows that L2 classes are tuned to give more productive results which they are constituted in smaller groups and driven by teacher fronted activities (Chaudron, 1988: 187). Almost all the class room observed for this research were consist of 40 students. They were all in one group. Due to the physical structure and the construction of the class rooms there were no possibility to rearrange the seats to make smaller groups as seats were either fixed to the floor or connected to one another in rows. With the whole tallies being in categories (*sc*) and (*scr*) [whole class teaching], and virtually nothing in categories (*sg*), (*sgc*), (*sp*), (*sgc*), and (*sr*) [small group or individual work] (table 8.1), it is evident that the teachers never tried to group the students for any tasks which involve small group activities.

In the classrooms observed, the teacher seemed to be the focal point, with the attention of the whole class directed at him/her. With 93% of teacher's talk (*tw+tiw*) being directed

at the whole class and only 7% at individual students (ti), and virtually nothing for groups (tg) and (tgw) (table 8.3), it seems quite evident that students have been provided with no opportunity for 'negotiation' or 'problem-solving' type of activity. Lockstep work, according to Byron, sets severe restraints on discourse potential:

It is believed to do so through its denial to students of certain options as to roles they may take up and, hence, of the variety of uses to which they may put language -- the things, that is, they may do with words. It is claimed that the quality of verbal interaction possible between teacher and student, and student and student, is influenced adversely by such factors as (1) the pressure teacher feels to maintain a rapid pace during student oral work in order to avoid boredom among the learners, and (2) the pressures students feel as a result of what Barnes (1973: 191) calls the 'audience effect', i.e. the inhibitions resulting from having to speak 'publicly' in front of a large group of fellow students and the dominating figure of the teacher.

(Byron, 2005: 154)

This is particularly true with the students dealt with in this study. Table 8.8 shows that students were silent for 63.3% of the period while student questioning accounts for only **17.6%** of total student talk (table 9.6). This can be explained as being partly due to their 'inverts' and partly because of teacher's dominance in the classroom.

Small group classroom organisation, as Allwright points out (*Ibid.*), provides the students with an intimate setting in which the inhibitions mentioned above disappear and an 'exploratory' type of talk, as Barnes calls it, occurs. Barnes writes:

An intimate group allows us to be relatively inexplicit and incoherent, to change direction in the middle of a sentence, to be uncertain and self-contradictory. What we say may not amount to much, but our confidence in

our friends allows us to take the first groping steps towards sorting out our thoughts and feelings by putting them into words. I shall call this sort of talk 'exploratory'.

(Barnes, 1973: 19)

Table 9.7 (Distribution of Total Talk Over Categories)

University	Student Talk %				
	sirE	sqtU	sqtE	scrE	Sch
Univ. X	54.3	30.5	0	0	15.2
Univ. Y	74	4.7	0	1.3	20
Average	64.2	17.6	0	0.6	17.6

A further significant point emerges through the examination of these figures. *Although 64.2% of student talk is responses to questions in English (sir), and only 17.6% in category (sqtE) (totally in English: table 9.6), it is clear that practically all responses provided by the students in the foreign language have been in reply to the teacher's questions or commands. There is no questioning of the teacher in English.*

Table 9.8 (Distribution of Classroom Time over Categories)

University	Student Talk %	Student Silent %
University X	30.3	69.7
University Y	43	57
Average (two univs)	36.7	63.3

9.8. Types of Teacher Talk

It is equally important to note the percentage tallies in Types of Teacher Talk'. It emerges that 52.8% ($tgiE+tagE+teE+tgdE+tpE$) of total teacher talk was in English (table 9.5), which comprises just a little more than half. But more significant is the nature, amount, and distribution of teacher talk. Table 8.8 shows that the most heavily loaded cell in this section (i.e. Types of Teacher Talk) is encouraging correction in English (teE : Teacher's activity in this category involved treating students' errors by providing the correct forms. What actually happened in this process was that individual students were assigned to do an exercise or to read out a part of a passage from the textbook and the teacher corrected him/her, repeating the student's utterance, either for the purpose of correction or simply repetition, possibly to reinforce learning.

This accounted for 25.3% of total English talk by the teacher, and mainly involved the explanations provided by the teacher, on which the students often took notes. Giving directions in English ($tgdE$) with 13.3% of total teacher talk in English (table 9.8) seemed more like stereotype directions given by the teacher while going over different sections of the lesson. Asking questions in English ($tagE$), which accounts for 11% of teacher talk in L2, seemed to be the primary means (along with ($tagU$)) of engaging the students in classroom activities and the sole prompt to student talk

Praising in English (tpE : 5.6%) is the most neglected category in this section. It is generally agreed that praising, if properly used, has positive psychological effects on the learner and encourages progress. Only 3% of total teacher talk involved praising student performance (table 8.4), and of this the frequency and the manner in which this occurred often looked like a repetitive verbal habit; thus this highly predictable response by the teacher lost the effect of praise.

Table 9.9 (Distribution of Teacher Talk in English over Categories)

University	Teacher Talk in English %					
	tgiE	taqE	teE	tgdE	tpE	trE
University X	29.5	9.8	37.6	18.2	4.9	0
University Y	21	12.4	52	8.3	6.3	0
Average(both univs)	25.3	11	44.8	13.3	5.6	0

9.9. University X vs. University Y

In spite of the similarities that are prevalent in the patterns of interaction in both universities, there are some differences that are rather revealing. Percentage tallies in categories (*tgiE*) and (*tgdE*) (table 8.4) indicate that teachers speak more English at University X than at University Y. Two reasons may account for this. First, most of the students that are admitted to University X are comparatively more competent than those admitted to University Y (this emerged through their achievements in English on the Entrance Exam. The average mark is 70.2 for X and 58.2 for University Y). Therefore, English teachers at X seem more confident in using English as the language of instruction in the ESP classrooms, to which the students seem to be more receptive as well. Second, teachers at University X enjoy a better teaching background inherited from its past English teaching programme. Categories (*tagU*) and (*tgdU*) (**table 9.4**) indicate that teachers at University Y tend to use comparatively more Urdu, perhaps because students at this university are less competent in English.

And although table 9.4 indicates that the amount of Urdu used at University X (38.8%) is slightly more than that at University Y (35.8%), it is necessary to point out that in some of the classrooms observed at University X, it happened

that teachers were doing the translation section in the textbook, which involved more use of Urdu; therefore, the number of tallies in this category increased

Table 9.9 indicates that teachers at X seem to be less silent than their colleagues at University Y. It follows that students at University Y must consequently have more chance of talking than those at University X. This indication is confirmed by the enormous difference observed between the percentage tallies in category (*sir*) (table 9.6). An explanation regarding this point seems to be in order. As already mentioned, students attracted to University X seem to be higher achievers than those attracted to University Y. Teachers working at University Y are well aware of their students' weaknesses in English; therefore, they strive to go over every single point in the textbook and involve the students in this regard. But, at University X, the teachers, assuming that the students either know certain points or are able to get them quickly, may feel it unnecessary to involve the students in going over all points; hence, they either skip them or simply provide the required information so that the students may check them against their own responses. This, may account for the difference observed in category (*sir*) between the two universities.

Table 9.10 (Distribution of Classroom Time Over Categories)

University	Teacher Talk %	Teacher Silent %
University X	72.1	27.9
University Y	64.5	35.5
Average (both univs)	68.3	31.7

9.10 Summary

The major concern of this chapter has been to explore the classroom activities of the ESP teachers as exhibited through their teaching interaction with the students. In particular, the study endeavoured to investigate the general aspects of such interactions

with regard to the significance of their educational nature in the teaching / learning process, including the amount and nature of teacher talk and student talk; the extent to which teacher asked questions, stated facts, or gave instructions; the type of questions asked, whether open-ended, or always expected right answers; the nature and the type of talk initiated by the students, and the extent to which they got involved in classroom activities.

From schedules of classroom interaction in the two universities, with or differences, a fairly uniform pattern of behaviour emerged. Instruction in the classrooms observed was mainly teacher-centred, with most of the behaviour being that of impositive functions. Teachers tended to give information rather than elicit it from students. The amount of teacher talk was high compared to student talk, with little dialogue taking place between the teacher and the students. Teachers' questions have invariably been the prompt to student talk. In other words, practically all student talk in English was triggered by teachers' questions. Student talk consisted primarily of the responses elicited with reference to the textbook, and, on those rare occasions when they tried to initiate talk, it involved questions dealing with lexical meaning, pronunciation, checking correct answers, and grammatical questions, which were totally expressed in the native language. Teaching was not done by discovery or through problem-solving, but largely by explanation. Teacher's use of target language in functional communication with the students was, in effect, both minimal and uncreative, and actual student use of the foreign language was almost nil. In all too many cases, the teacher appeared to be the active performer, and the student the passive listener. Teachers often repeated what they had said to reinforce points, leading to monotony in the teacher's patterns of behaviour.

Praise, encouragement, and use of student ideas (if ever expressed) seldom occurred. Nor did reprimand and criticism. Even when praise did actually occur, it looked more like a transactional statement than really signifying a sense of appreciation. The textbook seemed to be the focal point of attention for both the teacher and the students, and all classroom activities were centred on accomplishing every single task designed in it. All in all, the overall tendency seemed to be for both the teacher and the students to work on

bits of language collected in the textbook in a puzzle-like manner rather than establishing an atmosphere of 'negotiation' through functional communication leading to comprehension and, eventually, language acquisition.

CHAPTER 10

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

10.1. Introduction

In chapter 5, programme evaluation was defined as "*the systematic collection and analysis of all relevant information necessary to promote the improvement of a curriculum and assess its effectiveness and efficiency, as well as the participants' attitudes within the context of the particular institutions involved*" (Judith, 2006: 112). Typically, the primary purpose of evaluation has been to determine the general effectiveness of a programme, usually for purposes of improving it or defending its utility to outside administrators or agencies (Alen, 1999 & Brown, 1989).

Considering evaluation in the context of foreign language education, not solely for 'decision-making and bureaucratic purposes of accountability, where 'value for money' is the primary concern, but also for bringing about developments', requires that the information yielded is viewed practically, usefully, and within a broad perspective. Looking exclusively at evaluation in quantitative terms might incur the risk of overlooking what had actually been achieved in qualitative developments. Hence, "*Unless evaluation goes beyond the numbers game, we are not in a position to lay claims for success, since statistics per se do not tell us about the 'effects' of the educational evaluation*" (Blankeship,2010).

