AMERICAN UNIVERSITY OF ARMENIA

College of Humanities and Social Sciences

On the Role of Needs Assessment in the Concept of Curriculum Design in Ten Business English Centers of Yerevan

A Thesis Submitted in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for the Degree of Master of Arts in Teaching English as a Foreign Language

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

List of Tables	vii
Abstract	vii
Chapter One: Introduction	1
Purpose of the Study	1
Chapter Two: Literature Review	4
1.1. The Origin of ESP	4
1.2. Identifying What ESP Is	5
1.3. The Branches of ESP	8
2. English for Business Purposes (EBP)	12
2.1. EBP Development	12
2.2. The Types of EBP	13
3. Needs Assessment (NA)	14
3.1. The Perception of NA in the Concept of Designing ESP Courses	15
3.2. Approaches of Needs Assessment	21
3.3. Procedures for Conducting Needs Assessment	30
Chapter Three: Methodology	35
Research Design	35
Research Setting	36
Research Participants	36
Instruments	37
Data Analysis Procedures	38
Chapter 4: Results	39

Ten Teachers' and Fifty Nine Students' Questionnaires	
Students' Questionnaires (Split Language Centers)	42
Chapter 5: Discussion and Conclusion	
1. Findings over Research Question 1	52
2. Findings over Research Question 2.	53
Limitations	
Recommendations for Future Research	
References	
Appendix A	65
Appendix B	
Appendix C	

LIST OF TABLES

Table 3.1. Caption for Table 1 from Chapter Three	36
Table 4.1. Caption for Table 2 from Chapter Four.	39
Table 4.2. Caption for Table 3 from Chapter Four.	42

ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study was the investigation of the use of needs assessment in the frame of ten business English centers located in the capital of Armenia, Yerevan. The researcher's motivation for carrying out the study came from the literature, stating the importance of conducting needs-driven courses, especially, when the courses are for the learners with specific purposes.

The methodology underlying the current research was a cross-sectional survey rooted in a questionnaire as the main frame of sampling. The target population was ten business English teachers and 59 business English students. Two types of questionnaires were administered to the students and the teachers.

The data was analyzed by means of *custom tables* (for calculating the percentage ratio) and *descriptive statistics* (for computing the average attitude (mean)). The course of the data analysis was in four aspects:

- 1. Analysis of the teachers' questionnaires of ten language centers
- 2. Analysis of the students' questionnaires of ten split language centers
- 3. Analysis of 59 students' questionnaires together

The main findings of the study indicated that:

a) All the teachers of ten language centers partially knew their students' needs for taking the business English courses. All of them were administering placement tests for learning the learners' language proficiency level. However, not all language centers knew their learners objectives for taking the courses. Moreover, few courses were relevant a lot to the learners' job-related needs.

b) All language centers were applying tests for needs assessment. Four language centers were using questionnaires. The teachers of two language centers were having group discussions. Two language centers, according to the students' questionnaires, and one language center, according to the teachers' questionnaires conducted interviews.

None of the language centers was observing its students. Finally, three language centers used only a test as the only procedure of needs assessment.

CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

Background and Purpose

The world is changing and time is speeding fast. The 21st century is a time of rapid technological and social changes. These changes find their reflections in different areas of life and on human activities overall. Prior standards and criteria are being replaced very quickly by new ones. And in order to keep up with and adjust to new standards and demands, it is important to study properly the needs and requirements of the brand new world.

In the past 67 years, needs assessment has become an indispensable aspect of educational planning. It is a systematic and ongoing procedure for settling and analyzing needs between current and desired conditions. Language teaching is one of those areas of education that has been widely making use of needs assessment as the key component of the language curriculum design. The vast majority of the literature suggests that the focus has shifted from just teaching language on the preset plan to the thorough elaboration of specific aspects of linguistic register based on learners' needs. Consequently, the learners are the core figures of both teaching and learning process (Songhori, 2008, Zhu, 2008, Brown, 1995, Hutchinson & Waters, 1987, Nunan, 1998). Concurrently, the use of communicative English in rapidly developed areas such as technologies, commerce, and science has brought to the pattern of the users of English for specific purposes.

Accordingly, the learners have diverse purposes for learning a target language. As ESP is driven by the language learners' specific learning needs, the first step for ESP curriculum design is identifying the specific needs of the students

Statement of the problem

Armenia is a rapidly developing country. As in the case of other developing countries, the core vehicle of its development is seen in the economic growth. Nowadays, there is large number of business centers, a number of local banks and international banks, as well as a vast range of joint ventures. And a commonly required and emphasized prerequisite for working there is excellent written and oral communication skills in English. As business and fiscal areas are pretty restricted and specified in the use of English, each member of the staff is supposed to have a good command of English for business purposes relevant to particular labor demand and based on job-related activities. Consequently, business English learners attend business English courses having clear picture of what they need to learn.

Practically, planning and designing an appropriate course that would work for target ESP groups can be rather challenging. ESP instructors of such target groups meet various complications when they lack the know-how of designing and planning of effective courses that will meet their students' specific language needs. Accordingly, many instances of ESP teaching and especially of course design are often ad-hoc and not entirely based on comprehensive needs analyses.

Within the scenery of ESP teaching and learning in Armenia, there are already a number of qualified and accredited language centers that, along with other courses of English for Specific Purposes (ESP), offer business English courses. However, whether the instructors of those language centers plan and implement needs-based curriculums or syllabi, has not been clarified yet.

Objectives of the study

Taking for granted the significance of the application of needs-driven curriculums, the aim of the present research is twofold:

- 1. To what extent do ten business English course designers pay regard to conducting needs assessment (NA) with their learners?
- 2. Which types of procedures/methods of data collection do business English curriculum designers/teachers use?

In order to have valid and reliable results, the survey integrates both curriculum designers and learners.

The language centers (LC) are chosen on the basis of random sampling method of survey research design in Yerevan. Their number is ten.

Significance of the study

As was mentioned, business English proficiency is a preliminary requirement for working in any international or local company in Armenia. If language instructors of business English centers have no idea about the needs and demands of their learners as of the potential workers of such companies, they will fail to provide effective language courses. Consequently, this will bring to disqualification of the staff of the companies and, accordingly, fall of reputation of the very companies.

Investigating the role of needs assessment in the ten language centers selected will provide a precise picture of how many language centers pay regard to needs assessment in Armenia, and what types of procedures the course designers give priority to as effective devices for doing needs assessment.

CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW

1. English for Specific Purposes (ESP)

1.1. The Origin of ESP

English for Specific Purposes (ESP) has been regarded as a strand of applied linguistics, often called, "applied ELT", as the content of any course is determined by the needs of a specific group of learners (Harding, 2007). The origin of ESP goes back to 1945 (Hutchinson and Waters, 1987 & Johns and Dudley-Evans, 1991). Hutchinson and Waters (1987) bring forward three reasons for the development of ESP. The first reason was the end of World War II, which brought new system of values, new standards, and, accordingly, new demands for meeting those standards. This was an age of a huge growth and expansion in such fields as science and technology (Hutchinson and Waters, 1987). The rapid progress of these fields had its influence on the development of new trends in language teaching (Çelik, 2003). The accent was put on how the language was used in real communication and in real-life settings. Since the development of science and technology generated a demand for an international language: and because of the economic power of United States, English became the language of international commerce and technology.

The term ESP came into use in the 1960s, when General English (GE) did not coincide any longer with learners' specific needs (Brunton, 2009). On account of unprecedented growth of technology, at the end of the 1960s and in the beginning of the 1970sEnglish was very often described as a language for Science and Technology (EST). At that time learning English was a sign of a sound education for those who wanted to become an integrated part of the fast-growing world of technology. New fields of investigation in linguistics have become the second reason for the emergence of ESP (Hutchinson and Waters, 1987). That was the time of the generation

clearly figuring out what they needed English for. From then on the instruction of English has been based on learners' demands, needs and wishes. Eventually, the third reason for the evolution of ESP was the shifting the focus of language teaching from general language skills to addressing the learners' needs and demands for specific developing skills. "Tell me what you need English for and I will tell you the English that you need" became the key slogan of ESP (Brown, 1995; Hutchinson and Waters, 1987; Jordan, 1997; Nunan, 1988; Richterich & Chancerel, 1977).

The main aim of ESP was to provide learners with enough competence to deal with particular set of tasks in either academic or occupational settings (Brumfit, 1984; Widdowson, 1983). Belcher (2006) classifies trends in teaching ESP mainly into two areas: *sociodiscoursal* and *sociopolitical* (see Mitchell & Myles, 1998). Johns and Dudley-Evans (1991) point out that the expansion of ESP is based on three factors: internal communication, transmission of science and technology; and international communication. The majority of international journals, editorials and magazines on science and technology are in English, and ESP courses are supposed to assist in transferring and presenting the information to different cultures and societies. Therefore, transmission of science and technology is regarded a key factor in the growth of ESP. Now, in the 21st century, ESP covers an expanding range of purposes' (Belcher, 2006, 134). The globalizing world is the core reason why ESP keeps on the tendency of gaining new fields (Robertson, 1995). According to Flowerdew (1990), these trends are dynamically correlated with market needs.

1.2. Identifying What ESP Is

Precisely identifying the term ESP has been a source of disputes for many years (Brunton, 2009). Even today there is vast range of argument about what ESP constitutes

(Belcher, 2006, Dudley-Evans & St. John, 1998, Anthony, 1997). Different scholars have put forward their definitions of ESP. In 1980, Robinson (1980) presented a complete review of the theories of ESP and his subjective understanding of what ESP was underlying at that time. Hutchinson and Waters (1987) defined ESP as an approach rather than a product, emphasizing that ESP is not separated from ELT (English Language Teaching) in terms of any special language, methodology or materials. According to them the key notion of ESP is the focus on learners' needs and demands for using the required language in particular context. Hyland (2002) sets forth the following notion, according to which commitment to providing language instruction addressing students' specific language learning purposes is what distinguishes English for Specific Purposes (ESP) approach from other approaches to English Language Teaching (ELT). Another well-known linguist, Strevens (1988), makes a distinction between four "absolute" and two "variable" ESP characteristics. By saying "absolute" characteristics, he means those ones which give clear-cut distinction between ESP and ELT. According to those four absolute characteristics, ESP is an integrated part of ELT which is:

- Designed to fit learners' needs;
- Related in themes and topics to specific disciplines, occupations and activities;
- Rooted in language appropriate target activities and tasks in terms of their syntactic, semantic, lexical and discourse analysis;
 - Contrasted to general English (GE) (Strevens, 1988, 1)

The "variable" characteristics in ESP are those which are dependent on conditions. They are as follows:

- ESP can be restricted to the learning skills to be learnt;
- It is not taught based on any predetermined methodology (Strevens, 1988, 1)

Coffey (1985) updated Strevens' (1977) work on ESP and described it as being part of communicative language teaching. Similar to Strevens' definition, Dudley-Evans and St. John (1998) state that ESP is rooted in skills, language (lexis, grammar, and register), discourse and genre analyses. According to them ESP:

- Can be developed for specific purposes
- Can be applied in specific situations that differ from GE using diverse methodology
- Is supposed to be designed for adult learners and
- Is meant for learners with intermediate or advanced level of language proficiency however, it may also be developed for beginners (Dudley-Evans & St. John, 1998,5)

Robinson's (1991) definition does not provide any distinction between absolute or variable ESP characteristics. She claims that ESP is goal-oriented and starts with needs analysis. The characteristics that she puts forward are that firstly, ESP is restricted to a limited time period; secondly, it is designed for homogeneous adults (Robinson, 1991, p. 3). According to Belcher (2006, p. 135) in the concept of ESP problems are unique to specific learners in specific contexts and thus, they must be carefully delineated and addressed with tailored to fit instruction. Mohan (1986, 15) has brought along the idea that ESP courses put emphasis on 'preparing learners for chosen communicative environment'. Increasing self-direction in learners is also of utmost significance since the main purpose of an ESP course is to make users from learners (Carter, 1983).

All the above referred definitions being credible on the one hand, sometimes might have contradictory and confusing interpretation and perception on the other hand. For instance, Stervens' (1977) second "absolute" characteristic referring to ESP content may make quite wrong impression that ESP should always be related to subject content. On the contrary, it does

not have to be tied to content; yet, it should always cover underlying tasks and activities of the broad discipline (Dudley-Evans & St. John, 1998). Lorenzo (2005, 1) focuses on the fact that ESP 'concentrates more on language in context than in teaching grammar and language structures.'

