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ENGLISH LANGUAGE NEEDS OF AL WATANIYA TELECOM NEDJMA's STAFF

DISSERTATION SUBMITTED TO THE DEPARTMENT OF ANGLO- SAXON LANGUAGES IN PARTIAL FULFIMENT FOR TUE DEGREE OF MAGISTER IN ESP.

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ABSTRACT

The purposes of this study are to investigate business English communication skills needed by business professionals working in Al Wataniya Telecom Nedjma (henceforth WTN) and to determine what business English communication skills should be given priority over others. In addition, the present study was conducted to investigate the needs of economist workers in using English for Specific Purposes in WTN.

The primary objective of the study is to identify the English language skills of the WTN staff workplace and it also aims at exploring any possible differences between the expected English language and the actual performance of the respondents working in WTN.

This work is divided into four chapters, as follows:

Chapter One deals with the origins of the ESP approach. It discusses the theoretical background of Needs Analysis as the framework of the ESP approach, its relation to the concept of Communicative Competence and its impact on linguistic theory. The last part is devoted to the methodology and the content of the questionnaire.

Chapter Two deals with business communication and it gives an idea about effective communication which occurs when speakers and listeners or writers and readers agree on the content of the message.

Chapter Three presents the data obtained from the questionnaire. First, background information on the respondents and their workplace WTN is given. This is followed by an overall picture of English language needs of the respondents. Qualitative and quantitative needs are presented. Issues in using English in a professional context is also discussed.

Chapter Four, deals with the English language training WTN and the Scholarship Program. In this chapter, the respondents are asked in the questionnaire whether they are offered English language training at WTN. The training needs are studied by type of work. Then, they were asked about their wants and apprehension.

This research is an attempt to explore the issue of adopting English as a linguistic standard for Algerians, to contribute to the development process of Algeria.
More specifically, the study covers information about whether using English is part of the respondent's daily business skills and about what kinds of proficiency and competence are needed when using English in professional contexts.

The rationale behind this study is to identify the workers' needs, wants, lacks and attitudes towards English for the purpose of including in our curriculum what is needed by the staff and excluding what deemed to be less important to them. The staff in this workplace demonstrated a great desire to use English extensively for the purpose of communication, though to varying degrees.

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KEY TO ABBREVIATION

AAP: Accepted Accounting Principles

ABC: Association for Business Communication

ASTD: American Society of Training and Development

BE: Business English

BELF: Business English Lingua Franca

BICS: Basic International Communication Skills

CALP: Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency

EAP: English for Academic Purposes

EBE: English for Business and Economics

EFL: English as a Foreign Language

EOP: English for Occupational Purposes

ESP: English for Specific Purposes

ESS: English for Social Studies

EST: English for Science and Technology

GABB: Generally Accepted Accounting Principles

MENA: The Middle East and North Africa

SLA: Social Language Acquisition

SQU: Sultan Qaboos University

STEP: Society for Testing English Proficiency

TOEFL: Test of English as a Foreign Language

TOEIC: Test of English for International Communication

WTN: Wataniya Telecom Nedjma

General Introduction

English has established its position as the global *lingua franca* beyond any doubt Along with this status, it has become one of the symbols of our time, together with globalisation, networking, economic integration, and the Internet. Like other *zeitgeist* symbols, it has been subject to much debate and has raised many fears. English has been seen as a threat to local languages and cultures, or alternatively, its global uses have been seen as athreat to Standard English. Such negative attitudes, even hostility, towards English are nevertheless comparatively recent and intertwined with the current wave of globalisation, more complete than anything hitherto experienced and more closely associated with just one language. At the same time, English has been welcomed as a vehicle of efficiency in for example business and science, or as a new means of communication for globally emergent localities in a variety of non-mainstream subcultures. The spread of English from the British Isles has taken place over a long period, starting from the early 17th century, and it has taken different forms in different parts of the world. In some cases new native varieties developed, like those spoken in North America and Australia. They now enjoy the prestige of 'core varieties' or 'inner circle varieties' along with British English. In other cases, again, English was adopted as a second language in Africa mainly and Asia, and the resulting varieties are often spoken of as 'outer circle' varieties, 'New Englishes' or 'World Englishes'. The latter have not gained equal prestige to the 'core' varieties, but there has been fairly extensive descriptive research carried out on their specific as well as shared features. Kachru's work since the 1980s (e.g. Kachru 1982, 1985) has raised awareness of the issues relating to World Englishes, and important research has been done towards the description of these varieties, notably for instance brought together in Platt, Weberand Ho (1984) and Kortmann and Schneider (2004).

The use of English is especially widespread in the international business world, so much so that English has become the standard language of world business.

The preference for the English language in international business means that enterprises in non-native English-speaking countries in Asia, Europe and Africa are enthusiastic about English language education. Many Algerian companies understand that their employees realize that they require high English proficiency in order to survive in today's competitive business world. They encourage their employees to improve their English communication skills in many different ways, and establish official English tests such as TOEIC (Test of English for International Communication), TOEFL (Test of English as a Foreign Language), and the STEP test (Society for Testing English Proficiency).

Although English is not the most widely spoken language in terms of native speakers, it is the most widely used language worldwide. The primacy of English in the global arena is attributable to the fact that it is the language through which international trade and diplomacy are conducted, scientific and technological breakthroughs are highlighted, news and information are disseminated. Moreover, as a communicative tool, English functions as a mediator between different socio-cultural and socio-economic paradigms (Crystal, 1997, 2000).

During the past 20 years, the explosion in business and communication technology has revolutionized the field of English language teaching, and has radically shifted the attention of course designers from teaching English for Academic purposes to teaching English for more specialized purposes. In the last few years, first (L1) and second (L2) language acquisition research into language teaching have led to an increased interest in investigating the most effective ways of improving the ability of workers in using English for specific purposes in the workplace (Louhiala-Salminen 1996). Several recent studies of ESP have provided evidence of the importance of teaching English for Specific Purposes (Huchinson and Waters, 1987). For example, it has been observed that the type of language used by each worker is influenced by the worker's working instrument (see for example, Pogner, 2003; Zak and Dudley-Evans, 1986), by his aims and professional constraints, as well as by his specialization and the type of duties assigned to him, and by the texts the worker produces and deals with (e.g., Edwards, 2000). These educational studies have been increasingly developing in tandem with a recognition that learning English for Specific Purposes plays important roles in the workers' and administrators' success in their fields of work and business environments.