This chapter draws together the results of the data analysed in chapters 7, 8, and 9. It synthesises the findings in order to draw conclusions, identify key areas needing further research and, where appropriate, make policy recommendations. The chapter is divided into ten sections, mainly addressing the research questions raised in the original design of the study. Following this introduction, the second section deals with the goals and objectives of the programme, examining their merit and discussing their relationship and appropriateness to the given situation. Section three examines the language needs of the students as perceived by relevant stakeholders, investigating the measures taken by curriculum developers for their recognition and assessment. Section four discusses the appropriateness of the objectives to the needs of the students, by considering the materials and the effectiveness of teaching method. Section five discusses the learning outcomes of the programme. Section six examines the attitudes and motivation of participants toward the programme. Section seven discusses the impact of the programme on others outside the programme. Section eight touches upon teacher factors and discusses their role and situation in the given environment. Implications of the study and suggestions for further research are discussed in sections nine and ten respectively.

10.2. Findings for the Goals And Objectives of The Programme

Wiess believes that in evaluating any educational programme, in addition to other components, its aims should also be evaluated (Wiess, 2010). By the same token, McGinley indicates that the evaluation of the objectives of a programme "is likely to be helpful in drawing up a list of items to be examined and, clearly, the criterion for deciding what to include or omit is relevance to the aims" (McGinley, 1986: 338). He elaborates on this point and states: "It is fitting that this criterion should apply as relevance, e.g. identification of needs, a relevance of language, etc., has been, and probably continues to be a key concept in ESP". Although programme objectives might be inscrutable, as they are presumably the premises upon which the components of the programme are based, as Nunan points out

“Evaluator may take exception to objectives that appear to be misguided or unrealistic (for example, the objective in a writing program of having foreign students attain the same proficiency level as native speakers)”

(Nunan, 1992: 192).

Mansoor considers the role of reading skills in Pakistani educational institutes and explains the ability of Pakistani teachers/students as the main objective of language teaching/learning at the universities in this country (Pakistan) (Mansoor, 2009). According to the objectives of the program under evaluation, one of the purposes was to enable the students to read and extract information from the pure and applied scientific materials in their major fields of study". In addition, in the 'General Introduction' to the stage III textbook (for engineers), the co-ordinator of the programme indicates that "The exercises have been so designed to develop the reading comprehension skill in the students, enabling them to use foreign scientific sources, in addition to the exercises designed to develop the skill of translation as well".

As pointed out in chapter 2, in the original design of the programme, the objectives intended for each instructional stage included all language skills, i.e. listening, speaking, reading, and writing, with more emphasis, however, on reading comprehension particularly in the last two stages. After the programme was implemented, the objectives were revised, excluding, in effect, listening, speaking; and writing skills and including translation instead. Hence, the curriculum developers of the ESP programme eventually set as the objective of the programme: to develop in the students primarily the ability to read and comprehend English language academic materials (textbooks, references, and specialised journals) in their disciplines and secondarily to translate them into the native language.

Clearly, reading comprehension has been set as the main objective of the ESP programme in Engineering universities, Punjab, Pakistan , and this is entirely

appropriate. Firstly, the English language taught at the tertiary level of education in Pakistan, excluding the English majors, has an auxiliary role. It is not an end in itself, but a means to an end. It is intended to provide the students with the basic ability to receive information associated with their specialist studies. This is particularly the case because the essential textbook material in the majority of disciplines is not available in the native language. Pakistani students, on entering university, find themselves overwhelmed by the bulk of English materials assigned to them as part of the coursework or as supplementary readings and references. One SSp teacher indicated in an interview that more than 90% of the sources they used were in English (SSpT. Int. 1.5), although the amount differs in different disciplines. Coping with situations of this sort naturally requires that the students substantially develop the skill of reading.

Secondly, reading has generally been regarded as an essential skill for ESL/EFL students and the most important ability required for mastering the other English language skills (Saleemi, 2007; Lynch and Hudson, 1991; Oiler, 1972). Students' progress in their subject specialism, particularly in an academic context where the sources of information are mostly in English, is tied to their ability to read and comprehend the materials with ease. Therefore, as one SSp teacher put it, "the more proficient they [students] are in English, the more successful they are in their own field of study" (SSp T. Int. 1.6).

Finally, the language of instruction at university level is Urdu or bilingual (English and Urdu). This implies that the students do not need to speak in English, nor do they need to understand spoken English. Generally, however, the skills of listening and speaking have no relevance to their academic performance at undergraduate level. However, at graduate level, quite a minority of students may get the chance of taking part in seminars outside the country, so they need to acquire these skills. As for writing, at graduate level students of some disciplines are required to write paper and theses in

English. These students definitely need to develop writing skills, and are required to take the English courses intended to develop the necessary skills in each department.

Apart from reading, the second component that needs to be scrutinized is 'translation'. Although translation is not favoured much in communicative notions of language teaching, Tiford states two reasons advocating the use of translation as a component in English language programmes at the tertiary level:

The first is that it makes sense to build on the well-developed 'feel' for, and knowledge of, the L2 that these advanced learners already have, and to exploit the fact that they have minds which are being trained to work analytically. Translation is inherently a problem solving exercise, and it is a particularly appropriate resource for learners at this level. The second reason is that translation, as a cognitive exercise, is well suited to the needs of groups of learners, many of whose job opportunities will be in 'academic' areas (such as school teaching), and who will need to be able to reflect and talk about their L2 as well as communicate or talk in this L2. For this type of learner, translation clearly has an important role to play: it may help to improve communicative potential in the L2 while at the same time providing an analytic tool for establishing where exactly the communicative norms of the U diverge from those of the first language (L1).

(Tiford,1983: 52)

Similarly, Mertens argues that "translation, conceived of in a certain way, can be a very useful pedagogic device and indeed in some circumstances, notably those where a foreign language is being learnt for 'special purposes' as a service subject, translation of a kind may provide the most effective means of learning" (Mertens 2009: 101).

In addition, translation of technical texts requires a fine mastery of both the source and the target languages as well as an informed understanding of the subject matter. The

inclusion of translation exercises in the ESP programme may provide the students with the basic training required for those who would eventually end up as technical translators as well.

10.3. Findings Relating to the Needs of the Students

Nunan considers the identification of learning goals an important step in the development of a language programme as it tends to provide a rationale for the course or programme (Nunn, 1988- 24). "Learning goals," according to him, "may be derived from a number of sources, including task analysis, learner data, ministry of education specifications, and so on" (Ibid). "Needs analysis is generally regarded as criterial to ESP, although ESP is by no means the only educational enterprise which makes use of it" (Robinson, 1991: 7). This is particularly so because ESP is goal-oriented. That is to say, students study English not because they want to fulfil their own interests but because they want to use it as a means of achieving something else - - for study or work purposes.

An effective management of ESP teaching requires a proper understanding of students' language needs. That is, one needs to know what and how they require to communicate at what level and with which skill. It is also necessary to know the students' educational background in English, their aspirations, and the place English occupies in their long-term plans. In addition, a knowledge of their attitude to English language learning and teaching as well as their expectations of an English class and syllabus is also necessary. For Blankship this is "The most crucial problem at present...". He says:

The most crucial problem at present facing foreign language syllabus designers, and ultimately materials producers, in the field of language for specific purposes, is how to specify validly the target communicative competence. At the heart of this problem is a reluctance to begin with the learner rather than the text and the lack of a rigorous system for finding

out the communicative needs that are prerequisite to the appropriate specification of what is to be taught.

(Blankeship, 2010)

In the context of Pakistani Engineering institutions, ESP generally stands for the felt need for a functional command of English for academic purposes mainly for students beginning advanced scientific/engineering training. As indicated in chapter 7, curriculum developers of the ESP programme perceived reading comprehension as the major skill the students needed to develop. This perception was not based on a systematic and in-depth needs assessment of the learners. As such, technically speaking, the programme is based on, in Hutchinson and Waters' terms, "the sponsor's needs:... on what the parent university, the company, or the agency thinks the needs of the students are" (Hutchinson and Waters, 1984: 108). This is not desirable because, according to them, "While this perspective is undeniably important, it is incomplete, as it leaves out the views of other interested parties, such as the ESP teacher, the teaching institution, and the learner ... When all these are considered (as they must be for ESP to be communicative), the picture we get of 'needs' is much richer and more complex" (op. cit.: 108-109).

As mentioned in Chapter 2, the education authorities did carry out a questionnaire survey dealing with the opinion of informants in some relevant departments at the higher education commission. The results seem to have yielded some information regarding the importance of foreign language education, the type of language to be taught, and the appropriate skill(s) to be developed in the students. However, Blair believes that "An analysis of needs should of course include all points of view - the learner, the language teacher and the subject specialist should all be consulted so that some consensus can be arrived at. The learner and his needs as he sees them should not be neglected" (Blair, 2004: 120). Clearly, needs assessment, which Mackay and Bosquet consider as the point of departure in the basic information gathering phase (Mackay and Bosquet, 1981) has been neglected and, as Kennedy points out, the

programme designers have tended to observe learner needs "from the analyst's point of view rather than the learner's" (Kennedy, 1980: 120). As such, the ESP programme designers seem to have based their decisions on some ad hoc and a priori perceived need of the students.

Interestingly enough, the findings of this study indicate that the programme designers' perception of students' needs is consistent with those of the stakeholders. The majority of the SSp teachers believed that their students needed primarily the ability to read and understand the English sources in their area of specialism. They reasoned that most of the sources the students used, in particular the scientific sources, were in English; therefore, the skill they needed most was reading comprehension. The same view was expressed by the majority of the ESP teachers in both the questionnaire and the interview.

Besides reading comprehension, a minority of the SSp teachers and the ESP teachers indicated 'translation' as another skill the students needed to acquire. However, it was regarded more as a means of facilitating comprehension and better understanding of the texts than the development of a separate skill. This is also consistent with the programme designers' view of students' need regarding translation. However, while the teachers considered translation as an asset to comprehension, the programme designers saw it as a skill to be developed for prospective scientific translators in the long run.

Students, however, perceived their 'needs' seemingly mixed with their 'wants'. The majority of the students perceived English as a means of getting access to scientific sources in their subject specialism and; therefore, indicated reading comprehension as the most important skill they needed to develop. However, there were many who pointed out other skills, and in particular speaking, as their needs. Students' felt needs,

as revealed through the questionnaire and the interview, were justified on different grounds and were actually justifiable in their own right; they seemed to stem more from the students' personal interests than their actual professional needs. Students, in fact, recognised the instrumental role of English and did know what language skill(s) they needed to develop but, it seemed, they could not help expressing their wishes as well.

Syllabus designers, according to Nunan, generally employ two types of needs analysis: learner analysis and task analysis (Nunan, 1988: 13). Learner analysis seeks information about the learner's aim in language learning. Task analysis, on the other hand, is employed "to specify and categorise the language skills required to carry out real-world communicative tasks, and often follows the learner analysis which establishes the communicative purposes for which the learner wishes to learn the language. It seems that Pakistani curriculum developers carried out the task analysis but not the learner analysis.