1.3. The Branches of ESP

According to Diane Belcher (2009, 2) "there are, and no doubt will be, as many types of ESP as there are specific learner needs and target communities that learners wish to thrive in".

Due to the increasing demands for linguistic competence, ESP has gained new fields (Brunton, 2009). Traditionally, ESP has been separated into two fields: English for Academic Purposes (EAP) and English for Occupational Purposes (EOP). This distinction is purposeful since it is rooted in the professional area or discipline (Dudley-Evans & St. John, 1998). EAP and EOP vary regarding the focus on cognitive academic proficiency versus basic interpersonal skills (Cummins, 1979). In EAP the focus is on the language of professional content subject or discipline, such as law, engineering, etc. English for Science and Technology (EST) was a core area in ESP. Equally, English for Medical Purposes (EMP) and English for Legal Purposes (ELP) have become integrated parts of ESP. Due to the growth and expansion of business, finance, economics, banking and accounting, EAP has obtained an ultimate importance in Master in Business Administration (MBA) courses (Dudley-Evans & St. John, 1998).

What does the umbrella term EOP cover? According to Dudley-Evans & St. John, (1998) EOP refers to courses with professional purposes like those of administration, medicine, business and law. It also deals with vocational purposes for non-professionals either in service or preservice settings. English for Vocational Purposes (EVP) in its turn is divided into Vocational English and Pre-Vocational English. Vocational English deals with language training for

particular occupation, whereas Pre-Vocational mainly centers on providing job-related skills that will be used in target settings (Dudley-Evans & St. John, 1998).

David Carter (1983) has provided a distinction between three types of ESP:

- English as a restricted language
- English for Academic and Occupational Purposes
- English with specific topics

He brings the example of the language used by air traffic controllers classifying them as a restricted one. According to Mackay and Mountford (1978) these type of a language restriction is strongly limited to specific situations: consequently, user of such a language cannot communicate effectively in a new situation and outside of the specific context.

The second ESP type classified by Carter (1983) is English for Academic and Occupational Purposes. Hutchinson & Waters (1987) identify three types of ELT- English for Science and technology (EST); English for Business and Economics (EBE); and English for Social Studies (ESS), which in their turn are divided in to two branches- English for Academic Purposes (EAP) and English for Occupational Purposes (EOP). English for Technicians from EST branch is an example of EOP; and English for Medical Studies from the same branch serves as a sample for EAP.

Despite quite enough distinctive features between EAP and EOP, there are a number of crossing angles between these two main strands (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987). It is quite usual that people may work and study at the same time. Moreover, language and job-related skills learnt for immediate use in an educational setting can be further used on the job. Possibly, the intersection of these two branches might clarify Carter's classification of EAP and EOP under the same type of ESP. According to Carter (1983) the final determination for EAP and EOP is

the same - work. Carter's third type of ESP is English with specific topics. This type differs from the other two in the way that it shifts the focus from purpose to topic (Carter, 1979).

Lomperis (1997) put ahead two main types of ESP: English in Preparation for Employment (EPE) and English for Employment Purposes (EEP). This distinction is based on whether learner is in the target field or not. EPE in its turn is divided into three sub-categories: Pre-vocational English, Vocational English (VESL), and English for Academic Purposes (EAP). Pre-vocational English is developed for those applying for jobs. It centers on providing General English for acquiring and maintaining job. Vocational English is designed for preparing learners for job training: it is rooted in language of training in specific occupations (Lomperis, 1997). English for Academic Purposes (EAP) focuses on language of subject matter, such as engineering, business, medicine, etc.

EEP integrates two sub-categories: English for Occupational Purposes (EOP) and English for Professional Purposes (EPP). These sub-categories are for those who are already employees in a specific occupation. The aim of EOP and EPP is to provide learners with language of job performance (Çelik, 2003).

Hutchinson & Waters (1987) claim that ESP course development is based on three elements:

- The concept of specialized language
- Rhetorical or discourse analysis
- Target situation analysis

The first element refers to the notion that diverse registers require specific linguistic forms. Register analysis deals with analyzing grammatical and lexical features in a field of study (Çelik, 2003). As regards the theoretical/discourse analysis, the emphasis is shifted from

sentence level to text and discourse level. Since rhetorical patterns of text organization differ from one area of use to another, much ESP research centers specialize in specifying the linguistic means that are indicated in different organizational patterns (Celik, 2003). According to Hutchinson & Waters (1987), the third element for ESP course development is target situation analysis. This analysis is similar to needs assessment. In this phase ESP curriculum designers investigate learner's target area of functioning, and develop the course according to those needs. The key strategic element of the course is rooted in teaching learners those linguistic skills and techniques that might be used in the target area. Consequently, the demands of the target situation are brought into the foreground for designing ESP curriculum (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987). According to Flowerdew (1990, 327) target situation analysis is a decisive element in designing types of ESP. Today target situation analysis has become the prevailing one in ESP course design. The reason for the approval of this type of analysis is that it integrates the view of stakeholders and employers on better meeting not only learners' but also employers' needs and wants (Brunton, 2009). Technical English (Pickett & Laster, 1980) was one of the first textbooks that used this approach (Brunton, 2009).

The considerable majority of the literature provides theoretical and practical evidence that the core aspect of designing ESP course is learning centered approach which, in its turn centers on learners' needs and the use of authentic materials (Bhatia, 1986; Dudley-Evans & St. John, 1998; Edwards, 2000; Gatehouse, 2001, Graves, 2000; Hutchinson & Waters, 1987; Jordan, 1997; Mackay & Mountford, 1987; Munby, 1978; Nunan, 1988; Price-Machado, 2001; Robinson, 1991; Spector et al, 2001; West, 1998). There are different views on the authenticity of ESP materials; and sometimes these views contradict each other (Brunton, 2009). Bojovic (2006) assumes that ESP materials should be authentic, renewed and relevant to learners' major.

This led to the necessity of evaluating course books more attentively in order to appraise to what extent they meet potential users' needs. The process of evaluating materials is a vital aspect of ESP. As Anthony states (1997, 3), 'it is the role that ESP practitioners have neglected most to date'. Brunton (2009) regards that if the teacher only relies on a ready-made textbook it brings to total ignorance of the learners' immediate needs in specific contexts. Considering ESP instructors the 'slaves' of course books, Anthony (1997b) had a negative perspective on rooting ESP courses in textbooks. One of the fundamental dilemmas that ESP instructors come across is the lack of time for needs analysis and material development. As Hutchinson and Waters (1987, 19) assume "ESP is an approach to language teaching, course design and material development in which all decisions as to context and methods are based on the learners' reasons for learning".

2. English for Business Purposes (EBP)

Business English (BE) is one of the most developed strands of ESP. It shares the most fundamental and key features of ESP, such as needs analysis, syllabus design, course design and procedure of material selection (Wonzhong, 2008). As Ellis and Johnson (2002) state, Business English differs from other types of ESP in the way that it is the mix of on the one hand *specific content* typical to particular job and area of industry and on the other hand *general content* related to general ability to make effective communication, particularly in business settings.

2.1. EBP Development

Business English has had its own development. In the late 1960s and 1970s the key distinctive feature between Business English and General English was the special vocabulary. Consequently, BE teaching was rooted in boosting technical vocabulary. In the mid-1970s and 1980s, Business English teaching trends shifted to communicative functions. As a result, company training programs laid the basis of the development of BE courses which provided

learners with teaching such skills as giving recommendation, hand down opinion, showing agreement, bringing arguments and so on. Since the demand for Business English has increased, an extensive amount of research has been devoted to investigation of newly developed trends in Business English (Barbara, Celani, Collins, & Scott, 1996; Chew, 2005; Eustace, 1996; Gimenez, 2000, 2001, 2002, 2006; Grosse, 2005, Louhiala-Salminen, 1996, 2002; Nickerson, 2005; St. John, 1996). The prevailing majority of the research deals with genre analysis of business writing, discourse analysis of business communication, business communication skills and techniques. Genre analysis research studies on business writing (Akar, 2002; Bhatia, 1993; Eustace, 1996; Gains, 1990; Gimenez, 2000, 2001, 2002, 2006; Jenkins & Hinds, 1987; Santos, 2002) mainly focus on the moves and rhetorical organization of business letters and email communication. Discourse analysis research on business communication (Charles, 1996; Beaugrande, 2000; Louhiala-Salminen, 2002, Louhiala-Salminen et al., 2005) analyzes discourse patters of such BE communication tasks as negotiations and meetings. Recent patterns of research have been trying to find those communication strategies and techniques which will enable learners to communicate effectively in different business settings (Wonzhong, 2008).

2.2. The Types of EBP

Dudley-Evans and St. John (1998) make distinction between English for General Business Purposes (EGBP) and English for Specific Business Purposes (ESBP). The first type of business English courses is designed for pre-service learners or for those who are apprentices in their career. These courses are very much similar to general EFL courses with the materials shifted to business contexts. They are to teach English via business settings rather than provide English for specific business purposes.

English for Specific Business Purposes (ESBP) courses are for in-service learners who have enough experience to bring their skills and knowledge to language-learning settings (Dudley-Evans and St. John, 1998). These courses usually are intensive, providing knowledge in one or two language skills that most meet target needs of learners. The core objective of ESBP course is advancing learners' fluency, starting from fluency activities, working on skills and language, up to further practice in mastering fluency (Dudley-Evans and St. John, 1998).

Nowadays content of BE courses is based on real-life situation planning; making use of language samples taken from different real-life situations or simply simulating them. This method gives learners an opportunity of getting direct impression on how BE language is used in real-life business settings (Wonzhong, 2008).

As was mentioned BE is a field of ESP sharing common features, such as needs analysis, syllabus design and material selection procedures. Needs analysis is cornerstone phase in all ESP branches, as well as in Business English.

In the upcoming sections needs analysis in ESP will be analyzed in depth, since the objective of the current research study is to investigate the role of needs analysis in ten Business English settings.

3. Needs Assessment

The founder of needs assessment is Roger Kaufman, who first developed a model for determining needs defined as a gap in outcomes (Fulgham& Shaughnessy, 2008). Kaufman's model in particular identifies gaps in needs at the societal level. According to him, to conduct a good needs assessment, it is important to set down the current results, then, articulate the desired results: the distance between these two results will be the genuine need (Witkin, 1994, 17-27).

Collecting appropriate and sufficient data contributes to the development of an effective output responding to common needs and wants.

In general, needs analysis/assessment entails a process of twelve steps (Fulgham& Shaughnessy, 2008):

- Confirm the issue and audiences
- Establish the planning team
- Establish the goals and objectives
- Characterize the audience
- Conduct information and literature search
- Select your data collection methods
- Determine your sampling scheme
- Design and pilot the collection instrument
- Gather and report data
- Analyze data
- Manage data
- Synthesize data and create report

3.1. The Perception of Needs Assessment in the Concept of Designing ESP courses

Along with ESP, needs analysis (NA) has become crucial for course design since the early 1960s (Dudley Evans, 1998). The literature on the importance of needs analysis (NA) in ESP and on the procedures of how to conduct it properly varies greatly from one applied linguist to another one (West, 1994; Hutchinson and Waters, 1987, 2000; Allwright, 1977, etc.). As John (1991) outlines, before the foundation of ESP, instructors and curriculum designers used to intuit learners' needs rather than to identify them. ESP courses should be needs driven; accordingly,

needs analysis is and will always remain an indispensible part of such courses (Gatehouse, 2001; Graves, 2000). Dudley-Evans and St. John (1998, 122) claim that "needs analysis is the corner stone of ESP and leads to developing a focused course". It is an important tool for carrying out research prior to setting course goals and objectives, developing materials, and evaluating the success of a course (Richards et al, 1992, cited in Jordan, 1997, 20). ESP needs analysis is the basis for all ESP programs. It will make teachers more aware of learners' needs and will help design more effective and efficient language course (Nezhad, Robinson, 1991). Brown (1995) defines the term needs analysis as a procedure of gathering information which might serve as the key point for designing and developing curriculum. It is the first step accomplished to establish the 'what' and 'how' of a course (Evans, 1998, 121-126). Despite of its vital importance in course design and program development, needs analysis is not yet applied as a cyclical and systematic procedure. Yet, it should be done continuously because 'as students become more involved in the course, their attitudes and approach may change' (Nezhad, Robinson, 1991, 15). This is due to the misleading nature of NA and the range of difficulties in conducting it (Brown, et al, 2006). Robinson (1991) considers that the recognition of learners' needs assumes an operation and application of a systematic approach to needs analysis.