The ongoing globalization of markets and trade in the 21st century has caused companies to come together to do business internationally. These businesses often gather people from a mixture of linguistic and cultural backgrounds. In situations like these, businessmen, negotiators and those involved in international business usually emply the English language communication purposes in multilingual settings. English is becoming the lingua franca of today's world at a fast rate particularly in business areas.

The present research is an attempt to explore the issue of adopting English as a linguistic standard for Algerians and to contribute to the development process of Algeria.

Promoting English in Algeria helps the country to boost its economy by encouraging foreign investments, since English is actually the leading language in trade, science and technology.

Many countries worldwide have integrated English and thus made a linguistic update to provide all the facilities for investors. The often cited example are China, Egypt, Mexico and Turkey. These countries use English in different domains such as Tourism, Education, Economic Exchanges, Trade and Commerce, Banking, etc.

In this context, business English has been referred to as Business Lingua Franca (BELF). The ability to communicate effectively in BELF has become an important asset and a source of competitive advantages in a rapidly changing and increasingly international business environment. Furthermore, the need to be able to conduct business effectively in English has resulted in a need for language training in business English training in companies. Teaching business English is one of the main branches, and a growing area in the Educational sphere.

The purpose of the present study is to examine the use of English by Algerian economists working in Wataniya Telecom Nedjma (WTN) and to examine their professional English language needs which are in turn divided into quantitative and qualitative needs. More specifically the study covers information about whether using English is part of the respondent's daily business skills and about what kinds of proficiency and competence are needed when using English in professional contexts. The specific challenges that the respondents face when conducting business in English are also identified.

This study relates to the field of Business Communication Research, which is multidisciplinary in nature. Business communication is studied in fields including English, management, marketing and communication.

The general goal of Business Communication Research is to make communication in business settings more effective in that relates it the latter to language instruction.

Research Questions are as follows:

1- To what extent is the English language used in the careers of WTN professionals in Mostaganem and Algiers areas?

a. What is the perceived percentage of using English in the workplace?

b. Does business training require the use of English?

c. Does communication with other employees require the use of English?

d. Do WTN professionals perceive English as an important tool for communication?

2- What level of the reading, writing, listening and speaking skills of the English language are required in the workplace and for performing what kind of activities?

a. Which of the skills (Reading, Writing, Listening, and Speaking) is more emphasized in the workplace?

b. What kind of activities are these skills used for?

Most of studies in Needs Analysis use questionnaires as the primary method of data collection. Jordan (1997) explains that the use of questionnaires is most convenient when dealing with a large scale of data collection. Questionnaires enable the researcher to collect data from a large number of subjects in a short period of time. However, their main drawback is that the subjects might misinterpret the questions. Thus, it is crucial to pretest questionnaires before the distribution process. Another drawback is that the response rate can be low, especially when the questionnaire is mailed to the subjects rather than distributed and collected in person.

All in all, Jordan (1997) argues that there is no single approach to conduct a Needs Analysis. Every researcher has different circumstances that influence the choice of methods in conducting his/her investigation. It falls to the researcher to choose the method that best serves his/her goals and circumstances. Questionnaires were determined to be the best means of investigation in this study. They were selected as the source of data collection for the following reasons:

1- The number of participants was expected to be fairly large.

2- They require minimal time from participants and provide a flexible and convenient way to participate in the study.

3- Participants could be assured of a certain degree of anonymity in their responses and could respond candidly. In this study, the questionnaire is used for data collection and interpretation.

1.1 Introduction

This chapter consists of six sections. The first part gives an overview about the origins of the ESP approach as a result of the growing global phenomenon of English in scientific and technical communication. The second part discusses the theoretical background of the Needs Analysis as the framework of the ESP approach, its relation to the concept of communicative competence, and its impact on Linguistic Theory. The third part discusses different definitions of Needs Analysis. The fourth part illustrates various models of needs analysis within the ESP context. The last part of the literature review describes related studies conducted within the framework of Needs Analysis in an ESP context. The last part is devoted to the methodology and the content of the questionnaire.

1.2 Overview

The ESP approach originated to fulfill the demand by many learners around the world who needed to learn English to have access to science, technology and economic resources.

The English language has achieved a global status in this vein. Many countries give English a special role in their communities. Some of these countries, particularly in post colonial contexts, give English the status of an official language (e.g. Nigeria, Singapore, etc.) where English is the medium of communication in government, law courts, the media, and the educational system Brutt-Griffler (2002). Other countries assign a priority role to English where it is taught as a second or a foreign language. Graddol (1996) indicates that a quarter of the world's population is fluent or competent in English and no other language in the World today can match the steadily growing spread of the English language.

What gives the English language this status is not its linguistic system. It is rather, as Crystal (2003) argues that the current status of English results from economic and technical power of the people speaking it.

Therefore, the global power of the English language is related to the historical, political, cultural, socio-economic and technological dominance of England and the United States. Other languages throughout History such as Greek, Arabic, Spanish and many others had held similar positions as world languages of commerce and scholarship.

Nationalists in different places of the world often resist the spread of the power code. This resistance is exemplified in the post colonial era by those who refuse to use the language of their former colonial power in order to promote the indigenous language to emphasize their indigenous identity. For example, Ngugiwa Thiong'o (1986), a Kenyan writer who refuses to use English in his work, argues that colonial languages impose cultural aspects on the indigenous language leading to a distorting of the local identity and culture as the "fones propres" of a people.

World English can be argued to be shaped through linguistic imperialism where the spread of English is viewed as language imposition Phillipson (1992). However, learning English can also be seen as an investment. The technological revolution in today's digital world and the way people are using the Internet make English emerge as a global medium of communication. The revolution in communication extends cultural interaction between people beyond their local speech communities Warschauer, (1999). Three quarters of the world's emails are currently in English and 90% of the materials on the Internet are in English Crystal,(2003).

Resistance to English cannot stop the spread of the English language simply because alternative solutions such as translation are expensive and impractical. Many countries thus believe that learning another language is a source of development. Choosing a foreign language to be taught in schools depends on what people would gain from this investment. For example, in 1996 Algeria, a former French colony, replaced French with English as the main foreign language in schools reflecting the demand for English as a key for development. Learning English is viewed as an investment to enable people to access the resources represented by the English language.

This concept of language investment views the exposure of learners to a new language as adding a new discourse to the primary one rather than imposing a superior code. Norton ,(2000) argues that when people speak a language, they are investing in an identity as speakers of that language. Learners invest in a second language in the hopes of gaining access to resources such as education, friendship, and money. The degree of L2 learning is a reflection of the degree of investment Norton (1995).