Hutchinson and Waters make a distinction between target needs and learning needs, i.e. between what the learner needs to do in the target situation and what he needs to do in order to learn (Hutchinson and Waters, 1987: 54). In discussing 'target needs', they look at the target situation in terms of necessities, lacks and wants. 'Necessities', according to them, refers to "the type of need determined by the demands of the target situation, that is, what the learner has to know in order to function effectively in the target situation" ; 'lacks' refers to the gap between the existing proficiency of the learner and his required target proficiency, which needs to be identified 'Wants', however, refers to the learner's view of his needs, in which, contrary to the previous two, the learner plays an active role .

Regarding this very last point, Hutchinson and Waters state that "Learners may well have a clear idea of the 'necessities' of the target situation: they will certainly have a

view as to their 'lacks'. But it is quite possible that the learners' views will conflict with the perceptions of other interested parties". (57, 1987) They specially draw attention to this point and, by illustrative case study examples, indicate that, "there is no necessary relationship between necessities as perceived by sponsor or ESP teacher and what the learners want or feel they need at is also likely that the views of sponsor and teacher will similarly be at odds!) Bearing in mind the importance of learner motivation in the learning process, learner perceived wants cannot be ignored.

It is, nevertheless, worth considering Kennedy's comment in this regard. Kennedy, while admitting that "respect must be shown for learner wishes and ... [they] should be catered for as part of the ESP programme", cautions that "there can be pitfalls if the learner's wishes are allowed to dominate entirely", and states: "A learner's notion of proficiency in English may be naive or based on inadequate educational experience. He may think to 'know' a language implies a concentration on speaking skills, or his conception of 'reading' may be culture-bound and very different from the teacher's notion of reading" (Kennedy, 1980: 120).

All in all, the results of the study indicate that there is a general agreement as to what the needs of the students are. Although no systematic and in-depth needs assessment has been carried out by the programme designers, all the parties involved - the learner, the language teacher, the subject specialist teacher and the programme designer - have generally expressed a common view regarding the need of the students: that they need English in order to be read or to read the texts in their subject specialism - hence, confirming the fact that the needs of the students have been well recognised at the designing stage of the programme, although the broader wishes of the students have not been taken into account, and the question still persists as to whether/how to cater for the wishes of the students. Kennedy's reply to this question, however, seems to be convincing. "If there is a need, then it should be satisfied" (Ibid.).

It is of course a moot point as to whether the omission of a full needs analysis is a specific problem of this programme, or whether it reflects a more general issue of the traditional nature of educational practice in Iran (as outlined in Chapter 2), along with assumptions about the efficacy of centre-periphery models of curriculum development. This study cannot resolve the point, although it is clear that there is a great deal of congruence between the traditional views of teaching, central planning, and the lack of detailed needs analysis with this programme.

10.4. Findings for the Appropriateness of the Objectives to the Needs of the Students

Nunan believes that 'objective' is a loaded term which has caused a lot of debate within the educational community and there is disagreement among curriculum specialists about the nature of objectives (Nunn, 1988: 61). Widdowson makes a distinction between aims and objectives and, in tackling the issue of 'learner needs', indicates that the absence of such a distinction leads to an ambiguity in the expression of learner needs. He reasons that "on the one hand, it [learner needs] can refer to what the learner has to do with the language once he has learned it in this sense it has to do with atm. On the other hand, it can refer to what the learner has to do in order to learn: in this sense, it relates to pedagogic objectives" (Widdowson, 1983:20).

Considering Widdowson's distinction between aims and objectives, as the issue of 'aims' of the programme has been dealt with in the previous sections, the present discussion centres on the issue of 'objectives' of the programme and its appropriateness to the needs of the students. This is represented by appropriateness of materials and effectiveness of teaching as perceived by relevant parties.

10.4.1. Appropriateness of Materials

ESP material has been regarded as a characteristic feature of ESP work (Hutchinson and Waters, 1987: 125). ESP is typically based on the assumption that its courses are designed to meet the specific needs of learners. It follows that the materials designed for this purpose should appropriately meet the learners' requirement for the language. In the learning process, materials and methods play a key role in determining classroom events. Whereas methods may tend to be idiosyncratic, materials within the ESP programme in this study provided a fixed reference point among the participants across the universities.

As indicated in chapters 7 and 8, the results obtained through the questionnaire and the interview show that the ESP teachers and the students were not particularly satisfied with the materials they used, although the number of the students approving of the materials constituted a substantial minority. The reasons indicated by the respondents included the lack of relevance of many texts to their subject specialism, inappropriateness of the materials, quantitatively and qualitatively, to the language level of the students, dullness and de-motivating nature of the materials due to their monotony and uninteresting appearance (i.e. lack of pictures, charts, etc.).

What these results clearly signify is that the materials did not motivate the students. Nor did they prove to be appealing to the teachers. It could well be argued that any learner studying English for specific purposes will be instrumentally motivated due to his seeing the connection between the study of English and his subject specialty. However, the participants' major complaint simply concerns the lack of such relevance. In addition, the deficiency of the materials has also been attributed to their inappropriateness to the level of the students. These findings indicate that key 'design factors' have been neglected in the development of the materials. In other words, the decisions regarding

the preparation of the materials has been made simply on some ad hoc and a priori assumptions.

Design factors in ESP have been substantially explored by scholars in the field (Weiss 2008) and have been considered indispensable to the development of any type of material. In the communicative approach to language teaching, a key concept particularly relevant to ESP material is that of 'authenticity'. Despite the diversity of definitions and the discussion aroused by the teachers, authentic materials in ELT, according to Robinson, have basically been produced originally for a purpose other than the teaching of language. She maintains that "At one extreme, this can be anything that is available to the language teacher but which was not produced for language teaching purposes; at the extreme, of particular relevance to ESP, it will be material normally used in the students' own specialist workplace or study situation" (Robinson, 1991: 54).

The notion of authenticity or how specific ESP courses should be debated in the field of engineers and doctors. The editors of the Proceedings of the Second Regional ESP Conference in Chandigarh, India (2004) said:

A final theme that ran through the conference was the concern, variously expressed, for authenticity in language learning programmes: Authenticity as it applies to materials designed for service English programmes, that they should reflect actual language use, or be in fact records or transcripts of actual language use (i.e. not simplifications or simulations).

(Patel and Subhijeet, 2004)

Similarly, Phillips and Shettlesworth (1988), while discussing the problems in ESP materials design and criticising the specially written materials, argue in support of Authentic Resource Materials (ARM) and say:

We see one possible solution to the problem of providing specialist materials in different disciplines in a manner which is both practical and which avoids most of the theoretical criticisms levelled at specially prepared materials in the exploitation of authentic documents from the student's field of study.

(Phillips and Shettlesworth, 1988: 106)

More recent views have favoured a 'wide-angle' approach to material design in ESP. Widdowson, for instance, argues for an approach in which language and skills are taught through topics that are drawn from a variety of subjects rather than from the students' own discipline or profession (Widdowson, 1983). In the same vein, Hutchinson and Waters argue that the 'narrow-angle' approach is demotivating and irrelevant to student needs and particularly indicate that students should be grouped for ESP classes across broad subject areas with materials drawing from topics that give "access to a number of different specialist areas" in order to make students aware of the "lack of specificity of their needs" (Hutchinson and Waters, 1987: 166 and 167).

Herlad believes that "the essence of ESP is catering for the needs of particular groups of students, taking into account the variables and constraints involved. It is therefore of little use becoming an adherent of one or other of the two approaches, since one situation is likely to pose different problems and hence suggest different solutions from another" (Herald, 2006: 121). Hence, there is a growing concern for supplementing "the wide-angle or so-called common core approach ... by some attempt to define students' more specific needs and the actual language difficulties that they face on a day-to-day basis in classes in their disciplines or in their professional lives" (Johns and Dudley-Evans, 1991: 304). Kennedy, while advocating the common-core approach and regarding it as "a viable approach to ESP", states:

There are, however, specific features of a text, most obviously at the lexical level but also at the level of discourse, which are subject specific,

and there therefore comes a point beyond which common-core materials cannot fully satisfy the students' needs.

(Kennedy, 1980: 121)

His response to this situation, however, is "a common-core set of materials to develop general interpretative abilities which could be transferred across different subject specialisms, together with a set of subject-specific units to practise those linguistic elements or activities relevant to specific specialities (sic)" (Ibid.).

Considering the situation of the ESP programme in this study, it appears that in the original design of the materials there has been a commitment to catering for the perceived needs of the students and hence maintaining their interests. Designing materials at three hierarchical levels aiming at providing the students with the opportunity to develop their knowledge of, first, general English, second, common-core English, and third, specialised English seems to be consistent with what Kennedy calls "A logical response" (Ibid.) to this situation. However, these seemingly logically designed materials have not been appropriately implemented, for three reasons.

First, due to the incorporation of the first two courses (i.e. General English and Semi-specialised English), in practice the first course has been omitted. Hence, the first stage in this process, which was originally intended to develop the basic structures of English, has been ignored. As revealed through the interview with the students and the teachers (Ch. 6), students' weakness in English was mainly attributed to the quality of language education at high school. Therefore, this first stage could play a crucial role in bringing all freshmen students up to a uniform level of English knowledge.

Second, the demand of the students and the ESP teachers for revision mainly refers to the semi-specialised materials currently used at the university. Students criticised them

mainly for the fact that they perceived them as being 'irrelevant' to their subject specialism. This perception partly stems from the fact that the materials, designed as 'common-core English', have no direct relevance to their specialism. But the major problem originates in the way the materials have been organised in the textbooks, which, as explained in Chapter 6, do not provide all relevant students with equal opportunity to benefit from them - due either to the difficulty level or the time constraint. Authenticity is an additional dimension of the problem. Some ESP teachers indicated that in the textbooks in many cases they came across passages that had been translated into English, whereas, they believed, the original texts would have been better used instead (Ch. 7).

Third, the subject specific materials intended for stage three of the programme have not been developed yet. The development of these materials, which have been demanded by many students in this study, could, theoretically speaking, cater for the needs of the students and maintain their interest.

Nevertheless, the students and the ESP teachers' demand for revision of the materials towards subject specificity has certain implications. One implication is that further needs analysis is required in order to tailor the materials more adequately to the learners' needs. (As indicated before, for the preparation of these materials, no substantial needs assessment had been carried out). This could probably be best achieved with input from the subject specialists, which in turn would call for increased efforts to raise the specialists' awareness of the ESP programme, then some feedback from them to enhance the existing ESP courses. However, an appropriate textbook is only really useful in the hands of a qualified teacher, otherwise, there may be little difference in practice between a good and a bad textbook.

10.4.2. Appropriateness of Teaching Method

Practitioners consider ESP as the best example of communicative language teaching. The preoccupation with 'purpose' in ESP has focused attention on language use particularly in occupational and academic situations. In response to the question whether ESP has its own methodology or whether it implies a particular kind of classroom procedure, McDonough admits: "There is no clear-cut answer to this" (McDonough, 1984: 89). Johns and Dudley-Evans indicate that "It [ESP] has tended to be a needs- and materials-led movement, historically questioned by only a few" (Johns and Dudley-Evans, 1991: 305) and later on state:

We believe that ESP requires methodologies that are specialised or unique. An English for academic purposes (EAP) class taught collaboratively by a language teacher and a subject-area lecturer ..., sheltered and adjunct EAP classes ..., and special English classes for students in the workplace ... require considerably different approaches than those found in general English classes.