Across the decades needs analysis has been defined in a number of ways; however, all the definitions share a common feature: needs analysis aims at 'finding the gap between what is and what ought to be' (Brown, et al, 2006). Despite extensive ideas and views on what 'needs analysis' is, there is still an ongoing argument about the issue what in fact 'needs' refer to.

According to West (1994), the term 'needs' does not have a unified definition, and is a subject of various interpretations by different linguists. Another linguist Richards (2001) assumes that the definition of 'needs' greatly depends on its perception and interpretation. He brings the example,

that even in particular cases, curriculum developers, teachers, stakeholders, administrative staff and learners may have different viewpoints on what 'needs' are.

Dudley Evans (1998) views 'needs' as an umbrella term for wants, desires, expectations, lacks, requirements, etc. (Brindley, 1984, 28; Dudley Evans and St. John, 1998). Needs are also treated as objectives in the way of developing materials, teaching activities, as well as evaluation strategies. Thus, there is a straight line between determining learners' needs and evaluating to what extent a program or a course meets learners' needs (Alharby, 2005). Soriano (1995) states that needs analysis aims at collecting and analyzing information on what learners 'need' and 'want', whereas, evaluation estimates the effectiveness of a course and the correspondence of its outcomes with learners' needs.

Goodlad (1979) provides a brief outline of two types of curricula in terms of the role of NA: *traditional and current*. He considers that in case of traditional type of curriculum, the starting point is language analysis, where learners' preferences and expectations are not taken into account. On the contrary, current type of curricula is based on learners' needs, in which content of the course is worked out to meet learners' already identified needs.

If curriculum designers and instructors consider learners as the center of learning process, they seek to find out the answer to the following questions: "What do my learners need to do with target language in the real life settings? What can they already do? What are the content areas which they need to talk and write about?" (Savage &Storer, 2000, 137) Brindley (1989) also states, that the language programs and language centers should be responsive to the learners' needs as a guarantee for program success. He terms needs as 'gaps' between present language performance in a specific area and language performance required in a particular communication situation' (p. 69). Hutchinson & Waters (1992) assume that needs are based on 'wants' and

'necessities'. Just these two categories predetermine what learners feel they need to know and what they should know. The accent here is on the 'lacks' that underline the gap between learner's existing linguistic proficiency level and the required one in the target setting.

Accordingly, needs analysis is supposed to identify the 'gap' of needs between the current and the desired states of affairs. Sysoyev (2000) regards needs analysis as a method of bringing together needs that are desired and the ones that are required for setting goals and objectives in order to outline course content.

Richards (1984) and Jordan (1997) provide precise steps for foundation an ESP course based on needs analysis: needs assessment (needs analysis), goal setting, syllabus design, material development methodology and evaluation.

Tarone and Yule (1989) identify four levels of analysis that aim at analyzing what learners need to learn:

- Global
- Rhetorical
- Grammatical-rhetorical
- Grammatical

Global level: The first level of analysis identifies target situations in which learners might use the target language. This type of analysis also includes all those participants, communicative purposes and activities that are undertaken.

Rhetorical level: the second level of analysis identifies organization of discourse patters in a particular situation. It investigates organizational structure of communicative activities in relatively global level, such as those of asking for clarification, interrupting, making suggestions, and so on

Grammatical-rhetorical level: this level of needs analysis defines those linguistic forms that are used for realizing the information structure in the rhetorical level. Both rhetorical and grammatical-rhetorical needs analysis aim at identifying the registers used in the target situation. From this perspective they are interrelated.

Grammatical level: the last type of needs analysis copes with the frequency of grammatical forms and lexical constructions used in specific communicative situations. In the nature this analysis is quantitative (Tarone& Yule, 1989).

In the 1980s new methodological approaches were put forward for needs analysis (John, 1991). At that time Nunan (1988) suggested the learner-centered approach which was regarding learners as a vital factor in developing program content. The literature succeeding Nunan's approach confirms the importance of learners' needs, wishes and expectations in curriculum design (Tudor, 1996). Tudor (1996) assumes that in learner centered approach learners' needs are completely discovered only within the whole course of learning process, since learners increasingly come to realize their own needs. It's an ongoing exploration of their communicative intentions. Therefore, needs analysis is an ongoing learning-teaching activity mostly executed through pre-course and initial needs assessment. Graves (2000) identifies three time frames for gathering information: pre-course, initial and ongoing.

Pre-course needs analysis is undertaken prior to course, specifying course content, goals and objectives, activities and materials. The activities are mainly diagnostic which aim at pinpointing strengths and weaknesses of learners.

Initial needs analysis takes place in the initial phase of a course, the first few weeks or sessions.

Ongoing needs analysis is carried our throughout the whole course and learning process. It points out if whatever is being taught, the way it is being taught and evaluated is effective and matches with learners' expectations or not. It's a type of a reflective tool for instructors to evaluate teaching activities they carry out and, if necessary, to modify or better them. Generally, learners are asked to reflect on any activity they have carried out and to suggest their recommendations on that experience.

In initial and ongoing needs analysis instructors may conduct needs analysis *directly*, *indirectly* and *informally* (Graves, 2000). In direct needs analysis the focus of activities is on collecting information from learners, whereas in indirect needs analysis, 'regular' teaching activities are revised and turned into needs analysis activities. In informal needs analysis instructor simply observes very carefully the learners to identify their needs.

Graves (2000) believes that 'when needs assessment is used as an ongoing part of teaching, it helps learners to reflect on their learning, to identify their needs, and to gain a sense of ownership and control of their learning. It is an orientation toward the teaching and learning process which views it as a dialogue between people: between the teacher and administrators, parents, other teacher; between the teacher and learners; among the learners' (p. 98). Learner centered approach proves that needs analysis is not only an ongoing and cyclical process, but it is also used as a constructive tool both for instructors and for learners. An example is that instructors provide learners with an opportunity to become more motivated and purposeful in their learning (Çelik, 2003).

Despite the advantageous effects of needs analysis on language learning process, there are still debates across the results of needs analysis. The focus is mainly on the issue that needs and expectations of learners very often differ from person to person. Moreover, administrators,

teachers, and learners may have diverse perspectives on leaners' needs (Nunan, 1988; Smith, 1990; Tarone& Yule, 1989). In order to make the process of NA more precise and purposeful, it is important at first to have a clear idea about the nature of data needed and from whom data is going to be elicited. From the very perspective, Holliday and Cooke (1982) advocate that needs analysis should be on the basis of six assumptions:

- Subject teachers' perspectives on what learners need to know;
- Institutions' perspectives on what learners need to know;
- English language teachers' perspectives on what learners need to know;
- Learners' perspectives on what they need to know;
- Learners' perspectives on what they think they know;
- What is compatible with particular features of a specific setting

3.2. Approaches to Needs Assessment

Needs analysis has undergone many phases of development since the publication of Munby's 'Communicative Syllabus Design' in 1978. Munby (1978) introduced communication needs processor that has become the pre-determiner of his approach to needs analysis. Derived from Munby's approach, Chambers (1980) suggests a new approach-Target Situation Analysis along with other existing terms: Present Situation Analysis, Pedagogic Needs Analysis, Deficiency Analysis, Strategy Analysis and Learning Needs Analysis, Means Analysis, Register Analysis, Discourse Analysis, and Genre Analysis. Graves (2000) puts forward his categorization of the approaches to NA, naming them 'types of information that can be gathered when assessing needs'. He indicates two main approaches to NA: information about the present and information about the future. Each of these approaches have preliminary list of tips that are to fulfill information about learners' present and future needs. As Graves (2000) points out, 'as

the course progresses, the information about the 'present' will change as the learners make progress toward the 'future'. Information can be gathered about how the course is or is not meeting the needs negotiated' (p. 102).

Information about present:

- Who the learners are
- The learners' level of language proficiency
- The learners' level of intercultural competence
- Their interests
- Their learning preferences
- Their attitudes
- Information about future:
- The learners' (or others involved) goals and expectations
- The target contexts: situations, roles, topics, and content
- Types of communicative skills and tasks they will perform
- Language modalities they will use (Graves, 2000, 102)

Each of the listed tips should involve carefully worked out supporting questions which will make the information more detailed.

Information about the present:

Who the learners are: their age, gender, educational background, profession, nationality. Are they part of several cultures, or they are representatives of a single culture group? This information will serve as a keystone for developing the further questions.

The learners' language proficiency level: information about their language proficiency level in each skill as well as from grammar, vocabulary, pronunciation and communicative skills.

The answers to this question may give the course developer a clue when choosing course materials.

The learners' level of intercultural competence: if the learners recognize sociolinguistic and sociocultural differences (if there are any) between their native language and the target one they study.

This information again might be used in developing materials, as well as in putting accent on the learners' multi- and intercultural recognition.

Their interest: Under this question course designer may collect information about the topics and issues that the learners might be interested in, as well as about their personal and professional experience.

Their learning preferences: course designer may get information about learners' preferences upon teaching methods. This information might help the teacher to set up an optimal methodology.

Their attitudes: this information deals with the learners' attitude to the subject matter.

Based on this information course developer may inquire about learners' attitude to the target language, to learning settings (classroom, equipment, materials).

Information about the future:

The learners' goals and expectations: According to this information course designer outlines course goals, and objectives.

The target context: situations, roles, topics, and content: In what settings learners will use the target language, what role it will play in their professional life.

Types of communicative skills they need and tasks that they will perform: what is the purpose for studying the language? Specifically what skills learners will need to develop?

Language modalities they will use: 'Do they need to speak, read, listen, or write in the target language' (Graves, 2000, 104).

Another applied linguist Jordan (1994) identifies two main approaches to NA: the Target Situation Needs Analysis and the Present Situation Analysis. He regards Learning Centered approach, the Strategy Analysis approach and the Means Analysis approach as variations of Target Situation Analysis and Present Situation Analysis (Jordan, 1994).

Target Situation Analysis (TSA)

TSA has been considered influential in ESP needs analysis (Alharbi, 2005). It was first used by Munby (1987) in his model of Communicative Needs Process (CNP) (Alharby, 2005). According to this model, target situation analysis is the investigation of the target situation, and establishing needs according the needs occurred there (Alharby, 2005; Songhori, 2008; West, 1998). The model overall comprises nine points, each of which investigating the issues about the use of target language for indicating learners' real world communicative requirements. The aim of TSA is to prepare learners for further use of target language (Alharbi, 2005). Munby's (1987) overall model consists of the following elements:

- 1. 'Participants: information about the identity and language of the learners: age, sex, nationality, present command of target language, other languages known and extent of command;
- 2. **Communication Needs Processor**: investigates the particular communication needs according to sociocultural and stylistic variables which interact to determine a profile of such needs;
 - 3. **Profile of Needs**: is established through the processing of data in the CNP;

- 4. In the **Meaning Processor** "parts of the socio-culturally determined profile of communication needs are converted into semantic subcategories of a predominantly pragmatic kind and marked with attitudinal tone" (Munby, 1978, 42);
- 5. **The Language Skills Selector**: identifies "the specific language skills that are required to realize the events or activities that have been identified in the CNP" (Munby, 1978, 40);
- 6. **The Linguistic Encoder**: considers "the dimension of contextual appropriateness" (Munby, 1978, 49), one the encoding stage has been reached;
- 7. The Communicative Competence Specification: indicates the target communicative competence of the participant and the translated profile of needs' (Songhori, 2008, 6, 7).

From the above listed elements the one that has become the pre-determiner for Munby's approach for needs analysis is Communication Needs Processor. The aim of CNP is to teach learners those linguistic forms that they will probably use in the target environment. This model of NA specifies 'what learners need to know in order to function effectively in the target situation' (Waters, 1987; Songhori, 2008, 7). Based on this approach Hutchinson and Waters (1987) provide a framework of target situation needs analysis that comprises a list of questions that serve as a guideline for needs analysts.

Present Situation Analysis (PSA)

The second major approach to needs analysis, Present Situation Analysis, is regarded as a supplement to target needs analysis (Robinson, 1991; Jordan, 1997). The term Present Situation Analysis (PSA) was first introduced by Richards and Chancerel (1980). This type of needs analysis tries to establish what learners are like at the beginning of the course. Dudley-Evans and St. John (1998) assume that PSA indicated strengths and weaknesses of learners' language skills, learning experiences, available curricula, teaching methods, resources, surrounding environment,

and cultural elements (Alharbi, 2003; Songhori, 2008). The sources of gathering information are students, teaching establishments, and places of work (Jordan, 1997). As the sources of gathering information are manifold this approach provides thorough tips and techniques about the kind of information to be comprised. Information about learners' level of education, years of learning English may also serve as enough information about learners' present abilities. PSA can also be realized by means of placement tests.