In other words, L2 learners need to deal with discourse from different languages in order to fulfill their communicative needs. This process gives them a choice to expand their previous registers to include new ones. This bilingual standpoint enables L2 learners to combine different aspects from their L1 to the English language in a process leading to the use of English as a lingua franca.

For a language to be used as a lingua franca, different bilingual groups of people need first to accept this language as their shared tool of communication. Since English has become a global language with different varieties worldwide, no one now can claim ownership of the English language. English has developed in different varieties representing different linguistic contributions from different languages representing different ethnic groups. This phenomenon of world Englishes is described as a second language acquisition by speech communities (Brutt- Griffler, 2002). The world English situation has enabled the English language to become a lingua franca of the world. On a global level, people from different countries are using English as the lingua franca of communication since it provides access to knowledge and business. On a regional level, English is also used as a lingua franca among different ethnicities within one country. In India, for example, English is the L2 language for different ethnicities and it is used as the tool for communication. The expansion in India’s population and its multiethnic society created an Indian English variety of the language. There are more L2 speakers of English in India than L1 speakers of English in England (Crystal, 2002). On a smaller scale, English is being used as a lingua franca in many small language communities.

The language situation of WTN professionals is an example of lingua franca communication.

The community of WTN professionals in Algeria includes a large number of non-Algerians. In fact, the majority of workers come from other countries. In this multilingual context, English is often means of communication. Algerians also have competence in English as a result of their English medium language training at college level. Non-Algerians are hired not only for their business qualifications but also for their ability to communicate in English. As a result, English has become a natural choice as the lingua franca for communication.

1.3 Theoretical Background

English for Specific Purposes (ESP) is a branch of Applied Linguistics that focuses on relating the teaching and learning process to learners' needs. Widdowson a linguist and an early pioneer of the approach, describes the general concept of ESP by stating that "if a group of learners' needs for a language can be accurately specified, then this specification can be used to determine the content of a language program that will meet these needs." The difference between ESP and General English is not a matter of the "existence" of a need; it is rather the "awareness" of a need. A child at a school might have a simple need to pass an exam. However, what influences the content of a language course is the awareness of a need. Hutchinson & Waters (1992) argue that if learners, sponsors, and teachers know why learners need English, that awareness will have an influence on what will be accepted as reasonable content in the language course and what potential can be exploited. The ESP approach uses the needs analysis framework as the main tool to define learners' needs in a specific field because the awareness is more recognizable in a specific target situation representing a "real-life-situation".

The ESP approach represents a shift in focus from a Chomskyan influenced register analysis to a needs analysis. Previously, language needs had been based on formal linguistics categories targeted theoretically on creating a register to develop a special language for a certain group of learners. This method is called ‘‘register analysis" and it is based on the principle that different groups of learners require different lexical and grammatical rules to learn English (Hutchinson & Waters, 1992). For example, English for engineers requires a special register that includes the most common grammatical and lexical features used in their field. Hymes' formulation of "Communicative Competence" had a major impact on Linguistic Theory, leading theories to develop in a new direction. Hymes (1971) restricted Chomsky's view concerning the notion of competence and performance. Chomsky introduced the concept of competence (e.g. speakers' grammatical knowledge of their language) and performance (e.g. the actual production of language as an imperfect image of competence) to propose the existence of innate properties of language which he considered to be the central force guiding language acquisition. Though Hymes adopts

Chomsky's distinction between competence and performance, he points out that Chomsky's notion of competence is too restrictive and does not take into account underlying rules of performance (e.g. Chomsky's concept of competence does not deal with the interpersonal aspect of language in relation to the social context). Hymes (1971) considers the underlying rules of performance to be part of competence and thus he proposes a wider view of competence. He points out that the Chomskyan restriction of the concept of competence to the perfect knowledge of an ideal speaker-listener in a homogeneous speech community, unaffected by socio-cultural constraints, cannot account for the communicative function of language. It only accounts for the grammatical competence of language. Thus, Hymes proposed that the definition of competence has to be revised to include four categories; knowledge of grammar and vocabulary (e.g. grammatical competence), knowledge of rules of speaking (e.g. knowing how to begin and end a conversation, knowing what topic to talk about in different types of speech events, and knowing which address forms may be used in different situations), knowing how to use different forms of speech acts (e.g. request, apology, invitation etc), and knowing how to use language appropriately Hymes (1972). He proposed the term "communicative competence" for this concept to account for the social dimension of language acquisition. He bases his proposal on both psycholinguistic and sociolinguistic notions of language acquisition. Thus, communicative competence represents grammatical competence as well as sociolinguistic competence.

This new direction in Linguistic Theory influenced the Social Language Acquisition SLA field to adopt a communicative approach in language teaching (Brown, 1991). The shift in focus in second language acquisition theory from language structure to language use led advocates of the Communicative Approach to point out that register analysis leads learners to memorize certain vocabulary and grammatical forms and neglects the communicative use of language. This concern about the communicative properties of language use shifted the way that researchers viewed learners' needs. From this new standpoint, language teaching is viewed as a process of analyzing the communicative needs of learners in order to determine what the learners need to do with the language. As a result of this new trend, needs analysis emerged in the field of

ESP as the main research methodology to provide a detailed analysis of language situations in language use. Instead of looking at linguistic structures and lexicons as the source to design ESP courses, as is the case in register analysis, needs analysis aims to design ESP courses based on detailed empirical analysis of language situations in actual language use.

In needs analysis, the goal of language teaching is seen through the communicative competence that can best serve the needs of the learner. In this regard, needs analysis has an association with the notional-functional approach where activities are aimed at achieving two goals. First, the meanings and concepts the learner needs in order to communicate (e.g. time, quantity, duration, location) and the language needed to express them. These concepts and meanings are called notions. Second, the language needed to express different functions or speech acts (e.g. requesting, suggesting, promising, describing) in language situations (Richards, Platt, and Weber, 1985:196).

However, the profile of needs analysis serves a targeted group of learners while the notional-functional approach serves a wider group of learners sharing overlapping categories of needs. Munby (1978) indicates that the selection of instructional materials in needs analysis is based on a systematic analysis of specific learners' needs for the target language by analyzing the following:

1- Reasons for learning
2- Place and time of anticipated target use
3- Others with whom the user will interact
4- Content areas (activities involved)
5- Skills (listening, speaking, reading, writing) and translation, etc.
6- Level of proficiency required

On the other hand, the notional-functional approach aims at what a learner of a particular language needs to do and say independently in a foreign language environment. The aim is to teach languages to the most general and vague of audiences (van Ek, 1975). Thus, the analysis focuses on broader concepts of meaning such as the social purpose of the utterance and categories of communicative function.