(Ibid.)

Blair believes that "the criteria that have to be thought about and thought through in course design and methodology for the teaching of language for use derive from principles of general pedagogy and are not exclusive to language teaching" (Blair, 2007: 108). With regard to ESP in particular, he later points out that "the learning of language for a purpose cannot be dissociated from the other activities that need to be undertaken to achieve that purpose. The English to be learned can be purposeful only to the extent that the activities it is used for are purposeful in the actual learning process" (Ibid.). Thus, for him:

ESP is (or ought logically to be) integrally linked with areas of activity (academic, vocational, professional) which have already been defined and which represent the learners' aspirations. The learning of ESP is in consequence an essentially dependent activity, a parasitic process, and it follows that the pedagogy of ESP must be dependent too.

(Blair: 108-9)

On the other hand, while agreeing with Widdowson about the central role of methodology, Hutchinson and Waters, make it clear that they do not believe in an identifiable ESP methodology, as they see no theoretical difference between ESP and teaching general English. The difference basically lies in practical outcome. They believe:

ESP is not different in kind from any other form of language teaching, in that it should be based in the first instance on principles of effective and efficient learning. Though the content of learning may vary there is no reason to suppose that the process of learning should be any different for the ESP learner than for the General English learner. There is, in other words, no such thing as methodology, merely methodologies that have been applied in ESP classrooms, but could just as well have been used in the learning of any kind of English.

(Hutchinson and Waters, 1987: 18)

As indicated in chapters 5 and 7, the ESP teachers in this study did not follow any particular method. In other words, there was no dominant method of teaching that could be labelled as the ESP methodology. Each teacher practised his 'own' method. In practice, however, the dominant teaching procedure, as revealed through the interview and classroom observation, appeared to be in line with traditional ways of teaching - teacher-centredness, textbooks being the focal point of attention, teachers being active performers providing information and students passive listeners consuming information.

For Widdowson, "the learning of language, like the learning of anything else, is a matter of relating knowledge abstracted from past experience as systems, schemata, formulae, to actual instances by procedural, problem solving activity" (Widdowson, 1983: 108).

With respect to ESP, McDonough emphasises the same view and states: "... particularly in ESP, we are concerned again with problem-solving - with the 'negotiated settlement rather than the imposed solution" (McDonough, 1984: 97).

Hutchinson and Waters maintain that "ESP is primarily an educational, rather than a linguistic, concern. It is therefore vital to base the ESP course on the needs of the educational environment, and for the course to be informed not only by linguistic considerations but also - indeed, chiefly - by educational precepts" (Hutchinson and Waters, 1984: 111). They distinguish between two approaches to ESP course design, namely a Language-Centred Approach and a Skills- Centred Approach, and indicate that both approaches neglect the learners' learning needs, and infer that courses based on such approaches cannot generate the necessary excitement. They point out "what the students are expected to cope with has often been confused with what the students require in order to cope" (Hutchinson and Waters, 1988: 178). Thus, they present their Learning-Centred Approach, in which concern for the learners' learning needs is the key element of the course design.

In the context of Pakistani engineering institutions, as mentioned before, ESP stands for the felt need for a functional command of English mainly for academic purposes. The analysis of the target situation, as revealed through this study, indicate that the learners have primarily a reading need in English. The ESP teachers were well aware of this need and considered it as the main objective of the courses. For them, this apparently implied that the teaching methodology, as is common in many teaching situations, should be reading-based. However, in developing this skill in the students, they appeared neither to have the appropriate means nor to adopt the proper approach. The approach they adopted was a traditional one, more in line with the Grammar-Translation Method, seemingly with the assumption that given a mastery of the vocabulary and grammar of a foreign language, the learner will automatically and consistently be able to transfer this linguistic ability to reading any unfamiliar text. The study revealed that

although the majority of the ESP teachers reported that they were developing reading comprehension skills, the students believed that they were learning grammar and vocabulary. This point was confirmed through classroom observation too. Lack of consistency between the objectives of the course and the way to achieve them seems to be one major reason for the course being unsuccessful.

Another major issue of concern in this regard is the appropriateness of the means of achieving the objectives. In ESP practice, reading is the skill that is given primary importance. The validity of a focus upon one single skill is a matter of debate. Although monoskill reading courses have been popular in some parts of the world and reports indicate their relevance (Alderson and Beretta, 1992), Hutchinson and Waters believe that concentration on one skill is limiting and that some attention to other skills is likely to improve performance in the target skill. The findings of this study indicate that although the majority of the students considered reading comprehension as the main skill they needed to develop, they persistently expressed their wish to learn other skills, and in particular speaking. It could be argued that this is what the students 'want' not at they 'need'. However, catering for the learners' interests obviously increases their motivation and thereby facilitates and fosters their learning. Hutchinson and Waters caution against neglecting the affective aspect of learning and state: "enjoyment isn't just an added extra, an unnecessary frill" (Hutchinson and Waters, 1987: 141): learners "get satisfaction from the actual experience of learning, not just from the prospect of eventually using what they have learned" (Madrin,2004).

Also, the view that reading could be developed only by reading "runs counter to educational psychologists' views of the nature of reading, such as those of Frank Smith: in reading, The information that passes from the brain to the eye is more important than the information that passes from the eye to the brain' (Dyes, 2002: 9). In other words, it is the information inside your head that enables you to read, and it does not matter where the information comes from, or how it gets there. This suggests that we might

use work involving any of the other skill areas (listening, speaking, and writing) and a great deal else besides, as well as reading per se, to teach effective reading" (Hutchinson and Waters, 1984: 111).

10.5. Findings for Learning Outcomes

Learner achievement, i.e. outcome, has historically been a major concern of programme evaluation, since it validates instructional objectives. Whereas quantitative approaches to programme evaluation normally focus on the development and use of tests for this purpose, a qualitative approach, places more emphasis on qualitative sources of information. As explained in chapter 4, the problems involved in the selection/development of appropriate tests along with sensitivity to their potential judgmental effect has meant that this study focused on informants' perceptions of the issues. In addition, the views of the SSp teachers, as the main consumers of the products of the ESP programme, on the students' ability to read and understand English texts assigned to them, were perceived as more valid criteria than the results yielded through the application of an abstract measuring device such as testing. The key issue for this evaluation, then, was whether and to what extent teachers and students thought the programme equipped students to read relevant texts and come to understand English as a medium of international communication.

The findings of the study show that the ESP teachers knew what skill the students needed most - reading comprehension - but the students perceived 'grammar' as the main objective of the course. The discrepancy between the teachers' and the students' perception of the objective of the course seems to be due to the fact that the teachers took a round-about approach to achieving it. That is to say, they concentrated mainly on grammar and vocabulary as a way to improve reading comprehension. However, it appeared as if the teachers were themselves doubtful of the success of what they were doing because, later on, in response to a question about the outcome of the course, the

majority indicated that "most of the students were able to 'get to know the English language better'" (table 8.5.1, section 8.6.1.2), which has no indication of (reading) skill development.

Students appeared to be even more doubtful as to what skills they were developing. They seemed to be unclear about the teaching/learning activities and skill development. However, while they did not reveal a feeling of much independence in reading, and their overall impression was that they did not gain much from the ESP courses, they did indicate that their reading ability had to some extent improved and that they read more easily.

Two points need to be made on the students' perception of their achievement: First, culturally speaking, Pakistani students tend to value 'humbleness' and have a negative attitude towards self-praise. Therefore, they normally under-estimate their capabilities and achievements in situations of self-evaluation. Second, the students did not respond easily on what skills/strategies they learned in their courses. This may be mainly due to the fact that the teachers simply did not discuss these points in the classroom. In other words, theoretically speaking, students were virtually unaware of what they were doing and why they did it. They did in fact know what skill they needed to develop, but it was never explicitly revealed to them in what way the teaching/ learning activities contributed to that end.

Classroom observation underlined this point with regard to teacher performance. It emerged that teachers commonly regarded teaching/learning activities as distinctive tasks performed for their own sake, irrespective of their relevance to the whole process of skill development. More importantly, the significance of these activities was not explained to the learners. Apparently, teachers did not consider student awareness of purposive learning activities to be important. This could be either due to the teachers'

lack of theoretical awareness of the point or because they did not appreciate its significance.

Generally speaking, students expressed a feeling of moderate satisfaction with their overall achievement on ESP courses particularly with respect to reading comprehension, although they did not reveal any awareness of what contributed to their achievement. The ESP teachers, on the other hand, though aware of the needs of the students and moderately positive about their overall achievement, appeared not quite sure as of the extent to which they had been to fulfil their needs. The SSp teachers doubted the achievement of the students and indicated that they still refrained from recommending texts in English because of the difficulties their students had in understanding. The programme designers similarly doubted that the students had achieved what they were expected to.

Overall, it would appear that teachers' views of effectiveness and appropriate learning outcomes were rather narrow (reading comprehension), while still not being properly met; whereas, students' views of effectiveness were broader, but similarly were not being met. We can conclude that some limited learning outcomes were being achieved, but perhaps more importantly, the very definition of the effectiveness of the programme would have to be broadened in future work, if the broader needs and wants of the students were to be accommodated.

10.6. Findings for the Attitudes and Motivation within the Programme

Hutchinson and Waters maintain that language learning is an emotional experience, and therefore "the feelings that the learning process evokes will have a crucial bearing on the success or failure of the learning" (Hutchinson and Waters, 1987: 47). Gardner and Lambert, studying motivation and language attitude, identify two types of motivation

relevant to language learning. instrumental and integrative. They consider motivation as instrumental, if the purposes of language study reflect the more utilitarian value of linguistic achievement", and integrative, "if the student wishes to learn more about the other cultural community because he is interested in it in an open-minded way, to the point of eventually being accepted as a member of the other group" (Gardner and Lambert, 1972: 3).

The results of the study indicate that the participants generally viewed English as instrumental and appreciated its role in academic success. The ESP teachers saw it as a means of access to any reading matter in English, which, they believed, was the language of most sources they were supposed to study. The SSp teachers gave an even more important role to English and considered it vital for academic performance in their subject areas. In addition, they attributed a practical value to English and believed that the knowledge of English was a favourable factor in the labour market competition for getting a job. Students similarly appreciated the instrumental value of English and regarded it as having a determining role in their academic success. The majority of them considered the learning of ESP as a means of access to specific bibliography. However, they did not appear to be much satisfied with the ESP courses overall, and only a minority of them felt that the ESP courses would actually result in increased chances of getting a better job, although their ESP teachers showed a more positive attitude in this regard.