Very often needs analysis is considered as a combination of TSA and PSA. However, mere use of TSA and PSA cannot give credible and reliable insight about learners' needs: for that reason, other approaches, such as Pedagogic Needs Analysis, to NA were put forward.

Pedagogic Needs Analysis

Pedagogic Needs Analysis was introduced by West (1998). It comprises three elements of NA: *deficiency analysis, strategy needs analysis/learning needs analysis,* and *means analysis* (Songhori, 2008).

Deficiency Analysis

'Deficiency Analysis is the route to cover from point A (present situation) to point B (target situation)' (Songhori, 2008, 11). It is the basis for designing syllabus (Jordan, 1997), as it fills the gap between present and target extra linguistic knowledge, language skills and learning strategies.

Strategy Analysis

This type of NA deals with the strategies that learners apply for learning another language. Allwright (1977), being the founder of strategy analysis, has distinguished between 'needs (the skills which students see as being relevant to them), wants (those needs on which students put a high priority in the available, limited time), and lacks (the difference between the

students' present competence and the desired competence)' (Songhori, 2008, 12). Learners should be taught those skills and work out those strategies that will enable them to reach the target that will motivate them in accomplishing diverse target activities. Jordan (1997, 26) quotes Bower (1980) advocating that:

If we accept that a student learns better when he learns what he wants, rather than what he only needs to learn, it is worth to leave a room in a learning program for the learners' own wishes regarding both goals and processes.

Hutchinson and Waters (1987) define wants (learners' either perceived or subjective needs) in the same way as learning needs. In the vein of target needs analysis, a special framework of questions is made for analyzing learning needs. Each question in its turn consists of sub-questions. Further is lined up the framework of Hutchinson and Waters (1987):

Why are the learners taking the course?

Compulsory or optional;

Apparent need or not;

Is status, money, promotion involved?

What do learners think they will achieve?

What is their attitude towards the ESP course?

Do they want to improve their English or do they resent the time they have to spend on it?

How do the learners learn?

What is their learning background?

What is their concept of teaching and learning?

What methodology will appeal to them?

What sort of techniques bore/alienate them?

What sources are available?

Number and professional competence of teachers;

Attitude of teachers to ESP;

Teachers' knowledge of and attitude to subject content;

Materials; Aids;

Opportunities for out-of-class activities

Who are the learners?

Age/sex/nationality;

What do they know already about English?

What subject knowledge do they have?

What are their interests?

What is their socio-cultural background?

What teaching styles are they used to?

What is their attitude to English or to the cultures of the English speaking world? (Songhori, 2008, 13, 14)

Means analysis

Dudley Evans and St. John (1998) consider that means analysis deals with information about the environment and in which the course will take place. According to Hutchinson and Waters (1987) learning needs should be met for learner to meet target situation requirements. This analysis tends to adapt ESP course to the particular sociocultural setting (Songhori, 2008). The main issue that means analysis deals with is 'acknowledgment that what works well in one situation may not work in another' (Dudley-Evans and St. John, 1998, 124). Accordingly, ESP

curriculum should be worked out in a way to be functional to specific cultural and social environment where it going to be applied.

Another acknowledged means of NA is task-based approach (Huh, 2006).

Task-based Needs Analysis

Principle that underlies task-based needs analysis (TBLT) is to derive pedagogic tasks from real-world target tasks that learners will be supposed to perform in further. According to Long (2005), TBLT differs from traditional target situation analysis (Munby, 1978), present situation analysis (Richterich & Chanecerel, 1980) and learning centered approach (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987). TBLT regards tasks as the component of analysis and syllabus design. Long and Norris (2000) suggests six steps for developing TBLT program:

Conduct task-based needs analysis to identify target tasks.

Classify target tasks into target task types.

Derive pedagogic tasks

Sequence pedagogic tasks

Implement syllabus with appropriate methodology and pedagogy.

Assess student achievement using task-based, criterion-referenced performance tests (Huh, 2006).

Another approach to NA is the distinction between subjective and objective, felt and perceived needs.

Objective needs

Objective needs are those needs that are the result of factual information about learners, target language use in real-life communication situations, language proficiency level and language barrier that they encounter (Çelik, 2003). Objective needs are collected via precise,

observable data about the learner, the target situation, present skill and proficiency level, and required language proficiency level (Brown, 1995). Another required factor for objective needs analysts is to take into account learners' background information about education, family status, profession, age, language spoken, country and culture (Çelik, 2003).

Subjective needs

Brindley (1989) advocates that 'subjective needs are cognitive and affective needs of the learners in the learning situation, derivable from information about affective and cognitive factors such as personality, confidence, self-esteem, expectations, learners' wants with regard to the learning English and their individual cognitive styles' (p. 70). Analyzing learners' subjective needs requires information about learners' attitude to the target language, target culture, to learning process and to themselves. It also includes learners' expectations from the course and purposes (Graves, 2000).

Felt and perceived needs

Felt needs are those needs that learners think they need (Berwick, 1989). These needs deal with learners' feelings, thoughts, and suppositions (Çelik, 2003).

Perceived needs are experts' assumptions about learners' educational gaps. They are regarded as 'normative, real, and objective, in the sense that they reflect teachers' or educational settings' outsider perceptions of learners' language needs' (Çelik, 2003, 27).

3.3. Procedures for Conducting Needs Assessment

One of the key steps in conducting needs analysis is to decide on methods that will be used for data collection (Çelik, 2003). There are diverse techniques for needs analysis data collection suggested by different experts in the field.

Smith's (1990) instruments for needs analysis are test scores, student records, surveys, demographic studies, grades, financial records, and even drop out information.

Another range of data collecting methods was suggested by Brown (1995). The suggest methods are: existing information, tests, observations, meetings, interviews and questionnaires. Robinson (1991) recommends his list of needs analysis methods: they are questionnaires, interviews, case studies, tests and authentic data collection, such as analyzing manuals, written assignments. Jordan (1997) adds to Robinsons' list advanced documents, as extra information about learners' educational background, previously attended courses; self-assessment, progressive tests, direct monitoring, structured interviews, learners' diaries.

Overall procedures used to collect data are different; however, the most extensively used ones are case studies, interviews and questionnaires (West, 1994).

Richards (2001) provides a range of instruments for NA data collection with their advantages and disadvantages:

Questionnaire

Questionnaires are one of the most commonly used instruments for data collection. They are either based on structured items (respondent chooses among given options) or on unstructured items (respondent answers to open-ended questions). Structured items are easier to administrate and to analyze then.

The advantages of questionnaires are as follows:

- Easy to prepare
- Can be used with large samples
- Elicit information on different issues and at the same time from different subjects

 Along with the listed advantages, questionnaires have a number disadvantages (Richards, 2001):

- Information obtained is superficial
- Questionnaire designing requires special training
- Time consuming
- Information may be unreliable because of ill-designed questionnaires

Interviews

Interviews provide more in-depth investigation of issues; however, they are oriented to smaller samples. Interviews are generally administered prior to questionnaires for obtaining more profound sense of what topics and issues should be under the focus of questionnaires. Interviews also can be structured where there are a set of questions serving as a guideline for interviewers.

Meetings

Meetings are another type of instrument for data collection. 'They allow a large amount of information to be collected in a fairly short time. However, information obtained may be impressionistic and subjective and reflect the ideas of more outspoken members of a group' (Richards, 2001, 61).

Observation

Observing learners in the target setting is another way of gathering information about their needs. From the one hand, people get nervous and do not perform them naturally when they are being observed. Consequently, this fact should be taken into consideration. Moreover, observing requires special skills to be trained in terms of properly using the information obtained. From the other hand, observations allow researchers to study the processes of education in naturalistic settings; they provide more precise evidence than other data sources; and they stimulate to review and change the methodological procedures.

Collecting learner language samples

Collecting data about learners' performance on diverse language activities and tasks, such as business letters, interviews, telephone calls, and analyzing the problems they encounter in the samples is a productive way of studying learners' needs. Below are given several language sample means that can be used by needs analysts (Richards, 2001):

Written or oral tasks

Simulation or role plays

Achievement tests

Performance tasks

Task analysis

This type of NA analysis deals with studying the tasks in English that learners will perform in target settings. Berwick (1989, 57) emphasizes that 'the emphasis of target situation analysis is on the nature and effect of target language communications in particular situations'. As long as target tasks are identified, their linguistic characteristics are set up as a basis for source of designing course and materials.

Case studies

In case study, a student or a group of students is integrated in a particular case of relevant work or educational experience in order to observe the characteristics of that situation (Richards, 2001). One of the shortcomings of case studies is that they cannot be overgeneralized.

Analysis of available information

According to Richards (2001) analyzing available information is the first step for further needs analysis. The sources that might serve as starting point for NA are:

- Reports and surveys
- · Records and files

- Books
- Journal articles

Graves (2000) puts instruments for NA data collection into two categories:

- Needs analysis activities used once or on a regular basis
- Ongoing needs analysis activities

Questionnaires; interviews; grids, charts, or lists; writing activities; ranking activities; and group discussions are categorized under needs analysis activities used once or on a regular basis. Grids and charts are activities where instructors hold mini interviews among learners.

Afterwards, learners fill in class chart with information about their partner's background, preferences, likes, profession and so on.

Regular feedback sessions; dialogue journals; learning logs/learning diaries; and portfolios are subcategorized under the second category- ongoing needs analysis activities.

CHAPTER THREE: METHODOLOGY

Rooting in the literature review, upholding the role and the prominence of the application of needs assessment in ESP, correspondingly, in Business English course design, the current research study sets forth an assignment to conduct a survey among the course designers and the learners of the pre-selected language centers. The target of the survey is the following: firstly, it investigates if the course designers/instructors are aware of their learners' learning preferences, their goals and expectations from the course they attend. Secondly, it seeks to identify those procedures of needs assessment that the course designers give preference. Coming from those purposes, the study puts forward the following two research questions:

- 1. To what extent do ten business English course designers pay regard to conducting needs assessment (NA) with their learners?
- 2. Which types of procedures/methods of data collection do business English curriculum designers/teachers use?

Research Design

In its nature the present study is based on descriptive method of data collection. Since the data doesn't have longitudinal design, i.e. it is elicited only once, the cross-sectional survey has been considered mostly apt. The methodology underlying the present research study is *simple random sampling*. As for the sampling frame underlying the research, it is quantitative. Two different questionnaires are processed for correspondingly business English teachers/course curriculum designers (Appendix A) and learners (Appendix B). Both questionnaires are developed on the basis of Munby's (1978) 'needs analysis model for ESP', Richards's (2001) 'needs assessment questionnaire model', and Alharby's (2005) 'survey of English language

needs of medical professionals'. Statistical analysis of the data set was done via statistical package for the social sciences (SPSS).

Research setting

The research study was executed in ten language centers in Yerevan, chosen as a probability sample, and based on random sampling method of survey research design. All ten language centers offer English courses for Specific Purposes (ESP); particularly, Business English courses. In order to keep the names of ten language centers confidential, they are representatively entitled as Language Center 1 (LC 1), Language Center 2 (LC 2), etc.

Research participants

The target population of this study is the following: one business English teacher and N number of students from each language center separately. The number of students varies from one language center to another. Totally their number is fifty nine. The following chart illustrates the number of teachers and learners in ten language centers correspondingly:

Table 3.1

	Teachers (#)	Students (#)
LC 1	1	6
LC 2	1	7
LC 3	1	6
LC 4	1	6
LC 5	1	6
LC 6	1	6
LC 7	1	5
LC 8	1	6

LC 9	1	5
LC 10	1	6

Instruments

The rationale behind choosing the closed-ended format questionnaires as the tools for data gathering was that these research instruments require little time or extended writing from the participants. They are especially useful when data gathered from large populations is being analyzed, and they also help researchers while making group comparisons (Çelik, 2003, Oppenheim 1993). Consequently, the closed-ended type of questionnaire has been selected in the scope of the present research project as the main research instrument for data collection.

As it was mentioned in the previous section, two different questionnaires have been designed for both the teachers and the students of 10 language centers (see Appendices A and B). Nine item questionnaire was administered to the curriculum designers/teachers, and eight item questionnaire was administered to the students. Based on the classification of their level of measurement both questionnaires consist of *nominal-level* and *interval-level* questions. The following question types have been integrated in both questionnaires:

- Dichotomous questions
- Likert response scale questions
- Importance questions
- Single-answer questions
- Multiple-answer questions

Although the exact numbers of the questions varies between the questionnaires, both questionnaires have questions covering two research questions: the use of NA and the tools used for conducting NA.