Based on the notion of communicative competence, needs analysis uncovers and describes language needs by using an analysis of a linguistic practice which characterizes the target situation within a discourse community (Weddle and Van Duzer, 1997). It is the first step in viewing language learning through a broader concept of the learning process. When the curriculum content, materials, and teaching approaches match learners' perceived and actual needs, learners' motivation and success are enhanced. Therefore, SLA is promoted Weddle and Van Duzer (1997). Needs analysis as a framework provides an empirical basis for course design that set up a suitable environment to promote SLA. Needs Analysis relates communicative competence development to the materials and activities used in the classroom. Hall (2001) indicates that the first step in designing instruction for the communicative approach to language teaching is to conduct a needs analysis. Thus, needs analysis aims at identifying the particular communicative activities that a particular group of learners is expected to participate in as users of the target language. Providing this kind of communicative activity will help to promote learners' communicative competence.

Robinson (1991) indicates that by taking into account the target needs and the present needs of competence, a model of needs analysis is built on the concept of communicative competence. West (1994) argues that a model of needs analysis would be a study of inter-language, error analysis, and diagnostic testing. The point to make in this vein is that needs analysis can be looked at from an SLA prospective as a diagnostic tool of the inter-language development of the target group of learners by linking their English language proficiency with the communicative function of language in the target situation. When defining the goals of SLA, Ellis (1997) indicates that one of the goals of SLA is to improve language teaching. The area of language use in SLA provides the theoretical basis for the ESP process Nunan, (1988)

In conclusion, the impact of the communicative competence theory and the social function of language on the ESP field demanded a shift in focus from the language system to language use. This shift in focus paved the way for needs analysis to emerge as a main source for providing empirical data to design activities for a certain group of learners based on their language use. The outcome of this shift provides data to develop second language communicative competence in a specific field.

1.4 Definitions of Needs Analysis

Brown (1995) identifies the term needs analysis (also called needs assessment) as the activities involved in gathering information that will serve as the basis for developing a curriculum which meet the learning needs of a particular group of students. In language programs, the needs are language related. Once identified, needs can be stated in terms of goals and objectives which, in turn, can serve as the bases for developing tests, materials, teaching activities, and evaluation strategies. The purpose is to fill the "gap" of what a language program "lacks." This definition draws a line between needs analysis and evaluation. Needs analysis aims at determining the needs for a defined group of people, while an evaluation determines to what extent a program meets these needs. Furthermore, Soriano (1995) indicates that needs analysis collects and analyzes data to determine what learners "want" and "need" to learn, while an evaluation measures the effectiveness of a program to meet the needs of the learners. Hutchinson & Waters,(1992) define needs analysis on the basis of "necessities" and "wants" in order to classify between what the learners have to know and what the learners feel they need to know. The focus here is on the "lacks" that represent the gap between the required proficiency in the target situation and the existing proficiency of the learners. This definition views language needs as a process of negotiation between the learners and their society.

Witkin and Altschuld (1995) define needs analysis as a systematic set of procedures undertaken for the purpose of setting priorities and making decisions about programs or organizational improvement and allocation of resources. According to this definition, needs analysis should fill the "gap" of needs between the current state of affairs and the desired state of affairs.

The above definitions base their concept of needs analysis around the terms "necessities," "lacks," "wants," and "gaps." However, all these terms have different interpretations from one individual to another. Therefore, linguists in the ESP field have not agreed exactly on the definition of the term "needs" itself. West ,(1994) comments on this issue by indicating that the term "needs" lacks a unified definition and remains ambiguous. Richards (2001) argues that the definition of "needs" depends on the perception of those making the judgment. Different interests and values are reflected in the definition. Teachers, learners, administrators, employees, parents, and stakeholders may all have different views as to what needs are. Accordingly, the difference between what learners can presently do with the language and what they should be able to do cannot be looked at from one standpoint.(Braine ,2001) indicates that linguists disagree on the definition, but they all agree that there are external factors that influence the definition. Factors such as staffing, time, and cultural attitudes should be taken into consideration when conducting needs analysis.

1.5 Needs Analysis Models

Different models under the ESP umbrella have approached this field in different ways. Jordan (1994) indicates that the main two approaches in needs analysis are the Target-Situation Analysis and the Present-Situation Analysis. Other approaches such as the Learner-Centered Approach, the Strategy Analysis Approach, and the Means Analysis Approach are seen as permutations of Target-Situation Analysis and Present-Situation Analysis Jordan (1994).

The Target-Situation Analysis model started with Munby's (1978) model of the communication Needs Process. This model contains a detailed set of procedures for discovering target situation needs. It is based on analyzing language communication in the target situation in order to provide a communicative needs profile for a specified group of learners. The Communication Needs Process profile seeks to present a valid specification of the skills and linguistic forms that a group of learners needs in the intended target situation. The Communication Needs Process model contained nine components (e.g. participant, purposive domain, setting, interaction, instrumentality, dialect, target level, communicative event, and communicative key). Each component asks questions about the use of the target language in order to identify learners' real world communicative requirements. The outcome is used as an input to prepare the intended group of learners for their intended use of the target language through converting the needs profile into a communicative competence specification that is presented in a form of a syllabus Jordan (1997).

Tarone & Yule (1989) continued research within the same framework of the Target-Situation Analysis Approach. However, they added four components to

Munby's model. Their addition consisted in integrating the global level (e.g. situations, participants, communicative purpose, and target activities), the rhetorical level (e.g. organizational structure of the communicative activities), the grammatical-rhetorical level (e.g. linguistic forms required to realize the forms in the rhetorical level) and the grammatical level (the frequency of grammatical and lexical constructions in the target situation). These additional levels were adopted from Canale's (1980) model of communicative competence (e.g. discourse competence). The purpose of adding these levels are to show how needs analysis incorporates linguistic form (e.g. register analysis) and functional form (e.g. discourse analysis). Both forms are layers in the target and present situations that provide input data for syllabus design West (1994).