A minority of respondents considered ESP a preparation to meet economic development or a means of spreading cultural domination by other nations. Although anecdotal evidence implied that as a result of the Islamization of country in Zia's regime in the country, the general impression of the university students was against foreign language learning, the evidence of this survey does not bear this out. Especially in the interview, the participants revealed many favourable attitudes toward learning foreign languages. They particularly mentioned English because they regarded it not only as a

means of access to the sources of knowledge but also as a means of communication with the outside world. Although less than a majority of students felt that the ESP courses would actually provide them with the chances of getting a job, they saw it as moderately relevant to their professions.

With respect to materials, the results indicate that the majority of the students did not regard them very positively, although the numbers approving of the materials were still a substantial minority. Students' negative attitudes toward the materials seems to be mainly due to the fact that they saw them as irrelevant to their subject specialism.

As the majority of them indicated their interest in the content of the materials. The ESP teachers also revealed a negative attitude. The majority of them indicated that they were not satisfied with the materials they used. However, when expressing reasons for dissatisfaction, there was no majority response favouring one particular reason.

Students did not feel classroom management to be entirely satisfactory. They thought they had too passive a role in the classroom. Teachers' and students' opinions differed as to the amount of opportunity provided for self-expression in the classroom. However, classroom observation results tended to confirm students' opinion in this respect.

Generally speaking, the results of this study underline the positive attitude of the participants toward teaching/learning English as a foreign language. English is viewed as having instrumental value, necessary for gaining access to the sources of knowledge, important for academic performance, and a key factor in student success. However, the ESP programme, in spite of its minor achievements is not regarded as a success. The materials, though appealing to the interest of the students, are not viewed as satisfactory, because not relevant to their subject specialism. Classroom

management lacks the necessary vitality, and therefore has failed to maintain the interest of the students. As a result, they tend to feel unmotivated and, thereby, not satisfied.

10.7. Findings for Impact on others Outside the Programme

Since the ESP programme had been intended primarily to develop a reading ability in the students so that they could read and understand English texts in their own discipline, subject departments were regarded as the main consumers of the products of the programme. Thus, the impact of the programme was traced through subject specialist teachers to investigate its possible effects on subject departments.

The results indicate that the SSp teachers considered the knowledge of English of primary importance for their students. They regarded it as the key to success in academic performance. However, they did not appear to be much satisfied with the proficiency of the students, and therefore, they mostly refrained from recommending English texts to the students because of the difficulties they had in understanding. This, they believed, affected the quality of education because, to alleviate this problem, they had to go over the materials along with the students in the classroom, which was time consuming, and therefore, a substantial part of the syllabus was left untouched. Some, however, disregarded students' language proficiency and left the problem to the students, justifying this by saying that they had no other choice, for the lack of similar sources in the native language. However, they admitted that the students had difficulty in tackling the problem and it affected the learning outcome to a great extent.

The SSp teachers attached practical value to a knowledge of English and regarded it as an important factor in employment. They reasoned that since most of the university graduates were attracted to the companies in the private sector, they were required to

have a good command of English in order to read catalogues, manuals and reports as well as conduct correspondence with companies abroad. However, they doubted that the students would get adequate language proficiency at the university for this purpose.

Subject departments did not seem to have been affected by ESP courses. Many SSp teachers indicated that they knew nothing about the ESP courses, except that their students were required to take them just as they did with other general courses. The reason for this seems to be that the English departments were professionally detached from subject departments and there was no communication between them, probably because the ESP teachers already had the pre-prepared teaching materials (textbooks) and they felt no need to be in touch with the subject departments. That is why there was a call from SSp teachers for more departmental communication and co-operation so that, as they believed, the art of language teaching could be enhanced by the appropriate subject-specific content.

10.8. Findings with Respect to Teacher Factors in the Programme

The role of ESP teacher appears to be a controversial issue. Bennet says: "ESP courses, and the institutions around the world which offer them, are so varied that there can be no single model for the ESP teacher. We can certainly find conflicting viewpoints about the qualifications and capabilities needed by the ESP teacher and of the tasks which the teacher is expected to perform" (Bennet, 2003: 79). Mertens (2009) uses the term 'ESP practitioner' with some justification in order to reflect the multi-part role. And Strevens (1988), in response to the question, 'Who is the ESP teacher?' says: "Almost always he or she is a teacher of General English who has unexpectedly found him/herself required to teach students with special needs. The experience is often a shocks", goes on to say that the shock may be a mixture of the welcome and the unwelcome (Strevens, 1988: 42).

Hutchinson and Waters (1987) see ESP within the context of language teaching in general and indicate that this applies as much to the role of the teacher as to materials and methodology. However, they distinguish between the work of the General English teacher and the ESP teacher in some important practical ways. For one thing, the ESP teacher is usually called upon to play different roles. In addition to the normal functions of a classroom teacher, he/she is likely to deal with needs analysis, syllabus design, materials writing or adaptation and evaluation. For another, the majority of the ESP teachers have not been trained for this purpose and, therefore, need "to orientate themselves to a new environment for which they have generally been ill-prepared" (Judith, 2004: 157).

Nearly all the ESP teachers dealt with in this study indicated that they had no training for teaching the ESP courses. The majority of them said that they had experience in teaching General English and adapted themselves to teaching the ESP courses. What matters here is how whether the 'adaptation' has taken place. Classroom observation findings showed that the teaching practice most common among the ESP teachers was a traditional approach emphasising grammar and vocabulary. This was done despite the fact that they believed they were working toward the objective of the course , i.e. reading comprehension.

Regardless of the validity of a mono-skill approach to language teaching, reading skills cannot be developed merely through grammar and vocabulary, unless the learners are taught how to make use of reading strategies. As indicated in Chapter 8, a prevailing feature of teaching that emerged in this study was a tendency to provide the students with the information they presumably required, primarily through teacher explanation, with little/no attempt to involve the students in the teaching/learning process. Most commonly, students' errors were directly corrected by the teacher. McDonough says: "... in ESP, we are concerned with problem solving - with the 'negotiated settlement' rather than the imposed solution" (McDonough, 1984: 97). Achieving these ends depends

primarily on how the teacher sets up activities and participant structures that will provide opportunity for learners to interact and negotiate for meaning, with one another and the teacher, in the target language (Allwright and Bailey, 1991: 139). Teachers in this study did most of the talking and there was little dialogue with students. Teachers' use of target language in functional communication with students was, in effect, both minimal and uncreative, and actual student use of foreign language was almost nil. The textbook seemed to be the focal point of attention for both teacher and students, and all classroom activities were centred on accomplishing every single task in it. Praise, encouragement, and use of student ideas (if ever expressed) seldom occurred; nor did reprimand or criticism.

All these points indicate that these teachers need to become aware of their roles as ESP teachers. They should be acquainted with ESP professionalism, which makes the in-service training of ESP teachers an indispensable necessity. This point was also underlined in the interview with the ESP teachers (Ch 6). Bretta, in this respect, suggests that the principles "may be derived from educational, language teaching and ELT domains", with only the exemplification of these principles being specific (Bretta, 2004: 51-2). And Stevens states:

The methodologies of ESP conform to the same model of the language learning/teaching process as does any other form of language teaching. That is to say, the basic teaching activities are these:

- Shaping the input*
- Encouraging the learners' intention to learn*
- Managing the learning strategies*
- Promoting practice and use*

(Stevens, 1988: 44)

However, he believes that "Such professionalism is not easily achieved", and states:

"While every good teacher of English is potentially a good teacher of ESP, he or she needs special help and training. The teacher who is new to ESP needs advice, help and support from those teachers who already have the necessary experience"

(Stevens, 1988: 43).

Having said this, it is equally important to consider the problematic aspects of ESP teaching revealed through this study, and which, no doubt, had a distinct bearing on the success or failure of the language teaching in this particular setting.

The majority of the ESP teachers complained about the large classes they had to deal with. The problem of classes with students of mixed ability was also mentioned by both the teachers and the students. Another problem was that of motivation. A minority of the students felt that they already knew English. Some others who were anxious to get on with their professional studies saw English courses as irrelevant and an infringement of their time. Others felt that they could in fact pass their subject examinations without a knowledge of English. This view mainly stemmed from the fact that the ESP courses were offered at the start of the students' university studies and they did not appreciate the value of the courses until they began studying their major courses. One solution to this problem, as suggested by the students, was to offer the ESP courses simultaneously with their subject courses, ideally throughout their university career.

The next problem voiced by both the teachers and the students was the insufficiency of teaching hours. This was the major source of complaint indicated by all parties. It was mainly attributed to the status of English among other subjects, the administration's attitude towards English language teaching, and the central government's language

policy, which affected the professional status of the English teachers as well. Low priority given to English timetabling and lower status felt by English teachers compared to subject teachers were both indicated as the consequences of this attitude.

On English teaching professionalism, Khadija (2007: 82) citing Early, says: 'The ESP teacher typically leads an uneasy existence housed in a curriculum which exists on the margin of the academic world. It is not a situation which is conducive to a strong sense of professional identity' (Early, 1981: 44)". A solution suggested by Rivers in this respect is that ESP/EST be "approached systematically by well-trained, or self-trained, specialized teachers"; otherwise, "it will not gain the respect of specialists in other areas of foreign-language departments. It will then continue to be fobbed off on junior faculty, or senior faculty with low registrations in courses in their own faculty, on the assumption that teaching language is teaching language and anyone can do it" (Rivers, 1983: 66).

However, it is equally important to consider the constraints that an average ESP teacher faces in Punjab, Pakistan. The interview with the ESP teachers revealed that they were usually overloaded, and therefore, had no time to 'up-grade' their expertise or bother about self-training or innovation in their profession. They had to confine themselves, because of constraints of time, to the ESP textbook and develop the students' existing knowledge and abilities for a desired purpose, which, in effect, happened to be the examination. In addition, many of the teachers and the students criticised English teaching at secondary level for having no consideration either for the students' immediate interest or for their long-term needs. Consequently, ESP teachers had to compensate for students' language deficiencies and teach them with sympathetic understanding for their needs.

All in all, considering the problems and the constraints that ESP teachers face in the educational situation just described, it is crucial for them in the first place to become

aware of their role as ESP teachers, and in the second, to develop their professional competence. This requires that they are provided with the necessary training for the role they play. In addition, one should bear in mind that the success of a teacher is the result of his/her general teaching skill as well as the appropriateness of the teaching material. And Robinson's point in this regard is in other when she says: "One of the prime requisites [of an ESP teacher] would seem to be flexibility - and a willingness to try new approaches and methods" (Robinson, 1991: 96). Thus, an ESP teacher should treat the textbook as a tool not a tyrant. A textbook may be helpful but the teacher has also to complement it with his/her own ideas and modify the content to suit his/her own teaching style, the needs of students or the constraints and advantages of the circumstances. Anyhow, "Becoming an effective teacher of ESP," suggests Strevens, "requires more experience, additional training, extra effort, a fresh commitment, compared with being a teacher of General English" (Strevens, 1988: 43).