Data Analysis Procedures

Firstly, it is worth to remind the reader about the list of the questions/items with the corresponding numberings presented in appendix C. Upon the very numberings the items/questions of both questionnaires were analyzed and presented throughout the current thesis paper.

The items/questions of both teachers' and students' questionnaires were firstly distinguished, and, accordingly measures as nominal-item and scale-item types. Nominally measured items are all those items that have yes/no values. They comprise dichotomous questions and multiple-answer questions of both teachers' and students' questionnaires. Scale measured item types encompass likert response scale questions, importance questions and single-answer questions. In order to calculate the percentage ratio among both nominally measured items and scale measured items the "custom tables" type of analysis was used. As for describing scale measured items in terms of their means the "descriptive statistics" was applied.

It is worth to mention that in case of the teachers' questionnaires both the custom table and the descriptive analysis were done among ten language centers. Whereas, the students' questionnaires were analyzed in the following sequence:

- 1. Custom table analysis of the students' questionnaires of 10 split language centers. Here, the main aim is to see the percentage ratio among the overall students' answers.
- Custom table and descriptive statistics analysis of 59 students' questionnaires together.
 This time the focus is on both the percentage ratio and the average attitude of the students' responses in each language center distinctively.

CHAPTER FOUR: RESULTS

Teachers' and Students' Questionnaires

The left side of the table represents the teachers' questionnaire results of ten language centers. The right side shows fifty nine students' questionnaire results respectively.

Below in the brackets are given the full versions of the abbreviations used in the chart: not.rel. (not relevant); VI (very important); FI (fairly important); UnI (unimportant); SA (strongly agree); A (agree); D (disagree); SD (strongly disagree); Lst.I (least important); Lss.I (less important); I (important), MI (the most important).

Table 4.1

		Ter	n Language Cer	iters				
	Ten Teach	ers' Questionnaires		Fifty N	line Student	ts' Quest	ionnaires	
TQ1	Yes	No	SQ1	Yes		No		
	100%	.0%		100%		0%		
TQ2	Yes	No	SQ2	Yes		No		
	80%	20%		69.5%	1	30.5%		
TQ3	Yes	No	SQ3	a lot	somewhat	a little	not rel.	Mean
	90%	10%		55.9	35.6%	8.5%	0%	1.43
TQ4	Yes	No	SQ4.1	VI	FI		Unl	Mean
	100%	.0%		54.2%	39%		6.8%	1.53
TQ5.1	Yes	No	SQ4.2	VI	FI		Unl	Mean
	40%	60%		84.7%	10.2%	ı	5.1%	1.20
TQ5.2	Yes	No	SQ4.3	VI	FI		Unl	Mean
	90%	10%		88.1%	8.5%		3.4%	1.15
TQ5.3	Yes	No	SQ4.4	VI	FI		Unl	Mean
	90%	10%		74.6%	20.3%		5.1%	1.27
TQ5.4	Yes	No	SQ4.5	VI	FI		Unl	Mean
	50%	50%		54.2%	44.1%	ı	1.7%	1.47
TQ5.5	Yes	No	SQ4.6	VI	FI		Unl	Mean
	60%	40%		64.4%	33.9%		1.7%	1.37
TQ5.6	Yes	No	SQ4.7	VI	FI		Unl	Mean
	40%	60%		91.5%	3.4%		5.1%	1.14
TQ5.7	Yes	No	SQ4.8	VI	FI		Unl	Mean
	90%	10%		83.1%	11.9%		5.1%	1.22
TQ5.8	Yes	No	SQ4.9	VI	FI		Unl	Mean
	80%	20%		81.4%	13.6%		5.1%	1.24

TQ5.9	Yes		No			SQ4.10	VI		FI		Unl	Mean
,	90%		10%			,	86.4%		13.6%		0%	1.14
TQ5.1	Yes		No			SQ4.11	VI		FI		Unl	Mean
	90%		10%				66.1%	,	30.5%		3.4%	1.37
TQ5.1	Yes		No			SQ4.12	VI		FI		Unl	Mean
	90%		10%				18.6%	,	50.8%		30.5%	2.07
TQ5.1	Yes		No			SQ5	Yes			No		
	40%		60%				93.2%)		6.8%		
TQ6	SA	Α	D	SD	Mean	SQ6.1	Lst.I	Lss.l	FI	I	MI	Mean
	80%	20%	.0%	.0%	1.20	6.1.1	1.7%	1.7	0%	5.1%	91.5%	4.81
TQ7.1	Lst.I	Lss.I	FI	1	MI	6.1.2	Lst.I	Lss.l	FI	I	MI	Mean
7.1.1	0%	0%	0%	20%	80%		0%	0%	0%	1.7%	98.3%	4.98
7.1.2	Lst.I	Lss.I	FI	I	MI	SQ6.2	Lst.I	Lss.l	FI	I	MI	Mean
	0%	0%	0%	10%	90%	6.2.1	0%	1.7	0%	10.2	88.1%	4.85
TQ7.2	Lst.I	Lss.I	FI	I	MI	6.2.2	Lst.I	Lss.l	FI	I	MI	Mean
7.2.1	0%	0%	0%	10%	90%	6.2.3	0%	0%	0%	5.1%	94.9%	4.95
7.2.2	Lst.I	Lss.I	FI	1	MI	6.2.3	Lst.I	Lss.l	FI	ı	MI	Mean
	0%	05	10%	0%	90%		5.1%	15.3	22%	45.8	11.9%	3.44
7.2.3	Lst.I	Lss.I	FI	1	MI	6.2.4	Lst.I	Lss.l	FI	ı	MI	Mean
	0%	0%	10%	70%	20%		5.1%	16.9	16.9	45.8	15.3%	3.49
7.2.4	Lst.I	Lss.I	FI	1	MI	SQ6.3	Lst.I	Lss.l	FI	I	MI	Mean
	0%	0%	10%	70%	20%	6.3.1	0%	1.7	3.4%	30.5	64.4%	4.58
TQ7.3	Lst.I	Lss.I	FI	I	МІ	6.3.2	Lst.I	Lss.l	FI	ı	MI	Mean
7.3.1	0%	0%	10%	40%	50%		0%	0%	1.7%	3.4%	94.9%	4.93
7.3.2	Lst.I	Lss.l	FI	1	MI	6.3.3	Lst.I	Lss.l	FI	ı	MI	Mean
	0%	0%	10%	0%	90%		0%	1.7	16.9	40.7	40.7%	4.20
7.3.3	Lst.I	Lss.l	FI	1	МІ	6.3.4	Lst.I	Lss.l	FI	I	MI	Mean
	0%	0%	10%	10%	80%		0%	0%	18.6	35.6	45.8%	4.27
7.3.4	Lst.l	Lss.I	FI	ı	MI	SQ6.4	Lst.I	Lss.I	FI	1	MI	Mean
	0%	0%	10%	30%	60%	6.4.1	0%	1.7	1.7%	3.4%	93,2%	4.93
TQ7.4	Lst.l	Lss.I	FI	1	MI	6.4.2	Lst.I	Lss.l	FI	ı	MI	Mean
7.4.1	0%	0%	0%	0%	100							
							0%	1.7	0%	5.1%	93.2%	4.90
7.4.2	Lst.I	Lss.I	FI	I	MI	SQ6.5	Lst.I	Lss.I	FI	I	MI	Mean
	0%	0%	10%	0%	90%	6.5.3	0%	3.4	0%	1.7%	94.9%	4.88

TQ7.5	Lst.I	Ls	s.l	FI	I	MI	6.5.4	Lst.I	Lss.I	FI	I	MI	Mean
7.5.3	0%	09	%	0%	10%	90%		0%	1.7	0%	5.1%	93.2%	4.90
7.5.4	Lst.I	Ls	s.l	FI	I	MI	SQ6.6	Lst.I	Lss.I	FI	1	MI	Mean
	0%	09	%	0%	10%	90%	6.6.3	0%	3.4	0%	5.1%	91.5%	4.85
TQ7.6	Lst.I	Ls	s.l	FI	I	MI	6.6.4	Lst.I	Lss.I	FI	I	MI	Mean
7.6.3	0%	09	%	0%	10%	90%		0%	1.7	0%	6.8%	91.5%	4.88
7.6.4	Lst.I	Ls	s.l	FI	1	MI	SQ6.7	Lst.I	Lss.I	FI	ı	MI	Mean
	0%	09	%	0%	10%	90%	6.7.3	1.7%	0%	1.7%	10.2	86.4%	4.80
TQ7.7	Lst.I	Ls	s.l	FI	I	MI	6.7.4	Lst.I	Lss.I	FI	ı	MI	Mean
7.7.3	0%	09	%	10%	10%	80%		1.7%	1.7	1.7%	8.5%	86.4%	4.80
7.7.4	Lst.I	Ls	s.l	FI	I	MI	SQ6.8	Lst.I	Lss.I	FI	I	MI	Mean
	0%	09	%	0%	10%	90%	6.8.3	0%	1.7	0%	6.8%	91.5%	4.88
TQ7.8	Lst.I	Ls	s.l	FI	I	MI	6.8.4	Lst.I	Lss.I	FI	ı	MI	Mean
7.8.3	0%	09	%	0%	20%	80%	_	1.7%	0%	0%	10.2	88.1%	4.83
7.8.4	Lst.I	Ls	s.l	FI	1	MI	SQ6.9	Lst.I	Lss.I	FI	1	MI	Mean
	0%	09	%	0%	20%	80%	6.9.3	0%	1.7	1.7%	13.6	83.1%	4.78
TQ7.9	Lst.I	Ls	s.l	FI	1	MI	6.9.4	Lst.I	Lss.I	FI	ı	MI	Mean
7.9.3	0%	09	%	0%	30%	70%		1.7%	1.7	1.7%	13.6	81.4%	4.71
7.9.4	Lst.I	Ls	s.l	FI	I	МІ	SQ7	Yes	•		No		-1
	0%	09	%	0%	10%	90%		67.8			32.2		
TQ8	Once		Twice	!	More th	an	SQ8 8.1	Yes			No		
								37.3			62.7		
====	0%		100%		0%						1		
TQ9 9.1	Yes				No		8.2	Yes			No		
	40%				60%			10.2			89.8		
9.2	Yes				No		8.3	Yes			No		
0.2	10%				90%		0.4	6.8			93.2		
9.3	Yes 0%				No 100%		8.4	Yes 20.3			No 79.7		
9.4	Yes				No		8.5	Yes			No		
J. 4	20%				80%		0.5	5.1			94.9		
9.5	Yes				No		8.6	Yes			No		
2.0	10%				90%		_	93.2			5.1		
9.6	Yes				No						1 2.2		
2.0	100%				0%		-						
	100/0				1 0 / 0								

The general trends of table 4.1 are as follows: 10 teachers of the language centers administered placement tests with their students. Meanwhile, all 59 students of ten language centers mentioned that they also took placement tests. According to the results, ten teachers agreed that their courses were relevant to their learners' job-related needs. At the same time, the majority - 55.9% of the students found the courses they were taking relevant a lot; and 33.5% regarded them somewhat relevant. Another trend that was observed was the use of the tests. 100% of the teachers and 93.2% of the students affirmed that test was the procedure that was basically applied.

Students' Questionnaires (Split Language Centers)

In the chart below all the items of the students' questionnaires are analyzed upon 10 language centers individually. The results illuminate the differences and similarities of the students' answers inside of each language center respectively.