The Target-Situation Analysis model has remained highly influential in the field of ESL/ESP needs analysis. It was the first needs analysis model based on the concept of communicative competence. Munby's categories of communicative activities and their relation to the communicative events of the target situation reflect categories of real world language use West (1994). In other words, they reflect the shift in the ESL field from language system to language use. As a result of this shift, most studies continue to follow this model in relating communicative needs to analysis of communication in the target situation. Consequently, needs analysis has become an integral element of the field of ESP as the basis for designing ESP courses Dudley-Evans (1991). However, this approach has received major criticism for being inflexible. The initial Target-Situation Analysis model by Munby was comprehensive and complex because his aim was to provide a wide range of needs profiles. However, he did not specify any priorities for his model of activities. This creates difficulties when applying the profile to different language situations West (1994). Practitioners overcome this difficulty by using different profiles based on their own circumstances.

It is important here to note that this model analyzes the four skills (listening, speaking, reading, and writing) in various job-related activities in terms of receptive and productive skills leading to generate a general profile of the language situation to be used as an input in course design Jordan (1997). In language teaching, the provided information guides the teaching process in the classroom to set the priorities in scaling the communicative modes where the interpersonal mode links the receptive and productive skills, the interpretive mode relies on receptive skills, and the presentational mode relies on productive skills (Brecht & Walton, 1995).

The second major model in needs analysis is the Present-Situation Analysis proposed by Richterich and Chancerel (1980). In this approach the information to define needs is drawn from a wide range of sources: the students, the teaching establishment, and the place of work (Jordan, 1997). Since the sources of data collection are multiple, this model provides detailed guidelines and techniques about the kind of information to be included. The aim is to seek information about levels of ability, available curricula, teaching methods, and resources, views on language teaching and learning, surrounding society, and cultural elements. This model was developed under the supervision of the Council of Europe to identify and define the needs of European adult learners in a comprehensive model that can be applied to all the member states of the European Council. The main drawback of this model is that it requires a team of specialists to be conducted. Another drawback is the excessive use of generalizations in order to cover a profile from different countries.

The Target-Situation Analysis and the Present-Situation Analysis are the two landmarks in needs analysis studies. Researchers continue to use one of these models as their theoretical base depending on the circumstances of the conducted research.
This study adapted a similar theoretical base to the Target-Situation Analysis Approach since it is more appropriate for the objectives of the study, the size of the sample population and the available resources.

1.6 Research Studies in Needs Analysis

Typically, needs analysis is conducted on language programs serving adults in academic and professional programs. The following overview provides a sampling of recent studies in needs analysis conducted in different parts of the world. This overview will first present studies conducted in the field of medical English and then present other studies in English for specific purposes. Eggly (1999) used a needs analysis to investigate the relationship between English language proficiency and medical residency success in the United States. Twenty International internal medicine residents at Wayne State University in Michigan were first evaluated for English ability by the Test of English for International Communication. Then, a questionnaire was administered to these students. Although the participants scored high grades in the Test of English for International Communication, language skills were identified in the questionnaires as the primary weakness. The findings indicate that medical knowledge was not linked to English ability. The study concluded that a training course in English for medical purposes was recommended.

Bosher (2002)had recovered to a needs analysis study to determine why many ESL students enrolled in a nursing program were not successful academically. Interviews, observations, and questionnaires were used to gather information about the objective needs of students. The findings indicated that communicating with clients and colleagues in the clinical setting was perceived as the greatest difficulty. Based on the needs analysis, a course on Speaking and Listening in a Health-Care Setting was developed to respond to what was identified as students' area of greatest difficulty. The content of the course was divided into four units: assertiveness skills, therapeutic communication, information-gathering techniques and the role of culture in health-care communication. A variety of methods and materials drawn primarily from sources for developing health-care communication skills was used to develop the curriculum. Shi (2001) developed an English course for junior medical students in the first part of their clinical training at the University of British Columbia. Transcripts of video and audiotapes of six 1-hour sessions of ward teaching were analyzed to investigate the cognitive demands placed on students as they participated in making diagnostic hypotheses with experienced doctors. The aim was to identify the linguistic skills students needed in order to achieve various cognitive learning objectives. These included the skills of using appropriate everyday and technical terms to translate information from doctor-patient to doctor-doctor discourse. In the course that was developed, video sequences were used along with carefully designed teaching tasks to raise students' awareness of some of the cognitive and linguistic features of the discourse and to improve students' performance through practice. The findings indicated that authentic data from student performance can be exploited to construct a tightly focused curriculum addressing students' needs.Rattanapin Yowong (1988) conducted a needs analysis study among medical students in Mahidol University in Bangkok. Data were collected from 351 questionnaires distributed to student in medical, nursing, and related fields. Interviews with teachers in different University departments were analyzed to identify the English language academic needs of these students. The findings indicated that fewer academic needs were expressed than expected. The participants emphasized the needs for English courses designed for specific medical professions. The previous studies presented investigations within the area of medical English. The following studies present needs analysis research in other specialties.

In a study on EFL field Kittidhaworn (2002) investigated the English language needs of 182 second-year undergraduate engineering students in a public university in Thailand. A two-part questionnaire was constructed. The first part of the questionnaire asked for demographic data: gender, specialty, years of studying English in the school, and English proficiency in Listening, Speaking, Reading and Writing skills. The second part dealt with 45 items of English-language needs in four major areas: Language Structures, Rhetorical Categories, Language Functions and Language Skills (Listening, Speaking, Reading and Writing).

The findings of the study indicated that the majority of Thai engineering students had roughly the same English language needs in all four major areas, with all rated as moderately important or very important to learn in their engineering program . The findings also revealed that perceived English language needs did not vary widely by demographic variables. Seferoglu (2001) conducted a needs analysis study focusing on the Turkish governments sponsored students who were studying towards Masters or Doctoral degrees in the US and students who were being prepared in a language program in Ankara (Turkey) in order to come to the US to continue their graduate studies. The purpose of this study was to gather information about the language needs as perceived by these students and to explore the extent to which classroom instruction in the language program in Turkey responded to these needs. Data were collected from a questionnaires distributed to 309 graduate Turkish students studying in various American universities and 21 students attending the language program in Turkey.

The questionnaire asked students in both groups to rank the importance of the English language in academic life, TOEFL preparation, and daily activities. The majority of the respondents at American universities believed that their academic needs in learning English were far more important than their everyday needs. The majority of respondents from the language program in Turkey agreed. However, when students in the English language program were interviewed, they revealed more pressing need than either academic or everyday English. Their immediate need was to score 500 or language needs for business purposes in Malaysia for graduates in Sciences.