10.9. Implications of the Study

The key findings of this study have implications for policy as well as practice with respect to the ESP programme in Punjab, Pakistan. The various inadequate aspects of the programme need due consideration.

As already pointed out, the participants generally revealed a positive attitude toward teaching/learning English as a foreign language. They regarded English as a means of access to the sources of knowledge, important for academic performance, and a key factor to student success. There was also a general agreement that the perceived needs of the students had been well recognised and the objectives had been well set. However, the programme was not regarded a success due to its failure to achieve the intended objectives.

The findings of the study indicate that the inadequacy of the programme is due to the following fundamental factors:

10.9.1. Needs Analysis

- In designing the programme, the fundamental step of 'needs assessment' has been neglected. This has had a direct bearing on devising the objectives of the programme. Determining objectives based on some ad hoc assumptions has resulted in the neglect of the views of the students, particularly with respect to the students' 'wants' and 'wishes'.
- In weighing the priorities of programme designers on the one hand and educational policy-makers on the other, the views of the policy-makers have been favoured, and therefore, programme designers' views have been neglected
- The development of materials has not been based on a thorough analysis of the needs of the students. As a result, they have neither satisfied the needs of the learners nor motivated the interest of the teachers.

10.9.2. Teacher Training

- No provisions have been made for ESP teacher training Current teachers have not received any in-service training either. General English teachers have undertaken a new job for which they do not seem to be well-prepared. As a result, teaching-learning activities in the classroom are very restricted
- The ESP teachers have not been provided with sufficient guidance on their initiation or integration into the programme; at minimum, teachers' manuals for handling the materials should be provided.

10.9.3. Teacher Support

- No test instruments have been provided for the ESP teachers to assess students with. Nor have teachers been supplied with the techniques and procedures to do this.
- ESP teachers have no standards for the control of quality and progress of the students. Hence, they have no clear idea as to what level of proficiency their students should attain.

10.9.4. Evaluation

- Decisions made regarding the revision of the programme in the implementation stage have not derived from a thorough evaluative study of the programme. Consequently, the modifications have incurred more harm than improvement to the programme.
- Evaluation, the monitoring agent of accountability, quality assurance, improvement and development, has not been included in the programme. Therefore, no information regarding the strengths and weaknesses of the programme has so far been collected and, as a result, except for some revisions of the materials, the programme has not revealed any dynamism.

Thus, special attention should be paid to the following seven areas of improvement:

First, the revision of the programme is an issue of great importance which require immediate attention, not only for accountability but also for improvement and enhancement of the dynamism of the programme. Evidently, any piecemeal and a *priori* revisions will not do any good to the programme. The programme should now, after one and a half decades of operation, be reviewed, with the benefit of hindsight, in its entirety and scrutinised in the light of findings from a thorough and all-inclusive

needs assessment, encompassing the views of all interested parties and covering all aspects of the programme. Findings of the present study are of significant value in this respect and could be utilised for decision-making.

Second, materials also need to be revised, not only in content but also in the layout and appearance of the textbooks. Needs analysis should be carried out in order to tailor the materials more adequately to the needs of the learners. This could be achieved through input from both students and the subject specialists and would in turn call for increased efforts to raise the specialists' awareness of the ESP programme, then to elicit some feedback from them to establish a quality cycle for the intended purposes.

Third, the need for in-service teacher training is immense. Most teachers have no formal training in teaching ESP. Any new programme will obviously involve new materials and techniques, which cannot be successfully used unless teachers are well trained in applying them properly, however experienced they might be in teaching General English. Part of the problem faced by the current ESP programme arises from the fact that teachers are not adequately trained (in fact, not trained at all) for the job they have undertaken. Therefore, in-service training should be regarded both as an urgent need for the teachers and as a necessity to improve the programme.

Fourth, the SSp teachers (and ESP teachers, too) frequently complain about deficiencies in students, contending that these have been inadequately prepared in the prior segment of the educational system. This attitude and the corresponding problem seem to stem mainly from the lack of adequate standards for quality control and progress in the students. Measuring and evaluating students has always been a major occupation of teachers, and is important for other stakeholders too; therefore, it should be performed with the highest possible accuracy, objectivity and justice. It is proposed that

the Foreign Language Committee on Curriculum Development (FLCCD) establish standards for ESP proficiency, which should be measured by a test developed at this centre to be used by all universities and institutions of higher education for this purpose.

Fifth, to alleviate the problem of language deficiency in university entrants, it is proposed that a system of constant communication and co-operation be established between Higher Education Commission and the universities via FLCCD in order to keep FLCCD and the English departments informed about the situation of language teaching at high schools -- i.e. the changes, defects, deficiencies and improvements - and co-ordinate language programmes at both levels for teaching English more effectively. This may close the gap between the two levels of instruction. On the other hand, the information thus provided may be used for restructuring the English teacher training programmes in order to prepare more qualified English teachers for high schools.

Sixth, the problem of the inadequacy of ESP teaching is aggravated by the lack of sufficient qualified teachers. The solution obviously lies in training more teachers with higher qualifications in this field. It is proposed that the current postgraduate English programmes which presently produce graduates in Linguistics, Teaching General English and Literature, be restructured so that new opportunities might be provided for training the required ESP teachers.

Seventh, evaluation should be included in the programme and be regarded as an integral part of the curriculum. This requires effort on the part of the programme designers both to initiate and integrate evaluation into the programme and to o n a dialogue with different hierarchical levels in the education system, in particular the policy-makers, in order to establish a sense of mutual understanding and concern for support and action on the findings of evaluation practices.

10.10. Recommendations for Further Research

10.10.1. Areas for Future Research

- The present study presented an evaluation of the ESP programme currently in operation in the engineering universities and institutions of higher education of Punjab under the auspices of Higher Education Commission, Pakistan. The findings with respect to different aspects of the programme are not very satisfactory. Since the same programme is being executed in similar institutions run by other ministries (e.g. the Ministry of Health and Medical Education) and the private sector (e.g. LUMS University) in the country, it is important to examine the effectiveness of the programme in other educational settings to widen the applicability or the validity of the findings in this study.
 - This research evaluates the ESP program as a whole. It gives a place to future researchers to evaluate the different component and strategies of the program individually more in depth. For example, researcher can evaluate the Reading , or writing or listening or speaking components of the program individually.
- Classroom observation in this study was carried out in two universities deliberately selected to serve the purpose of the research. The results indicated that instruction was not effective enough to prepare students for the use they are required to make of language in their subject specialism. Similar studies should be carried out in other universities to examine the state of English language instruction in similar environments. Findings may be matched with those of the present study to find out whether/to what extent the pattern of teaching-learning behaviour illustrated here is prevalent in other universities. Findings can be used either to validate the present findings or to lead to further relevant research as deemed appropriate.
- Material evaluation in this study was carried out primarily through the perception of the teachers and the students. Findings indicate that the materials have neither fulfilled the needs of the students nor satisfied the interest of the teachers. The diversity of the textbooks used in the programme require a different evaluative

textbook analysis to examine the appropriateness of the materials both with respect to the needs of the students and in view of current trends in ESP material design. The findings will provide information on how appropriate teachers and students perceive them to be, and how suitable their technical characteristics are. The results may identify problematic areas.

- Student assessment and procedures employed to determine student progress have direct bearing on the teaching-learning process and the quality of learner achievement. These factors should be studied to find out whether/to what extent they have influenced the general outcome of this programme
- It was revealed through this study that both the EGP and the ESP courses were taught by the same teachers, who very often applied the same methodology. A thorough study is required to investigate the efficacy of the methodological aspects of teaching on these courses.
- ESP teachers frequently complained about deficiencies in students, contending that students have been inadequately or incompletely prepared in secondary schools for the use which they are required to make of language at university. Students' achievement in English at the secondary school level should be examined in order to establish how valid higher education teachers' perception of the issue is. Such an investigation could involve different aspects of the English language curriculum - aims and objectives, teaching methodology, coursebook, hours of instruction, learners' assessment, and evaluation.
- Introducing English at the primary school level could be considered as a means of tackling students' language problem at the higher level. The feasibility of such a scheme needs to be investigated by pilot studies and, if appropriate, to be developed.
- From the findings of this study, the recommendation has to be that if the ESP Programme is revised, which I believe it should be, it ought to assume a bottom-up approach rather than a top-down one.

10.10.2. The Methodology

One methodological issue in this study needs to be highlighted as it might be relevant to future educational evaluation. The main instrument employed in this research was the questionnaire, which has many virtues, but also limitations. Questionnaires were, therefore, supplemented with observations, interviews and group discussions. These triangulated the questionnaire data. (Of course, it would be more helpful if test results were also available). This researcher would recommend that triangulation be considered in future evaluations.

Another tool of triangulation is classroom observation. It is important to find out what really goes on in the classroom and to what extent it corresponds with what teachers and students indicate in questionnaires. This researcher believes that classroom observation is essential and would recommend that any similar venture of this kind build in observation data from classrooms.

One feature of the questionnaires (mainly student questionnaires) used in this study was the possibility of checking the reliability of some answers by analysing the consistency of responses. It is, therefore, recommended that in constructing questionnaires, one should ensure that this internal checking has been provided for.

In general, it emerges from the evidence in this study that the observations, the interviews and group discussions provided far more illuminating information. In particular, the potential of these methods to reveal new exploratory dimensions as well as discovering the 'unexpected' is outstanding. The results obtained through these procedures are more revealing and much more informative. However, one should take into account the tremendous amount of time and money that would be spent in employing these methods, particularly if conducted on a large scale. Therefore, in this

respect, questionnaires are believed to be more feasible, although constructing them requires much effort and consideration. I believe that, both procedures, if employed in parallel in educational evaluation, would yield more dependable and valid results, provided that, as in this study, some cross-checking of results is carved out by triangulation.

10.11 Final Remarks

The present study was an attempt at evaluating a programme which was initiated in a particular context, integrated into an existing system, and developed on a nation-wide scale at a particular time. The development of this programme was an immense undertaking, and no doubt, a move in the right direction. Regretfully, it took place at a time (just after *Islamization of country after Zia's regime*) when institutions of higher education in the country were neither prepared for change nor in receipt of assistance needed for coping with the challenges of change. Some of the inadequacies of the operation referred to in this study should therefore be viewed with respect to this unfortunate state of affairs.

ESP will keep growing in Pakistan. After all, it has only climbed up the first few steps of its evolutionary ladder. Its growth requires action, thoughtful and realistic; and measures, taken consciously and accurately; all nuances to be seen with open eyes; achievements and outcomes to be scrutinised at every single stage. Such scrutiny today did not happen to produce desirable results, but the willingness to reform, the strong tendency to improve, and the genuine desire to solve the problems are all there; and I see no reason why we should not be optimistic for the future.