Below in the brackets are given the full versions of the abbreviations used in the chart: Y (yes); N (no); s/w (somewhat); a ltl (a little); n/r (not relevant); VI (very important); FI (fairly important); UnI (unimportant); LtI (little important); LsI (less important); I (fairly important); MI (the most important)

Table 4.2

		Languag	e Cente	er 1	La	nguage C	enter 2			Langua	ge Cente	r 3	L	anguag	e Cente	er 4	L	anguag.	e Cente	r 5
1	Υ		N		Υ		N		Υ		N		Υ		N		Υ		N	
	100%		0%		100		0		100		0		100		0		100		0	
2	Υ		N		Υ		N		Υ		N		Υ		N		Υ		N	
	83.3%		16.7	%	100		0		66.6		33.4		0		100		100		0	
3	a lot	s/w	a Itl	n/r	a lot	s/w	a Itl	n/r	a lot	s/w	a Itl	n/r	a lot	s/w	a ItI	n/r	a lot	s/w	a Itl	n/r
	50%	50%	0%	0%	85.7	14.3	0	0	83.3	16. 7	0	0	66.7	33. 3	0	0	50	33. 3	16.7	0
4.1	VI	FI		Unl	VI	FI	Ur	nl	VI		FI	Unl	VI	FI		Unl	VI	FI		Unl
	33.1%	66.	.7	0	85.7	14.3	0		83.3		16.7	0	50	33	.3	16.7	33.3	50		16.7
4.2	VI	FI		Unl	VI	FI	Ur	nl	VI		FI	Unl	VI	FI		Unl	VI	FI		Unl
	77.8%	22.	.2%	0%	85.7	14.3	0		100		0	0	50	33	.3	16.7	83.3	0		16.7
4.3	VI	FI		Unl	VI	FI	Ur	nl	VI		FI	Unl	VI	FI		Unl	VI	FI		Unl
	83.3%	16.	.7%	0%	100	0	0		100		0	0	83.3	16	.7	0	100	0		0
4.4	VI	FI		Unl	VI	FI	Ur	nl	VI		FI	Unl	VI	FI		Unl	VI	FI		Unl

	33.39	/_	66.7%	0%	<u></u>	85.7		14.3	0		100		0	-	0	66.7		33.3	0		83.3	0		16	7
4.5	_	′o		_					_					_		_					_	_		_	
4.5	VI	,	FI	Ur		VI		FI	Un	1	VI		FI		Unl n	VI	-	FI	Un	11	VI	F		Un	1
	16.79	6	83.3%	09		71.4		28.6	0		66.7	_	33.3	_	0	66.7		33.3	0		50	5		0	
4.6	VI	,	FI CC 704	Ur		VI		FI	Un	1	VI		FI 7		Unl	VI		FI	Un	nl .	VI	F		Un	1
	33.39	6	66.7%	0%		71.4	-	28.6	0		83.3	_	16.7		0	66.7		33.3	0		100	0		0	
4.7	VI	,	FI	Ur		VI		FI	Un	1	VI		FI		Unl	VI		FI	Un	1I	VI	F		Un	1
1.6	100%)	0%	09		100		0	0		100		0	_	0	100		0	0		100	0		0	
4.8	VI		FI	Ur		VI		FI	Un	ı	VI		FI		Unl	VI		16-	Un	nl .	VI	F		Un	ı
	66.79	%	33.3%	09		100		0	0		100	_	0	_	0	83.3		16.7	0		100	0		0	
4.9	VI		FI	Ur		VI		FI	Un	ı	VI		FI		Unl	VI		FI	Un	nl	VI	F		Un	ı
	83.39	%	16.7%	09		85.7		14.3	0		100		0	_	0	83.3		16.7	0		83.3	_	6.7	0	
4.10	VI		FI	Ur		VI		FI	Un	ı	VI		FI		Unl -	VI		FI	Un	nl	VI	F		Un	1
	100%	5	0%	0%		100	-	0	0		100		0		0	83.3		16.7	0		100	0		0	
4.11	VI		FI	Ur		VI		FI	Un	ı	VI		FI		Unl	VI		FI	Un	ıl	VI	F		Un	1
	100%	•	0%	09		57.1		42.9	0		100		0	_	0	83.3		16.7	0		66.7	_	3.3	0	
4.12	VI		FI	Ur		VI		FI	Un		VI		FI		Unl	VI		FI	Un		VI	F		Un	
	16.79	6	50%	33	.3%	0		85.7	14.	.3	33.3		50	1	16.7	16.7		33.3	50		33.3	5		16	.7
5	Υ			N		Υ		N			Υ		N			Υ		N			Υ		N		
	100%	Š		0%		100	1	0			100		0	,	,	83.3			6.7		100		0		r
6.1	LtI	LsI	FI	1	MI	LtI	Lsl	FI	_	MI	LtI	LsI	FI	1	MI	LtI	Ls	FI	1	MI	LtI	Ls	FI	I	МІ
6.1.1	0%	0%	0%	16.	83.3	0	0	0	0	100	0	0	0	0	10	0	0	0	16.	83.	0	0	0	0	100
6.1.2	LtI	LsI	FI	7% I	% MI	LtI	LsI	FI	I	MI	LtI	LsI	FI	ı	0 MI	LtI	Ls	FI	7 I	3 MI	LtI	Ls	FI	ı	MI
																	1					ı			
	0%	0%	0%	16. 7%	83.3 %	0	0	0	0	100	0	0	0	0	10 0	0	0	0	0	100	0	0	0	0	100
6.2 6.2.1	LtI	LsI	FI	I	MI	LtI	LsI	FI	I	МІ	LtI	LsI	FI	I	МІ	LtI	Ls I	FI	I	МІ	LtI	Ls I	FI	I	MI
	0%	0%	0%	0%	100 %	0	0	0	0	100	0	0	0	0	10 0	0	0	0	0	100	0	0	0	1 6.	83. 3
6.2.2	LtI	LsI	FI	ı	MI	LtI	LsI	FI	1	MI	LtI	LsI	FI	ı	MI	LtI	Ls	FI	ı	MI	LtI	Ls	FI	7 I	MI
0.2.2	05	0%	0%	0%	100	0	0	0	0	100	0	0	0	0	10	0	1 0	0	0	100	0	1 0	0	0	100
6.3.3					%										0										
6.2.3	LtI	Lsl	FI		MI	LtI	LsI	FI	I	MI	LtI	LsI	FI		MI	LtI	Ls I	FI	1	MI	LtI	Ls	FI	1	МІ
	0	0	50	33.	16.7	0	0	0	100	0	0	0	0	83.	16.	0	0	3	33.	33.	0	1	50	3	0
				3									1	3	7			3.	3	3		6.		3.	
6.2.4	LtI	LsI	FI	1	MI	LtI	LsI	FI	1	MI	LtI	LsI	FI	1	MI	LtI	Ls	3 FI	1	MI	LtI	7 Ls	FI	3 I	MI
0.2.4		-31	1	'	'*''		-31	''	'	'*''		E31	1 ''	Ι΄	'*''		ı	'''	'	.***		I	''	'	.***
	0	0	33. 3	50	16.7	0	0	0	85. 7	14 .3	0	0	0	66. 7	33. 3	0	0	5 0	33. 3	16. 7	0	3	33. 3	3 3.	0
6.2	1+1	Let	F:	<u> </u>	NAI	1+1	Let	FI	ļ.,	N A 1	1+1	Let	F!	,	N // 1	1+1	l.c	Fi		P.41	1+1	3	F!	3	L A J
6.3 6.3.1	LtI	LsI	FI	1	MI	LtI	LsI	FI	I	MI	LtI	LsI	FI	ı	MI	LtI	Ls	FI	1	MI	LtI	Ls	FI	ı	MI
0.3.1	0	0	0	33.	66.7	0	0	0	14.	85	0	0	0	33.	66.	0	0	3	0	66.	0	0	0	5	50
				3	00.7				3	.7				3	7			3.		7				0	30
							<u> </u>	<u> </u>										3	<u> </u>						
6.3.2	LtI	LsI	FI	1	MI	LtI	LsI	FI	I	MI	LtI	LsI	FI	I	MI	LtI	Ls	FI	1	MI	LtI	Ls	FI	I	MI
																	ı					Ι			
	0	0	0	0	100	0	0	0	0	10 0	0	0	0	16. 7	83. 3	0	0	1 6. 7	0	83. 3	0	0	0	0	100
6.3.3	LtI	LsI	FI	ı	MI	LtI	LsI	FI	I	MI	LtI	LsI	FI	1	MI	LtI	Ls	FI	I	МІ	LtI	Ls	FI	1	МІ
	0	0	0	33.	66.7	0	0	0	28.	71	0	0	0	33.	66.	0	0	1	33.	50	0	0	33.	5	16.
				3					6	.4				3	7			6. 7	3				3	0	7
6.3.4	LtI	LsI	FI		MI	LtI	LsI	FI	I	MI	LtI	LsI	FI	ı	MI	LtI	Ls I	FI	ļ	MI	LtI	Ls I	FI	I	МІ
	0	0	16. 7	0	83.3	0	0	0	28. 6	71 .4	0	0	0	16. 7	83. 3	0	0	1 6.	50	33. 3	0	0	33. 3	5 0	16. 7
																		7							

6.4	1+1	Let	гі		N/I	1+1	Lel	гі		N.41	1+1	Let	гі		N.41	1+1	l.c.	г		N.41	1+1	Lo	Ггі	Г.	N/I
6.4.1	LtI	LsI	FI	I	MI	LtI	LsI	FI	I	MI	LtI	LsI	FI	I	MI	LtI	Ls	FI	I	MI	LtI	Ls I	FI	ı	MI
	0	0	0	0	100	0	0	0	0	100	0	0	0	0	10	0	0	0	16.	83.	0	0	0	0	10
															0				7	3					0
6.4.2	LtI	LsI	FI	1	MI	LtI	LsI	FI	1	MI	LtI	LsI	FI	1	MI	LtI	Ls	FI	1	MI	LtI	Ls	FI	1	MI
	0	0	0	0	100	0	0	0	14.	85.	0	0	0	0	10	0	0	0	0	100	0	0	0	0	10
	Ü	O	U		100		0	O	3	7	U	0			0		ľ		O	100					0
6.5	LtI	LsI	FI	1	MI	LtI	LsI	FI	1	MI	LtI	LsI	FI	1	MI	LtI	Ls	FI	1	MI	LtI	Ls	FI	1	MI
6.5.3																	I					1			
	0	0	0	0	100	0	0	0	0	100	0	0	0	0	10 0	0	0	0	0	100	0	0	0	0	10 0
6.5.4	LtI	LsI	FI	1	MI	LtI	LsI	FI	ı	MI	LtI	LsI	FI	1	MI	LtI	Ls	FI	1	MI	LtI	Ls	FI	1	MI
																	1					1			
	0	0	0	0	100	0	0	0	14.	85.	0	0	0	0	10	0	0	0	16.	83.	0	0	0	0	10
6.6	1.41	Lal	FI		MI	141	Lal	F!	3	7	141	Lal	F!	1	0	1.41	la.		7	3 MI	1.41	l a			0
6.6.3	LtI	LsI	гі	ı	IVII	LtI	LsI	FI	I	MI	LtI	LsI	FI	'	MI	LtI	Ls I	FI	ı	IVII	LtI	Ls I	FI	ı	MI
	0	0	0	0	100	0	0	0	14.	85.	0	0	0	0	10	0	0	0	0	100	0	0	0	0	10
									3	7					0										0
6.6.4	LtI	LsI	FI	I	MI	LtI	LsI	FI	I	MI	LtI	LsI	FI	1	MI	LtI	Ls	FI	I	MI	LtI	Ls	FI	I	MI
	0	0	0	0	100	0	0	0	28.	71.	0	0	0	0	10	0	0	0	0	100	0	0	0	0	10
									6	4					0										0
6.7 6.7.3	LtI	LsI	FI	I	MI	LtI	LsI	FI	I	MI	LtI	LsI	FI	1	MI	LtI	Ls	FI	I	MI	LtI	Ls	FI	1	MI
0.7.3	0	0	0	16.	83.3	0	0	0	14.	85.	0	0	0	0	10	0	0	0	0	100	0	0	0	0	10
				7					3	7					0										0
6.7.4	LtI	LsI	FI	1	MI	LtI	LsI	FI	1	MI	LtI	LsI	FI	1	MI	LtI	Ls	FI	1	MI	LtI	Ls	FI	ı	MI
	0	0	0	16.	83.3	0	0	0	14.	85.	0	0	0	0	10	0	0	0	0	100	0	0	0	0	10
	Ü	O	Ü	7	03.3		0	O	3	7	U	U			0		ľ		O	100					0
6.8	LtI	LsI	FI	I	MI	LtI	LsI	FI	Ι	MI	LtI	LsI	FI	1	MI	LtI	Ls	FI	1	MI	LtI	Ls	FI	ı	MI
6.8.3	0	0	0	22	66.7	0	0	0	1.1	0.5	0	0	0	0	10	0	1	0	0	100	0	ı	0	0	10
	0	0	0	33. 3	66.7	0	0	0	14. 3	85. 7	0	0	0	0	10 0	0	0	0	0	100	0	0	0	0	10 0
6.8.4	LtI	LsI	FI	ı	MI	LtI	LsI	FI	I	MI	LtI	LsI	FI	1	MI	LtI	Ls	FI	1	MI	LtI	Ls	FI	ı	MI
																	ı					1			
	0	0	0	50	50	0	0	0	14. 3	85. 7	0	0	0	0	10 0	0	0	0	0	100	0	0	0	0	10 0
6.9	LtI	LsI	FI	1	MI	LtI	LsI	FI	I	MI	LtI	LsI	FI	1	MI	LtI	Ls	FI	1	MI	LtI	Ls	FI	1	MI
6.9.3		251	• •	•		20.	25.		•			25.		·			I		•			I			
	0	0	0	50	50	0	0	0	28.	71.	0	0	0	16	83.	0	0	0	0	100	0	0	0	0	10
6.9.4	LtI	LsI	FI	ı	MI	LtI	LsI	FI	6 I	4 MI	LtI	LsI	FI	.7 I	3 MI	LtI	Ls	FI	1	MI	LtI	Ls	FI	ı	0 MI
0.5.4	LU	LSI	FI	'	IVII	LU	LSI	П	'	IVII	LU	LSI	FI	'	IVII	LU	I	F1	'	IVII	Lu	I	FI	'	IVII
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	83.3		16.7	0		80		20	0		100		0	C		60		40	0		50	50		0	
4.11	VI		FI	U		VI		FI	Un	I	VI		FI		Jnl	VI		FI	U		VI	FI		Uı	
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6.9 6.9.3	LtI	LsI	FI	I	MI	LtI	LsI	FI	I	МІ	LtI	LsI	FI	I	МІ	LtI	Ls I	FI	I	МІ	LtI	Ls I	FI	I	МІ