A questionnaire was distributed to the science students at the University of Malaysia and another questionnaire was distributed to personnel managers and employees in different companies in Malaysia. The participants ranked the use of English and the importance of each language skill. The findings indicated that students ranked reading as the most important skill, while employees ranked each skill differently based on the nature of their jobs. However, all skills were needed to perform basic tasks. The study recommended that 1) university courses should consider students' needs, 2) reading skills should be emphasized more in the academic environment, 3) students should participate in the identification of study texts, 4) teachers should pay close attention to individual needs, 5) only senior students should take a course in ESP because students in earlier stages need to focus on the four basic skills. Lambardo(1988) surveyed 200 students in the School of Economics to investigate students' perceived needs and attitudes about learning English as a second language. The results showed that students were motivated to learn English to have a better chance to get a job. Technical terminology was the major problem in reading. Understanding oral reports and participating in meeting were the most needed activities to succeed in their field. Regarding the importance of the four language skills, the listening skill was the most important followed by speaking, reading, and writing. The previous studies gave examples of different needs analysis around the world.

The following overview refers to studies conducted specifically in the Gulf countries with participants of similar socioeconomic backgrounds to the participants of this study. The discovery of oil in these countries has brought professionals from all over the world for participate in building new modern societies. As a result, English has become a major tool of communication, requiring the adoption of ESP courses.

Al-Busaidi (2003) conducted a needs analysis study to investigate the academic needs of EFL learners at Sultan Qaboos University (SQU) in the Sultanate of Oman. Methods included interviews, e-mail dialogues and a questionnaire. The participants included college and language program faculty members as well as undergraduate students at SQU. The study aimed at identifying program practices that were most effective in meeting the learners' needs. The results showed that the students generally had mixed perceptions of the intensive program. This was partly due to the heterogeneity of the sample and sampling techniques. However, the inconsistency of some student responses was compensated for by qualitative data and faculty response data. One important finding was that participants realized the importance of the intensive program as a means for academic preparation. However, the data pointed out some major gaps in the intensive program’s curriculum. One of the main problems was the lack of integration between language and college courses. In addition, academic skills did not seem to receive enough coverage in the language program, negatively affecting learners' readiness for academic study. Suggestions to make the intensive program more effective and responsive to learners' needs included a hybrid content-based curriculum model to integrate language and college courses. The model designed a core language course based on the content of introductory college courses. It also included an academic skills course to make academic skill instruction more effective. Al-Busaidi (2003) also proposed that a credit-bearing university course be offered in the intensive program. Finally, Al- Busaidi suggested that more cooperation was needed between the Language Center and college teachers in order to raise awareness about learners' needs.

Almulhim,(2001) investigated English language needs of Saudi employees in 101 companies representing different business sectors in the eastern province of Saudi Arabia. The investigation measured the level of English proficiency required in the four skills. A questionnaire was distributed to different companies and filled out by 308 employees and managers. The results revealed that the English language knowledge is required for employment in most companies and that the level of proficiency varies among different companies. With regard to language skills, managers and employees rated listening as the most important skill followed by speaking, reading, and writing respectively. The study concluded that though the English language is needed in the private sector, an intermediate level of proficiency is generally sufficient to do the job.

Another Gulf area study was undertaken at Kuwait University. Al-Bazzaz (1994) conducted a needs analysis study to investigate students' low achievement in English at the College of Business Studies. A questionnaire was distributed to students and teachers. Interviews and observations were also conducted. The results revealed English was used to communicate with non native speakers of Arabic in different areas involved with the business sector. The language knowledge required to deal with the labor market was attainable, but it was not adequately covered in the English language courses taught to students of business. The study proposed a model for course development. Al-Gorashi (1988) investigated the English language needs for military cadets in Saudi Arabia as perceived by junior officers. Data were collected from 212 questionnaires distributed to officers representing different branches in the military to investigate the role of the English language in different activities required by their jobs and the kind of English language preparation that they undertake. The results showed that the English language plays an important role depending on the nature of each military branch. Some branches considered certain language skills important and others did not. The overall assessment considered reading and listening as the most important required skills. The result also indicated that the English language preparation that the officers received was poor. The study concluded that the language preparation does not meet the English language knowledge that the officers' jobs required.

In short, the field of ESP includes a number of needs analyses for setting up language programs in many different areas. Needs analysis has been conducted in ESL settings and EFL settings representing academic and professional ESP programs.

1.7 Methodology

The purpose of this study is to investigate the English language communicative needs of WTN professionals in Mostaganem area by investigating their language use in the workplace in order to provide empirical data serving the Algerians ESP context. The study used the framework of needs analysis to investigate the extent of English use in the careers WTN professionals, the required level of the reading, writing, listening and speaking skills in different activities, and the perception of the respondents towards their English language preparation during their previous college study.

A questionnaire was constructed and distributed. The findings of the study indicated that the English language is used extensively at the workplace and plays an important role in the careers of WTN professionals. However, the differences in percentages between receptive skills and productive skills were too close to make an affirmative judgment. Finally, the findings revealed that the English language courses that WTN professionals took at the college level were inadequate in relating the English language use to their needs.

Robinson (1991) lists a number of different methods for carrying out a needs analysis. These include questionnaires, interviews, case studies, tests, and authentic data collection (e.g. analyzing actual textbooks and written assignments). Jordan (1997) adds to these methods advanced documentation (e.g. requesting extra information that includes the educational background, previously attended courses, and other relevant aspects), language tests at home, self-assessment, class progress tests, direct monitoring, structured interviews, learner diaries, previous research comparisons, and follow up investigations.

Globally, the methods that can be used in needs analysis are highly varied. However, the most widely used methods are case studies, interviews and questionnaires (West, 1994). A case study is a thorough method to investigate a learner’s communication needs. It provides a close examination of what the learner needs to learn based on his/her personal language ability. However, the drawback of this approach is that it is not cost effective. It requires a long period of time and it is not able to produce statistical data. Interviews use in a language needs investigation.

Interview protocols usually contain open-ended questions aimed at guiding the subjects' responses. These give the researcher a wide variety of different responses that give a sense of the perceived language needs. However, the weakness in this approach is that give a battery of indicators for the interpretation of the open-ended questions may not represent the intention of the subject. The subject may also be influenced in a face to face interview to give answers that satisfy the researcher. Moreover, in order to achieve a statistical generalization, the researcher needs to interview a large number of subjects which can be costly and time consuming.

For these reasons, the majority of studies in needs analysis use questionnaires as the primary method in data collection. Jordan (1997) indicates that the use of questionnaires is most convenient when dealing with a large scale of data collection. Questionnaires enable the researched to collect data from a large number of subjects in a short period of time. However, their main drawback is that the subjects might misinterpret the questions. Thus, it is crucial to pretest questionnaires before the distribution process. Another drawback is that the response rate can be low, especially when the questionnaire is mailed to the subjects rather than distributed and collected in person. Jordan (1997) for instance indicates that there is no single approach to conduct needs analysis.