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Appendix 1

ESP TEACHER QUESTIONNAIRE

THE FORMAT

Dear Colleague,

I am conducting evaluative research in order to improve the ESP programme. This questionnaire is designed to collect teachers' views of the ESP programme. Your cooperation would be of great help for the success of the task this project has set itself. It is not necessary to sign it. All data will be confidential and used only for statistical analysis.

Please return to:

Bilal Anwar.

Department of Humanities

FC College University, Lahore, Pakistan

By.....

Thank you in advance for your collaboration.

General Instruction: Where questions ask you to list in order of preference, please rank order the choices by putting 1-6 in the boxes provided with indicating your highest preference. Where you are simply asked to indicate a choice, please circle the appropriate answer. Please do not write anything in the "coding" column — this is for the use of the researcher to facilitate computer data entry.

	Please indicate:	Coding
Degree.....	ESP Teaching Qualification:	
Area of Specialization.....	
Place of Graduation.....	Any General Teaching Qualification:	
	
	Any Training with these	
	Particular Materials	Yes / No []
1. How long have you been teaching the ESP courses?.....		[]
2. Please list in order of importance what the needs of your students are with regard to ESP:		
a. Understanding spoken English	[]	[]
b. Improving the knowledge of grammar	[]	[]
c. Developing the ability to recognize text organization	[]	[]
d. Developing the reading comprehension skills	[]	[]
e. Developing the speaking skill	[]	[]

f. Others. Please specify.....

.....
.....

3. Please list in order of priority what you think the objectives of your course are:

a. Developing the writing skill [] []

b. Developing the ability to translate texts into Urdu. [] []

c. Improving the knowledge of grammar [] []

d. Increasing vocabulary [] []

e. Developing the reading comprehension skill [] []

f. Developing the speaking skill. [] []

g. Others. Please specify.....

.....
.....

4. Please indicate whether or not after the ESP course, most students are able to (please circle Yes or No)

a. get the meaning of a text Yes/No []

b. select texts that interest them Yes/No []

c. seek out relevant information Yes/No []

d. select interesting *topics* Yes/No []

- e. summarize Yes/No []
- f. make use of reading strategies Yes/No []
- g. use *the* dictionary Yes/No []
- h. develop his own reading method Yes/No []
- i. get to know English better Yes/No []
- j. other(s). Please specify.....

.....

.....

5. In your opinion, the teaching of ESP seems to be: (please circle Yes or No)

- a. a preparation to fit the interest of economic development Yes/No []
- b. a means for extending cultural domination by other countries Yes/No []
- c. a means of access to any reading matter in English Yes/No []
- d. a means of getting to know other peoples Yes/No []
- e. a means of getting access to specific bibliography Yes/No []
- f. help in getting a job Yes/No []
- g. other(s). Please specify.....

.....

.....

6. Are you satisfied with the materials you use? Yes/No []

7. If you answered No to question 6, please indicate the reasons by ticking the appropriate box.

a. above the students' level [] []

b. not relevant to specialist areas [] []

c. content out of date [] []

d. objectives not relevant [] []

e. others. Please specify

.....

.....

8. In your opinion, which of the following classroom procedures would you identify with ESP teaching? (please tick)

a. teacher-student interaction [] []

b. discussion [] []

c. small group teaching [] []

d. whole class teaching [] []

e. individual teaching. [] []

f. language used in the classroom [] []

g. student participation [] []

h. making students aware of objectives and method [] []

i. negotiation of course design with students.. [] []

j. other(s). Please specify.....

.....

.....

9. Of the teaching procedures given below, which do you use?

(please tick)

Often Sometime Never

a. library visits [] [] [] []

b. games, competitions, etc [] [] [] []

c. songs, etc [] [] [] []

d. group work. [] [] [] []

e. projects [] [] [] []

f. discussions. [] [] [] []

g. role play [] [] [] []

h. other(s). Please specify.....

.....

.....

10. What aspects of the programme do you think could be improved?

a. content. [] []

b. level. [] []

c. teaching methods. [] []

d. other(s). Please specify

.....

.....

And why?

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

THANK YOU ONCE AGAIN FOR YOUR CO-OPERATION

Appendix 2

SUBJECT SPECIALIST TEACHER QUESTIONNAIRE

THE FORMAT

Dear Teacher,

I am conducting evaluative research in order to try to improve the ESP programme. This questionnaire is designed to collect subject-specialists views of the ESP programme came out to date, as well as to work out proposals for reformulations and improvements. Your valuable help is requested by filling this questionnaire in as accurately as possible. It is not necessary to sign it All data will be confidential and used only for statistical analysis.

Please return to:

Bilal Anwar.

Department of Humanities

FC College University, Lahore, Pakistan

By.....

Thank you in advance for your cooperation.

General Instruction: Where questions ask you to list in order of preference please rank order the choices by putting 1-6 in the boxes provided with 1 indicating your highest preference. Where you are simply asked to indicate a choice, please circle the appropriate answer. Please do not write anything in the "coding" column — this is for the use of the researcher to facilitate computer data entry.

University..... Degree.....

Department Other Qualifications.....

Major
.....

Level(s) at which you teach:
.....

[] Undergraduate

[] Postgraduate

1. Do you consider the knowledge of English important for good academic performance in your discipline? (please circle Yes or No) Yes/No Coding []

If your answer was No, it is not necessary to go on answering this questionnaire, but please return it for statistical purposes.

2. Do you have an adequate working knowledge of English? Yes/No []

3. If so, how did you acquire it?.....
.....

.....

4. What contribution does English make to academic performance in your area with regard to:

(please tick)	Important	Not very imp	Unimp	
a. access to bibliography in the area.	[]	[]	[]	[]
b. preparing summaries and abstracts	[]	[]	[]	[]
c. following classes in English	[]	[]	[]	[]
d. discussion with foreign specialists	[]	[]	[]	[]
e. translating texts into Urdu	[]	[]	[]	[]

5. In the last five years, have you seen any evidence that students:

(please tick)	Often	Sometimes	Rarely	Never
a. used bibliography in English	[]	[]	[]	[]
b. wrote their own summaries	[]	[]	[]	[]
c. understood talks in English	[]	[]	[]	[]
d. expressed themselves in English	[]	[]	[]	[]
e. stopped using translators	[]	[]	[]	[]

6. Have you altered the content of your course due to:

a. a lack of knowledge of English on the part of the students? Yes/No []

b. an improvement in the students' knowledge of English? Yes/No []

7. In your courses, do you refrain from recommending texts in English

because of the difficulties students would have in understanding? Yes/No []

8. If you answered YES to question 7, what type(s) of text?

a. text books [] []

b. highly specialized journals [] []

c. less specialized journals [] []

d. reference books. [] []

e. manuals. [] []

f. Others. Please specify.....

.....

.....

9. In your opinion, is the knowledge of English a favourable factor in the competition in the labour market in your field?

Yes / No / Don't know []

10. Have you noted whether a knowledge of English has helped your students in getting a job?

Yes / No / Don't know []

THANK YOU ONCE AGAIN FOR YOUR CO-OPERATION

Appendix 3

STUDENT QUESTIONNAIRE

THE FORMAT

Dear Student,

I am conducting evaluative research in order to try to improve the ESP programme. This questionnaire is designed to collect student opinion on the ESP programme carried out to date, as well as to work out proposals for reformulations and improvements.

Your valuable help is requested by filling this questionnaire in as accurately as possible. It is not necessary to sign it. All data will be confidential and used only for statistical analysis.

Thank you in advance for your cooperation.

Please return to:

Bilal Anwar.

Department of Humanities

FC College University, Lahore, Pakistan

By.....

General Instruction: Where questions ask you to list in order of preference, please rank order the choices by putting 1-6 in the boxes provided with 1 indicating your highest preference. Where you are simply asked to indicate a choice, please circle the appropriate answer. Please do not write anything in the "coding" column — this is for the use of the researcher to facilitate computer data entry.

University.....

Course

Level:

Undergraduate []

Postgraduate []

Sex:

Male []

Female []

Marks achieved in English:

a. Entrance Exam:

Mark []

Year []

b. English I

Mark []

Year []

Term: 1 []

2 []

c. English II

Mark []

Year []

Term: 1 []

2 []

Coding

Where did you get your diploma?

[]

Circle the letter next to one of the following alternatives.

1. To what extent has this course met your needs regarding use of the English language?

a. completely

c. inadequately

b. adequately

d. not at all

[]

2. How appropriate were the materials used on the course?

a. very appropriate

c. not appropriate

b. appropriate

d. inappropriate

[]

3. Did you have a chance to contribute in class with your specific knowledge and personal experience?

a. always

c. seldom

b. usually

d. never

[]

4. Do you feel more independent now, to read texts in English?

a. yes

b. no

[]

5. After attending the course, do you think your English

a. improved a lot

c. stayed the same

b. improved a bit

d. got worse

[]

6. Was the duration of your ESP course

a. sufficient

b. insufficient

[]

7. When you entered the course, was your knowledge of English

a. excellent

c. adequate

b. good

d. weak

[]

8. Considering your answer to question 7, do you think this level was high enough for your ESP course?

a. yes

b. no

[]

9. Also considering your answer to question 7, do you consider your ESP course

a. too hard

b. too easy

[]

10 In your opinion, in your course curriculum, ESP should

a. appear as an obligatory course.

b. appear as an optional course

c. not appear in the curriculum []

11. If you answered a) or b) to question 9, at what stage should the ESP course be provided for optimum results?

a. at the beginning of your course

b. half-way through your course

c. at the end of your course []

12. List in order of preference the most important objectives of your ESP course (List 1-6 with 1 as your highest preference)

a. Developing the writing skill [] []

b. Developing the ability to translate texts into Urdu [] []

c. Developing the reading comprehension skills [] []

d. Improving knowledge of grammar [] []

e. Increasing vocabulary [] []

f. Developing the ability to understand English [] []

g. Developing the speaking skill [] []

h. others. Please specify

.....

.....

13. List in order of preference the objectives you consider most appropriate to meet your needs. (List 1-7 with 1 as your highest preference)

- a. Developing the ability to understand English [] []
- b. Improving the knowledge of grammar [] []
- c. Increasing vocabulary [] []
- d. Developing the reading comprehension skill [] []
- e. Developing the ability to understand text organisation [] []
- f. Developing the writing skill [] []
- g. Developing the speaking skill [] []

h. others. Please specify

.....

.....

14. List in order of preference those skills which were not included in your programme but should have been. (List 1-6 with 1 as your highest preference)

- a. Speaking [] []
- b. Writing in general [] []
- c. Reading comprehension [] []
- d. Understanding spoken English [] []
- e. Writing summaries and abstracts [] []
- f. Translating into Urdu [] []

g. others. Please specify
.....
.....