	0	0	0	0	100	0	0	0	0	100	0	0	0	16 .7	83. 3	0	0	0	0	100	0	1 6. 7	16. 7	16. 7	50
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	0	0	0	0	100	20	0	0	0	80	0	0	0	0	10 0	0	0	0	0	100	0	1 6. 7	16. 7	16. 7	50
7	Υ		N			Υ		N			Υ		N			Υ			N		Υ			N	
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8.6	Υ		N			Υ		N			Υ		N			Υ		N	ı		Υ		N	ı	
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As it can be seen in table 4.2, the first question (Appendix C, SQ 1) is identical in all ten language centers. The results of the question about the course relevance (Appendix C, SQ 3) were generally identical among language centers 2, 3, 8 and between 4 and 10. All the students of language centers 1, 2, 3, 5, 7, 8 and 9 thought that their teachers knew their level of language proficiency (Appendix C, SQ 5). According to the students all the teachers of language centers 4, 6, 7, 9 did not know the students personal learning goals; whereas, the teachers of language centers 1 and 8 were aware of their students' goals for taking the courses (Appendix C, SQ 7). The trends of questions 8.1-8.6 (Appendix C, SQ 8.1-8.6) are the following: language centers 1, 6, 7, 9 did not use questionnaires (SQ 1); yet, language centers 5 and 8 did. Interview was administered by language centers 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7 and 9. The results indicate that language centers 1-9 did not observe their students: language center 10 observed the students according to 66.7% of the students. Only language centers 1 and 10 had group discussions with their students. All the other language centers did not apply this procedure. All language centers except for LC 10 did case studies. The students of language centers 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 8 and 10 denoted that they took a

test. The results of the students of language 6, 7 and 9 indicate that their teachers did not administer tests.

CHAPTER FIVE: DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

The current research has given an account of and the reasons for the significance of needs assessment in the curricula design of ESP courses. Its purpose was twofold:

- 1. To what extent do ten business English course designers pay regard to conducting needs assessment (NA) with their learners?
- 2. Which types of procedures/methods of data collection do business English curriculum designers/teachers use?

Two sources of information were applied to provide the survey results with validity and reliability. On this ground the survey integrated both business English curriculum designers and the students. The students' responses were analyzed in the frame of each language center separately, as well as within 10 language centers respectively. Moreover, to look at the correspondence of the students' and the teachers' responses, lines of comparison were drawn between particular questions from both questionnaires. The statistical results of the study have shown that all ten investigated language centers of Yerevan did use needs assessment to some extent.

The current chapter covers the presentation of the results upon the following procedure:

- 1. Findings over research question 1
- 2. Findings over research question 2
- 1. Findings over research question One (To what extent do ten business English course designers pay regard to conducting needs assessment (NA) with their learners?)

The findings show that:

 All the teachers of 10 language centers apply placement tests with their students as a determiner of the students' level of language proficiency.

- Almost all the teachers (80%) are aware of their students' personal learning goals. If 100% is equivalent to 10 teachers, accordingly, 80% is equivalent to 8 teachers.
- 90%, i.e. 9 teachers were taking into account their learners' occupations when designing the curricula.
- Though 9 teachers accepted that they were designing the courses based on the learners' occupational needs, all ten teachers agreed that their courses were relevant to their learners' job-related needs.
- 80%/8 teachers strongly agreed and 20%/2 teachers agreed that it is important to determine in advance the students' English proficiency level.
- o 100%, i.e. 10 teachers noted that they analyzed their learners' needs *twice*.
- 1. Language center 1 administers a placement test. Accordingly, all the students affirmed that their teacher knew their level of language proficiency. The teacher knew the students' job specifications. 50% of the students regarded the course relevant a lot, the other 50% somewhat relevant to their job-related needs. 100% of the students noted that their teacher was aware of their personal learning goals.
- 2. The business English teacher of language center 2 was using placement test as a means of language proficiency level determinant. The students were asked by the teacher about their jobs. 85.7% of the students mentioned that the course was relevant a lot to their jobrelated needs. All of them unanimously stated that the teachers knew their level of English language proficiency. In this language center only 66.6% of the students was sure that their teacher was aware of their expectations from the course.
- 3. Language center 3 did administer a placement test with its business English students. As a result the business English teacher was aware all of the students' level of language

- proficiency. The teacher got information about the students' jobs only according to 66.6% of them. However, more percent, i.e. 83.3% confirmed that the course corresponded a lot to their job-related needs. According to the same percent of the students the teacher knew their personal anticipations from the course.
- 4. The business English teacher of language center 4 administered a placement test with all the students. However, not all the students, i.e. 83.3%, were sure that the teacher knew their language proficiency level. The results showed that the teacher had no information about the students' jobs, and about their expectations from the course. As a result only 66.7% found the course relevant a lot to their occupational needs.
- 5. The business English students of language center 5 indicated that they took a placement test. All of them mentioned that their teacher gathered information from them about their jobs. Yet, 50% of them were sure that the course was relevant a lot, the other 50% affirmed that the course was somewhat relevant to their occupational needs. The teacher knew all of the students' level of language proficiency, as well as the expectations of 83.3% from the course.
- 6. Language center 6 applied a placement test with its business English students.

 Nevertheless, not all the students (83.3%) were sure that their teacher had information about their level of language proficiency. Only 33.3% indicated that the teacher was informed about their occupations. And the course was somewhat relevant to 66.7% of the students' needs. Moreover, none of the students mentioned that their personal learning goals were known by their teacher.
- 7. Business English students of language center 7 pointed out that they took a placement test, and 83.3% added that their teacher knew their level of language proficiency.

However, none of the students affirmed that the teacher asked them about their jobs. Consequently, neither of the students regarded the course relevant a lot to their jobrelated needs. Just 60% considered the course somewhat relevant. The objectives of the students for taking the course was also unknown by the teacher.

- 8. Language center 8 applied placement tests; the teacher knew the students' level of English language proficiency. All the students stated that the teachers knew their goals for taking the course. According to the students the teacher was aware about their job specifications, and the course was relevant a lot on the word of 83.3% of them.
- 9. Language center 9 did implement a placement test with its business English students, and, as a result, the teacher knew the students' level of language proficiency. In spite of that, the teacher had no idea about the students' jobs and their personal expectations from the course. Unsurprisingly, 40% of all the students saw the course somewhat relevant, and the other 40%-a little relevant to their occupational needs.
- 10. The statistical findings of language center 10 show that the teacher of the business

 English course administered a placement test. Yet, only according to 66.7% of the students the teacher had information about their level of English proficiency. The same percent of the students confirmed that the course was relevant a lot to their occupational requirements, even not mentioning that just half of them thought that their teacher got any information about their occupations. At last, 50% of the students stated that they were asked what their objectives were for taking the course.

Generally all 59 students of 10 language centers took placement tests. 69.5%, i.e. the majority assured that their teachers had information about their jobs. The percentage ratio indicate that 55.9% of the students found the courses they were taking relevant a lot; 33.5%-

somewhat relevant, and only 8.5%-a little relevant to their occupational needs. The average attitude (mean) was 1.43. This mean value is close to 1, initially measured for the option "a lot" in question # 3 (Appendix C, SQ 3). Therefore, the mean value of the descriptive statistics (1.43) affirms the percentage ratio of 55.9%. The vast majority of the students, i.e. 93.2% were sure that their teachers knew their level of English language proficiency. The teachers were aware also of 67.8% of the overall students' goals for taking the business English courses.

2. Findings over research question 2 (Which types of procedures/methods of data collection do business English curriculum designers/teachers use?)

The findings indicate that:

- o 40% of the teachers (4 teachers) out of ten used questionnaires with their students.
- o 10%, i.e. just 1 teacher applied an interview as a means of needs assessment.
- The students were not observed. (The sense of 'observation was misinterpreted' in the questionnaire it was not mentioned that teachers cannot be at the same time observers.)
- 20% (2 teachers) of the teachers noted that they had groups discussions directed to disclosing the students' needs.
- According to the results, only 1 teacher/10% did a case study.
- The test was the only procedure of needs assessment that was used by the absolute majority (100%) of the teachers.
- 1. According to the results, the students of language center 1 were not given questionnaires, were not interviewed, observed and did not do any case studies. In spite of that, all the students affirmed that they had group discussions and wrote a test.

- 2. 85.7% of the students of language center 2 were given questionnaires. The students were not interviewed, observed, did not have group discussions, and did not do case studies. 100% of the students took a test.
- 3. The results of the students' questionnaires of language center 3 indicate that 66.7% of the students completed questionnaires, and all of them were given tests. They were not interviewed, observed, did not have any group discussions and did not do any case studies.
- 4. 16.7% of the students of language center 4 denoted that they were given questionnaires.

 The other 83.3% confirmed the opposite. All the students took a test. There was no use of interviews, observations, group discussions and case studies by the teacher.
- 5. All the students of language center 5 confirmed that they filled in questionnaires and took a test. At the same time they were not interviewed, observed, did not have group discussions, and did not do case studies.
- 6. The results of language center 6 showed that the test was the only means of needs assessment that was used by the teacher.
- 7. The results of language center 7 were the same as the ones of language center 6.
- 8. 66.7% of the students of language center 8 said that they did not complete questionnaires. The same percentage stated that they were interviewed. No student was observed, had group discussions and did case studies. Instead, all of them assured that they were given tests.
- 9. In language center 9 the students only took a test.
- 10. Half of the students of language center 10 confirmed that they filled in questionnaires. The minority, i.e. 33.3% wrote that they were interviewed and did case studies. 66.7%

said that they were observed. All the students affirmed that they had group discussions and took a test.

Generally all the language centers did use one of the indicated tools of needs assessment. Yet, it is worth to draw the readers' attention on 3 language centers, i.e. language centers 6, 7 and 9. These three language centers were the only ones that used only test as a means of needs assessment.

37.3% of the students of ten language centers confirmed that they completed questionnaires. Very little percent, i.e., 10.8 noted that they were interviewed. Only 6.8% of the students were observed. According to 20.3%, the teachers ran group discussions with their students. Only 5.1% affirmed that they did case studies. The only tool of needs assessment that was largely applied throughout the business English teachers of ten language centers was the test-(93.2%)

Limitations

The prevailing limitations for this research study were the following:

- The first important constraint was that the number of students in each language center was very small: from each language center the number of the students integrated in the survey was ranging from 5 to 6. Only in language center two seven business English students took part in the survey. The reason of such low numbers of students was explained by the benchmarks for providing high level of quality, which would be impossible in case of large amount of students in the classrooms.
- Another serious limitation of this study was the restriction of sampling procedures of data collection. It was already mentioned in chapter three that the methodology underlying the research part was cross-sectional survey, rooted in quantitative sampling frame. So, the

questionnaire was the only tool used for data collection. It is well known that in its content and setting questionnaire may restrict the freedom of response, as well as there is a chance that the questions may be misinterpreted, rendering the answer useless.