Every researcher has different circumstances that influence the choice of method in conducting his/her investigation. It falls to the researcher to choose the method that best serves his/her goals and circumstances.

Questionnaires are considered as the best means of investigation for the present study. They were selected as the source of data collection for the following reasons.

1- The number of participants was expected to be fairly large.

2- They require minimal time from participants and provide a flexible and convenient way to participate in the study.

3- Participants were fairly assured of a certain degree of anonymity in their responses and they responded candidly.

The choice of study methods was unfortunately also influenced by geopolitical factors in the world today. The researcher was unable to be present at the study site for data collection. Questionnaires made it possible to dispatch of distributing bye mail.

1.8 The content of the Questionnaire

The questionnaire is divided into three sections.

The first content area deals with the respondents' background: sex, age and the number of Algerians as well as foreign workers. They are also asked whether their workplaces have foreign contacts. The first rubric also includes questions including whether English is the official corporate language at the respondents' workplace and whether English is used for internal communication.

The second part deals with the respondents' overall needs for English and it is divided into quantitative and qualitative needs. Quantitative needs for English are identified by inquiring about the frequency with which English is used for speaking, writing and reading in the respondents' workplace. Qualitative English language needs are identified in terms of the required proficiency level and communicative competence.

1.9 Conclusion

This chapter presents the some aspects on the origins of the ESP approach, the theoretical background of needs analysis and the methodological procedures. The next chapter will give deals with communication in the workplace and it discusses some communication methods that can be used in business area.

2.1 Introduction

This chapter deals with business communication in relation to effective communication which occurs when speakers and listeners or writers and readers agree on the content of the message. It also examines the cultural mechanisms that underlie high- and low-context communication styles.

2.2 Business Communication Research

The present study belongs to the field of Business Communication Research, which is concerned with studying languages in business contexts. It falls within the scope of Applied Linguistics. The field is multidisciplinary in nature.

The professional forum of business communication researchers is the Association for Business Communication (ABC), founded in 1935. ABC has members from several continents in the world, but most of publications of research work are carried out by Americans (Louhila Salminen, 1994:16). The members of ABC come from disciplines including management, marketing, English, communication, linguistics and information system (Wadrop, 2001:244). In 2000 ABC stated that business communication draws theory, research methods and knowledge from disciplines as diverse as management, rhetoric, organizational behaviour, composition, speech communication, mass communication, psychology, linguistics, information technology, education and history (Rogers, 2001:15).

The fundamental underlying idea in business communication research is the importance of language and communication skills in conducting business. According to Wardrop (2001:243), business communication is a core business component, as the strong impetus from academic and corporate sectors prove, and the need for good communication skills by business practitioners will continue to progress.

Communication has various roles and functions in business settings. Inside companies, communication is used for example, to build the vision, set goals, delegate tasks and motivate people. In addition, communication is needed in contact with external parties, including customers and partners.

The crutial roles and functions of language and communication skills in business contacts are widely recognized and underline business communication research. Based on this broad underlying idea, the shared interest of business communication researchers is to provide practical knowledge that can make the communication of various kinds of organizational stakeholders ,especially related to business more effective (Rogers, 2001:21).

2.3 Business Communication in the Globalized World

In the introduction to this study, globalization is presented as a catalyst to global change in the field of language, commerce and, by the same token, education.

On the one hand, there are attitudes against globalization destructive effects. These effects includes the ruthless exploitation of human and natural resources (T&G) consultants (2002); the gradual deskilling of jobs Thompson, (1993); the elimination of healthy competition and the crushing of global cultures and languages Wooldridge (2000).

There are also sources that are in favour of globalization in terms of its positive effects. Gustafsson (1987) notes that globalization is not an entirely new phenomenon. The former discusses the fallacy of economic independence, noting that a high degree of international economic independence already characterizes global trade and has done so for some time. The latter indicates the beneficial effects of globalization. Coyle (2003) argues that it will continue to do so because the customer choices of millions of people drive globalization forward. O’Meara (1996) echoes Wooldridge (2000) by stating that a gradual process of liberalization characterized the economy in the post World War II period.

Some sources are more cautious in their appraisal of the effects of globalization. Wooldridge (2000) notes that foreign competitions opened up the domestic American automobile market in the 1950s. Gray (2001) observes that globalization could be a powerful force for common good, depending on how it develops and is allowed to develop. OECD (2002) points out that globalization offers high returns but that these returns will benefit to only a skilled minority unless education prepares all learners to participate in the global economy.

One of the characteristic factors of today's business communication, recognized in Business Communication Research, is that it takes place in a changing and increasingly global business environment.

The current business communication environment is increasingly complex, diverse, global and multidisciplinary in nature (Du-Babcock, 2006:257). In this environment, individuals who speak different languages and have different cultural background interact directly and indirectly in global communication networks ,which means that both language and cultural competences are often needed in order to be able to respond to the challenges of the global communication environment (Babcock and Du-Babcock, 2001:374).

From one perspective, the current international business communication environment is becoming increasingly complex and diverse, whereas from another perspective, it is becoming more and more homogenous.

In sum, the variety of communication situations encountered in the global business communication environment is increasing due to the internationalization and the developments of technology are exposed to cultural differences, to a variety of information exchange possibilities and communication dynamics, which require them to adjust to the competency levels of their communication partners. Effective communication in such environments requires the ability to interact from varying competency positions in different languages, cultural and communication environment and the ability to use the new technologies and media (Du-Babcock 2006:256).

2.4 Global English as a Business Lingua Franca

Al-alweiny(2001), Balfour (2002), Bosman(2000), Bosman and van der Merwe (2000),Crystal (1997), Gradoll (1977),Mathebula (2004), Sono (1994), Talgori (2001) and Wright (2002) offer different perspectives on the reasons for and the effects of English as a dominant global language.

Bosman and Van der Merwe (2000), Crystal (1997), Gradoll(1997) and Talgori (2001) concur on the view that English is currently a dominant global language. Bosman and van der Merwe (2000) note the standing that the language enjoys as a language of the educated and economically prosperous. Crystal(1997) echoes this view, arguing that English is dominant because of the increase in contact between cultures through international relations and travel. Gradoll(1997) notes that despite the fact that English will not be spoken by as many people as, for example, Mandarin, the economic output of English-speaking nations will exceed that of Mandarin-speaking nations in the future. Consequently, English will continue to enjoy the standing it presently has. Talgori(2001) concurs with the Introduction to this study when he argues that the global interest in learning English can be attributed to globalization.