15. As a result of this course, can you now: (please circle)

- | | | |
|--|--------|-----|
| a. select topics interest to you | Yes/No | [] |
| b. select texts which interest you | Yes/No | [] |
| c. get the gist of a text | Yes/No | [] |
| d. find relevant information | Yes/No | [] |
| e. make summaries | Yes/No | [] |
| f. use reading strategies | Yes/No | [] |
| g. develop your own way of reading | Yes/No | [] |
| h. get to know the English language better | Yes/No | [] |
| i. other(s). Please specify..... | | |
| | | |
| | | |

16. If you had practice in Reading Comprehension, what did it aim to emphasize? (please list 1-4 with 1 as your highest preference)

- | | | |
|-----------------------|-----|-----|
| a. Vocabulary | [] | [] |
| b. Reading strategies | [] | [] |

c. Grammatical aspects [] []

d. Critical reading [] []

e. others. Please specify

.....

.....

17. If the emphasis on your ESP course was reading Yes/No []
comprehension, did this help you to read and understand
a text in English with greater fluency and self-confidence?
(please circle)

18 By ticking in the box, please indicate whether in the ESP course:

(please tick)	Good	Adequate	Weak	
a. your interest in the content of the course was	[]	[]	[]	[]
b. the lay out of the texts was	[]	[]	[]	[]
c. the connection between the texts and your specific field was	[]	[]	[]	[]

19. Which of the following items most helped you to develop your reading skill? (tick up to three)

a. strategies for approaching a text (using cognates, [] []
guessing new words, etc)

- | | | |
|---|-----|-----|
| b. awareness of the process involved in reading. | [] | [] |
| c. translation | [] | [] |
| d. explanation and practice in grammar | [] | [] |
| e. text functions (description, classification, etc.) | [] | [] |
| f. critical reading | [] | [] |
| g. using the dictionary | [] | [] |
| h. connectives | [] | [] |
| i. exercises to increase vocabulary | [] | [] |
| j. text structure (locating main ideas, etc.) | [] | [] |
| k. word formation | [] | [] |

20. Do you think the ESP course: (please circle Yes or No)

- | | | |
|---|--------|-----|
| a. changed your way of reading English | Yes/No | [] |
| b. changed your way of reading Urdu | Yes/No | [] |
| c. helped you to read for academic purposes | Yes/No | [] |
| d. helped you to read English for other purposes | Yes/No | [] |
| e. helped you to develop your previous knowledge of English | Yes/No | [] |
| f. increased your chance of getting a job | Yes/No | [] |
| g didn't help much | Yes/No | [] |

21. Learning ESP seems to you to be: (please circle Yes or No)

- a. a preparation to meet the needs of economic development Yes/No []
- b. a means for spreading the cultural domination of other nations Yes/No []
- c a way of getting to know other peoples Yes/No []
- d. a means of access to the specific bibliography in your area Yes/No []
- e. a means of access to any text in English Yes/No []
- f. useful for getting a job Yes/No []
- g. other(s). Please specify.....

.....
.....

22. How do you consider the ESP course in relation to your profession?

(please tick)

- a. Relevant [] []
- b. Irrelevant [] []
- c. Indifferent [] []

23. Please list in order of (1-3) importance whether you use English for

- a. reading in your field [] []

b. writing reports, etc [] []

c. spoken communication [] []

d. other(s). Please specify.....

.....

.....

24. In your opinion, the materials used in class: (please tick up to three)

a. were de-motivating [] []

b. arouse interest [] []

c. were not interesting [] []

d. were selected carefully [] []

e. were related to your area of interest [] []

f. were irrelevant to your area of specialization [] []

g were useful [] []

25. You believe this course encourages: (please circle Yes or No)

a. class discussion Yes/No []

b teacher-student relationship Yes/No []

c. student participation Yes/No []

d student attention/concentration in class

Yes/No

[]

26. Taking into account your knowledge when you started this course,

do you believe that you now read and understand texts:

(please tick up to three)

a. with more difficulty

[]

[]

b. more easily

[]

[]

c. faster

[]

[]

d. with less difficulty

[]

[]

e. with more confidence

[]

[]

f. none of the above

[]

[]

THANK YOU FOR YOUR CO-OPERATION

Appendix 4

CLASSROOM OBSERVATION SCHEDULE

KEY FOR TEACHER BEHAVIOR

1. The first dimension is whether the teacher is talking, and to whom, or whether the teacher is silent. The suggested codes are as follows:

Teacher talking to	i) Whole class	tw
	ii) Individual	ti
	iii) Individual but for benefit of whole class	tiw
	iv) Group	tg
	v) Group but for benefit of whole class	tgw
Teacher silent		ts

2. The second dimension concerns the detailed nature of teacher talk. Codes are as follows:

Teacher asking question	tq
Reprimanding	tr
Giving information	tgi
Encouraging correction	te
Giving directions	tgd
Directing pattern drills	tdp
Praising	tp

3. The third dimension again concerns the nature of teacher behaviour. The suggested codes which cover pedagogic and non-pedagogic activity are as follows:

No pedagogic activity	O
Observing	to
Doing own work (related to lesson)	tow
Writing on blackboard	tbb
Demonstrating or displaying work	td
Reading from book	tbk
Giving materials	tgm

•Adap(ed front Cooper, B., Lacy, C. and Terrance, 11 1996.

KEY FOR STUDENT BEHAVIOUR

1. The first dimension concerns the way in which the students are organised for learning. The suggested codes are as follows:

Organised and working as a class	sc
Organised and working as a class but working individually	sci
Organised and working in a group	sg
Organized in groups but working as class	sgc
Organised in groups but working individually	sgi
Organised and working in pairs	sp
Organised and working individually	si

2. The second dimension concerns student talk. Codes are as follows:

Silent	ss
Individual response	sir
Choral response	scr
Questioning teacher	sqr
Students chatter	sch
Student discussion (in group)	sdg
Student discussion (in pairs)	sdp

3. The third dimension concerns student learning activity. Codes are as follows:

Working with materials	swm
Recording own information	sri
Student reading out	sro
Repeating in chorus	src
Student observing	so
Students doing the exercise	sde

Appendix 5

Classroom Observation Summary Table (Univs. X and Y)

TEACHER DIMENSION					STUDENT DIMENSION				
		All interaction		Av Int			All interaction		Av Int
		X	Y				X	Y	
Teacher Talk to	Tw	42.6	31.5	37	Class Group Ind.	Sc	65.2	59.8	62.5
	Ts	27.9	35.5	31.7		Sci	34.8	40.2	37.5
	Tiw	21.6	31	26.3		sg	0	0	0
	Ti	7.9	1.9	4.9		sgi	0	0	0
	Tg	0	0	0		sp	0	0	0
	Tgw	0	0	0		sgc	0	0	0
	tgiE	12	6.6	9.3		si	0	0	0
Types of Talk	tgiP	28	23	25.5	Student Talk	ss	69.7	57	63.3
	0	27.9	35.5	31.7		sirE	16.4	31.8	24.1
	taqE	4	3.9	3.9		sqtP	9.2	2	5.6
	taqP	0	5.9	3		sqtE	0	0	0
	teE	15.3	16.4	15.8		scrE	0	0.6	0.3
	teP	1.3	0	0.6	sch	4.6	8.6	6.6	
	tgdE	7.4	2.6	5	sl	41.4	34.2	37.7	
	tgdP	0.7	3.9	2.3	sro	8.5	21	17.7	
	Tdp	0	0	0	sde	20	14.5	17.2	

	tpE	2	2	2	Student Activity	sri	25.5	19.7	22.6
	tpP	0	0	0		src	0	1.4	0.7
	trE	0	0	0		swm	0	1.9	0.9
	trP	0	1.3	0.7		so	0	0	0
	Tbk	61.7	62.3	62		0	4.5	7.2	5.8
Peda- gogic Activity	To	26.4	36.2	31.3					
	0	1.3	1.3	1.3					
	tbb	9.8	0	4.9					
	Td	0	0	0					
	tow	0.6	0	0.3					
	tgm	0	0	0					

Appendix 6

PROGRAMME DESIGNER INTERVIEW

THE FORMAT

1: Could you please explain the reason why the Higher Education Commission decided to devise a centralized system of language education at the university?

2: What objectives were intended for the ESP programme?

3: To what extent were the objectives in accordance with the needs of the students?

4: What measures were taken for the achievement of the stated objectives?

5: As an expert and as one, who has been in close contact with the Programme Designing Committee, please explain to what extent the programme has been able to attain its aims?

6: As the final question, I would be grateful if you could state your present view of the programme.

Appendix 7

ESP TEACHER INTERVIEW

THE FORMAT

1: A. Have you had any training in teaching the ESP courses?

B. How did you become an ESP teacher?

2. What do you think the needs of your students are with regard to ESP?

3: What are the objectives of your ESP course?

4. What classroom procedures would you identify with ESP teaching?

Could you describe a typical class?

5. What is your opinion about the materials you use?

A. Which of the materials are good/bad?

B What else should be included?

6: What aspects of the ESP programme do you think could be improved? And why?

Appendix 8

SUBJECT SPECIALIST TEACHER INTERVIEW

THE FORMAT

1. To what extent do you consider a knowledge of English important for academic performance in your discipline?

2. A. What do you think the needs of your students are with regard to ESP?

 B. What is it important for ESP courses to include?

3. Are the current courses provided for your students effective? If not, why?

4. Do you ever refrain from recommending texts in English because of the difficulties your students would have in understanding? If yes, what types of texts?

5. Is knowledge of English a favourable factor in the competition in the labour market in your field? How?

Appendix 9

STUDENT INTERVIEW

THE FORMAT

- 1: What would you say are your needs regarding use of English?
- 2: To what extent has this course met your needs regarding use of the English language?
- 3: What do you think the objectives of this course are?
- 4: Please describe the teaching methods and classroom management What does a "typical" class look like?
5. A What has the course done well/badly?

 B. Is there anything that you think should be omitted/added?
- 6: State your opinion about the materials used on the course. Please give examples of good/bad materials.
- 7: What were the problems in your ESP course?
- 8: What suggestions would you make for improvement of the course?
- 9: How useful is English for you in general or in getting a job in the future?

Appendix 10

Class Observation sheet

University: Class Size :.....

Student's' Field of Study: Time :.....

Teacher:..... Material:.....

Time	TEACHER	DIMENSION		STUDENT	DIMENSION	
Every 2 min.	Teacher talk to	Type of talk	Pedagogic Activity	Class/Group/ Individual	Student talk	Student Activity
2						
4						
6						
8						
10						
12						
14						
16						
18						
20						
22						
24						
26						
28						
30						
32						

34						
36						
38						
40						
42						
44						
46						
48						
50						
52						
54						
56						
58						
60						
62						
64						
66						
68						
70						
72						
74						

Annex 1: Do you think ESP Course?

Do you think ESP course ?