Recommendations for Future Research

The following recommendations are laid ahead for future research:

- Combine personal interviews with questionnaires, as personal interviews will give more information about the test subject's answers while providing more statistical precision.
- It would be highly recommended to do a statistical analysis for examining the correspondence between the students' and the teachers' questionnaire responses.
 Consequently, both the teachers' and the students' results would become more valid.
- Collect data from business English students' employees/hiring managers (if they work) and/or from the educational institutions where they study. In the frame of business English courses the dominating figures are the students who come from different working contexts. Accordingly, they bring with them the demands and the requirements of the very contexts. To this regard the triangulation of data sources, that is, involving the third party (hiring managers/employers/institutional staff) is highly recommended.
- Carry out the same research in the regions of Armenia and in the Artsakh Republic. The
 results will give broader picture of the role of needs assessment in the frame of the whole
 country.
- Moving beyond this, it would be quite remarkable to draw larger boarders in the research and to take on one involving the neighboring country Georgia, namely Tbilisi. Yet, before carrying out the research the researcher should consider the scales, and

accordingly, the feasibility of the work.

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APPENDIX A

Questionnaire for Teachers/Curriculum Designers

This questionnaire is designed for Business English course designers and instructors. The questionnaire intends to collect information on the role of needs assessment in Armenian Business English courses. Your responses will help us to understand:

- a. if you are aware of your learners' learning preferences, their goals and expectations from the course they attend and
- b. which types of instrument you prefer to use for conducting needs analysis

Your responses are voluntary, anonymous and confidential.

Plea	ase, indicate your answer.
1.	Do your students take a placement test?
	a. □ Yes
	b. □ No
2.	Do you know your students' personal learning goals (what they hope to have achieved at the
	end of this course)?
	a. □ Yes
	b. □ No
3.	Do you take into account your students' occupation when designing curriculum?
	a. □ Yes
	b. □ No
4.	Is this course relevant to your students' occupational (job-related) needs?
	a. □ Yes
	b. □ No
5.	Please, indicate those topics that are integrated in the curriculum

Understanding other people at international meetings	
Participating in meetings by contributing views and ideas	
Presenting information (e.g. plans, statistics) clearly in meetings	
Answering questions in meetings	
Talking about business in informal settings (over lunch, etc.)	
Interacting socially (general, non-business talk) with visitors and at conferences, etc.	
Negotiating (agreeing plans, prices, contracts, etc.)	
Speaking on the phone - general language and for arrangements	
Speaking on the phone to discuss business	

Understanding written material (technical/economic articles, etc.)	
Writing faxes, e-mails or letters	
Using English for general travel needs (booking into hotels, etc.)	
Other topics for Business English, or more specific aspects of any of the above (e.g. using legal or financial language)	

6. Do you agree or disagree with the following statement?

It is important to determine in advance the students' English proficiency level Please, circle one number.

Strongly agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
1	2	3	4

7. Indicate how important it is for your students to have a high level English proficiency when performing the following business activities. Please, circle one number with **5- the most important** and **1-least important**.

		Listening	Speaking	Reading	Writing
1	Dealing with colleagues	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5		
2	Meetings	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
3	Presentations	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
4	Phone conversations	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5		
5	Letters			1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
6	E-mails and faxes			1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
7	Memos			1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
8	Reports			1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
9	Forms/applications			1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
10	Others, please specify	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5

8. How often do you analyze your students' needs? Please, circle one number.

once (at the beginning of the	twice (at the beginning and	more than twice (at the
course)	at the end of the course)	beginning, in the middle
		and at the end of the
		course)

1	2	2
1	<u> </u>	3
1	_	U

9. Which of the following instruments do you apply for collecting information from your students? You may choose more than one answer.

1	Questionnaire	
2	Interview	
3	Observation*	
4	Group discussions	
5	Case studies (students participate in a work/educational experience, and observe the characteristics of that situation).	
6	Test (e.g. placement tests, achievement tests)	
7	Others, please specify	

If you would like to be contacted for further information, please indicate your name, cell phone number, and email address.

Name:

Cell Phone:

Email:

Thank you for your participation.

^{*} The sense of "observation" was misinterpreted in the questionnaire. It was not mentioned that teachers cannot be at the same time observers and teachers.

APPENDIX B

Questionnaire for Students

This questionnaire is designed for the students of Business English courses. The questionnaire intends to collect information on the role of needs assessment in Armenian Business English courses. Your responses will help us to understand:

- c. if your preferences, goals and expectations are taken into account by the curriculum designer
- d. how he/she (the curriculum designer) identifies your preferences, goals and expectations

Your responses are voluntary, anonymous and confidential.

Please.	indicate '	vour	answer.
r rease,	marcate	, our	allow CI.

1.	Did '	you	take	a p	lacement	test?

$$a. \square Yes$$

2. Did your teacher gather any information from you about your job?

$$a. \square Yes$$

3. To what extent is this course relevant to your occupational (job-related) needs? Please, circle one number.

A lot	Somewhat	A little	Not relevant at all
1	2	3	4

4. Please, indicate how important it is for you to improve your skills in each of the following topics (choosing 'unimportant' can mean either that you do not need the skill or that you already feel confident enough in that area).

	Very	Fairly	Unimportant
	important	important	
Understanding other people at international meetings			
Participating in meetings by contributing views and ideas			
Presenting information (e.g. plans, statistics) clearly in meetings			
Answering questions in meetings			
Talking about business in informal settings (over lunch, etc.)			
Interacting socially (general, non-business talk) with visitors and at conferences, etc.			
Negotiating (agreeing plans, prices, contracts, etc.)			
Speaking on the phone - general language and for arrangements			

Speaking on the phone to discuss business		
Understanding written material (technical/economic articles, etc.)		
Writing faxes, e-mails or letters		
Using English for general travel needs (booking into hotels, etc.)		
Other topics for Business English, or more specific aspects of any of the above (e.g. using legal or financial language)		

5. Does your teacher know your level of English proficiency?

a. \square Yes

b. □ No

6. Please, indicate how important it is for you to have a high level English proficiency when performing the following business activities. Circle one number with 5- the most important and 1-least important.

		Listening	Speaking	Reading	Writing
1	Dealing with colleagues	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5		
2	Meetings	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
3	Presentations	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
4	Phone conversations	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5		
5	Letters			1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
6	E-mails and faxes			1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
7	Memos			1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
8	Reports			1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
9	Forms/applications			1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
10	Others, please specify	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5

7.	Did your t	eacher eve	r ask you	what your	goal/objective	was for	taking the	course?
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a. \square Yes

b. □ No

8. Which of the following ways did your teacher apply for collecting information from you? You may choose more than one answer.

1	Questionnaire	
		

2 Inte	rview	
3 Obs	ervation*	
4 Gro	up discussions	
a wo	e studies (students participate in ork/educational experience, and rve the characteristics of that ution).	
6 Test	t (e.g. placement tests, achievement tests)	
7 Oth	ers, please specify	

If you would like to be contacted for further information, please indicate your name, cell phone number, and email address.

Name:
Cell Phone:
Email:

Thank you for your participation.

^{*} The sense of "observation" was misinterpreted in the questionnaire. It was not mentioned that teachers cannot be at the same time observers and teachers.

APPENDIX C

The list of the questions/items with the corresponding numberings

Teachers' questionnaire

- TQ.1 (Do your students take a placement test?)
- TQ.2 (Do you know your students' personal learning goals?)
- TQ.3 (Do you take into account your students' occupation when designing curriculum?)
- TQ.4 (Is this course relevant to your students' occupational (job-related) needs?)
- TQ.5.1 (Participating in meetings by contributing views and ideas)
- TQ.5.2 (Understanding other people at international meetings)
- TQ.5.3 (Presenting information (e.g. plans, statistics) clearly in meetings)
- TQ.5.4 (Answering questions in meetings)
- TQ.5.5 (Talking about business in informal settings (over lunch, etc.))
- TQ.5.6 (Interacting socially (general, non-business talk) with visitors and at conferences, etc.)
- TQ.5.7 (Negotiating (agreeing plans, prices, contracts, etc.))
- TQ.5.8 (Speaking on the phone general language and for arrangements)
- TQ.5.9(Speaking on the phone to discuss business)
- TQ.5.10 (Understanding written material (technical/economic articles, etc.))
- TQ.5.11 (Writing faxes, e-mails or letters)
- TQ.5.12 (Using English for general travel needs (booking into hotels, etc.))
- TQ.6 (It is important to determine in advance the students' English proficiency level. Please, circle one number)
- TQ.7 (Indicate how important it is for your students to have a high level English proficiency when performing the following business activities.)

TQ.7.1(Dealing with colleagues)

TQ.7.1.1 Listening

TQ.7.1.2 Speaking

TQ.7.2 (Meetings)

TQ.7.2.1 Listening

TQ.7.2.2 Speaking

TQ.7.2.3 Reading

TQ.7.2.4 Writing

TQ.7.3 (Presentations)

TQ.7.3.1 Listening)

TQ.7.3.2 Speaking

TQ.7.3.3 Reading

TQ.7.3.4 Writing

TQ.7.4 (Phone conversations)

TQ.7.4.1 Listening

TQ.7.4.2 Speaking

TQ.7.5 (Letters)

TQ.7.5.3 Reading

TQ.7.5.4 Writing

TQ.7.6 (E-mails and faxes)

TQ.7.6.3 Reading

TQ.7.6.4 Writing

TQ.7.7 (Memos)

TQ.7.7.3 Reading

TQ.7.7.4 Writing

TQ.7.8 (Reports)

TQ.7.8.3 Reading

TQ.7.8.4 Writing

TQ.7.8 (Forms/applications)

TQ.7.9.3 Reading

TQ.7.9.4 Writing

TQ.8 (How often do you analyze your students' needs)

TQ.9 (Which of the following instruments do you apply for collecting information from your students?)

TQ.9.1 Questionnaire

TQ.9.2 Interview

TQ.9.3 Observation

TQ.9.4 Group discussions

TQ.9.5 Case studies

TQ.9.6 Test

Students' Questionnaire

SQ1 (Did you take a placement test?)

SQ2 (Did your teacher gather any information from you about your job?)

SQ3 (To what extent is this course relevant to your occupational (job-related) needs?)

SQ4.1 (Understanding other people at international meetings)

SQ4.2 (Participating in meetings by contributing views and ideas)

SQ4.3 (Presenting information (e.g. plans, statistics) clearly in meetings)

SQ4.4 (Answering questions in meetings)

SQ4.5 (Talking about business in informal settings (over lunch, etc.)

SQ4.6 (Interacting socially (general, non-business talk) with visitors and at conferences, etc.)

SQ4.7 (Negotiating (agreeing plans, prices, contracts, etc.)

SQ4.8 (Speaking on the phone - general language and for arrangements)

SQ4.9 (Speaking on the phone to discuss business)

SQ4.10 (Understanding written material (technical/economic articles, etc.)

SQ4.11 (Writing faxes, e-mails or letters)

SQ4.12 (Using English for general travel needs (booking into hotels, etc.)

SQ5 (Does your teacher know your level of English proficiency?)

SQ6 (indicate how important it is for you to have a high level English proficiency when performing the following business activities)

SQ6.1 (Dealing with colleagues)

SQ6.1.1 (Listening)

SQ6.1.2 (Speaking)

SQ6.2 (Meetings)

SQ6.2.1 (Listening)

SQ6.2.2 (Speaking)

SQ6.2.3 (Reading)

SQ6.2.4 (Writing)

SQ6.3 (Presentations)

SQ6.3.1 (Listening)

SQ6.3.2 (Speaking)

SQ6.3.3 (Reading)

SQ6.3.4 (Writing)

SQ6.4 (Phone conversations)

SQ6.4.1 (Listening)

SQ6.4.2 (Speaking)

SQ6.5 (Letters)

SQ6.5.3 (Reading)

SQ6.5.4 (Writing)

SQ6.6 (E-mails and faxes)

SQ6.6.3 (Reading)

SQ6.6.4 (Writing)

SQ6.7 (Memos)

SQ6.7.3 (Reading)

SQ6.7.4 (Writing)

SQ6.8 (Reports)

SQ6.8.3 (Reading)

SQ6.8.4 (Writing)

SQ6.9 (Forms/applications)

SQ6.9.3 (Reading)

SQ6.9.4 (Writing)

SQ7 (Did your teacher ever ask you what your goal/objective was for taking the course?)

SQ8 (Which of the following instruments do you apply for collecting information from your

students?)

SQ8.1 (Questionnaire)

SQ8.2 (Interview)

SQ8.3 (Observation)

SQ8.4 (Group discussions)

SQ8.5 (Case studies)

SQ8.6 (Test)