Balfour (2002), Bosman and van der Merwe (2000), (Al Alweiny (2001), Gray, (1997), Sono(1994) and Wright(2002) also take cognizance of practical reasons for the dominance of English. Scientific works, research and textbooks are invariably in English, as is research into technology and the internet and Bosman and Van der Merwe (2000) and Al-Alweiny (2001). Balfour (2002) questions whether English is truly a lingua franca in South Africa, arguing that if it were, it would probably be the kind of English spoken by the majority of South Africans, who are often third or fourth-language speakers of English. Gray (1997) argues that English is not seen in a negative light unless teachers are perceived as not being proficient in the language.

English is equated with economic success and the job market more often than not considers speakers of English in a more favorable light than those who cannot speak English Sono (1994), Wright (2002) and crystal (1988) note that “ English-speaking” has become a relative concept (nations such as Singapore have adopted English as their official language Al-Alweiny (2001) and thus there is a from “Ameri-lish” that gives “ speakers” access to the global consumer culture of fashion . music and popular culture. Matherbula (2004) notes with concern the tendency in South Africa among speakers of indigenous languages to translate key phrases in official broadcast commentaries into English.

In the rapidly changing global business environment, there is a need for a shared language, a lingua franca, and currently it is English. The dominance of English as a lingua franca in international business settings is indisputable (Nickerson, 2005:85). More generally, English is the dominant language in international communication and the language of science and business in the world. Most European business practitioners need to operate in at least one foreign language to do business, and for most that language is English (Charles, 1998:85). There is growing evidence that English is the biggest lingua franca within Europe (Rogerson-Revell, 2007:106). It is worth pointing out, however, that English is by no means the sole language in the global business.

Business language can be described, from one perspective, as communication between business and the general public, or communication among business, which means that it is specialized language of a specific business, for example insurance or fashion (Picket,London Chamber of Commerce and Industry ,1987). These definitions relate mainly to lexis and writing and less to grammar and speaking, as Picket (1987) points out.

Business language includes Business English (BE), which is a term referring to English used in business settings.

According to (Crystol, 2003:35), language becomes a global language when it develops a special role that is recognized in every country and when its usage is not restricted to just a few countries.

English as a global language with its different varieties and as a lingua franca in international business is used by first, second and foreign language speakers simultaneously, sometimes together with one or more languages or even in co-existence with other languages, as a hybrid language (Nickerson, 2005:377). In other words, the use of English as a lingua franca in international business settings is characterized by diversity related to the English language itself with its different varieties and its speakers with varied language competences.

Business English used as a neutral and shared language of communication in international business has been referred to as Business English Lingua Franca (BELF). BELF is neutral because none of its speakers of its speakers owns it.

2.5 Communication in the Workplace

Perhaps the ultimate aim of communication systems and the implementation of motivation theories such as Herzberg's two factor or Mayo's Human Relations School, is to make employees in large businesses behave as if they were employed by small businesses. In other words, employees identify with the companies objectives, feel free to and have the ability to communicate at all levels of management, feel and behave as if the companies future is their future, and all speak 'the same language'. When commenting on the link between communication and motivation it is worth noting that even the systems of Taylor and Ford relied on the effective implementation of instructions issued from above. Of course there are counter arguments against the use of these 'complete communication systems' and these will be examined below. But one remember that, good communication and good motivation go hand in hand. Both are vital for the efficient running of a business. Communication is only good if the information is sent in the appropriate form, then received at the right place and at the right time, and understood and acted upon. And 'acted upon' can only happen if workers are motivated. Motivation is only possible if the employees understand their roles, the company’s objectives, feel they are able to contribute, and are in some way involved in corporate, product or market development. Effective communication can help achieve all of this.

2.6 Effective Communication in the workplace

Effective communication can be defined as 'Passing relevant information, in a style and form that is clearly understandable, to the right person at the right time **‘**The establishment of effective communication between all levels of a business’s hierarchy is one of the keys to success in business. Why Communicate**?** Herzberg (1959) argues that communication (with training), is one of the keys to successful motivation of employees. If employees are involved in decision making within the business, they become involved in the future success of the business. Also key aspects of becoming a world class business, and implementing operations management methods such as just-in-time or Kaizen, depend upon the involvement and commitment of the work force. This involvement can be gained and maintained through communication. The first stage in gaining this commitment has to be the transfer of information, such as the aims and objectives of the business. Once these aims and objectives are understood by all levels within the hierarchy, then operations management systems need tubes to be put in place that allow involvement of workers in achieving these aims.

Communication is also about understanding your customer's needs. Customers have contact with an organization through a variety of communication channels. These could be through sales staff, checkout operators, by letter, phone, e-mail and so on. This communication should not be a one way process, Customers should be listened to and information gathered should be input into the decision making process. The losses business might suffer because of poor communication are often qualitative, and near impossible to measure.

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2.7 Formal and Informal Communication

There is a large number of communication methods that can be used within businesses, These methods include: suggestion boxes, notice boards, telephone, newsletters, fax, email systems, intranets, team working, formal discussions, meetings, break-time conversations, off -the-cuff remarks, etc. These methods can be subdivided into two broad groups: Formal Communication and Informal Communication. Formal Communication, Traditional communication methods have relied upon the 'formal route'. Formal channels of communication are methods and forms of communication that are recognized and approved by employers and employee representatives. These formal channels will include regular staff meetings, Quality Circles, Staff Appraisal interviews and normal line management-staff communication. At a basic minimum, and under Taylorian style systems, formal channels are relied upon to ensure that orders or instructions are carried out. But this ignores the fact that formal channels can also be used for two way information flow. Communication should be up as well as down the hierarchy. The development of this two way path has been encouraged by those firms which are aware of the importance of communication in motivation and in the role of grass roots workers in spotting and solving problems as well as assisting companies remain market orientated. If this upward vertical communication occurs, those that understand the problem can help solve the problem. People talk, they send information on, they have colleagues that they trust and that they discuss issues with. All of this leads to informal information interaction. Informal channels can both help and hinder formal communication, but one definite advantage of informal communication is that, when used it can buy-pass layers of hierarchy. Informal communication can hinder formal communication because information that is transmitted through informal channels has greater chance of becoming distorted. (Just think about the game Chinese whispers).

Surprisingly enough, the grapevine can be acknowledged by management and actively approved of. For example, managers may start a rumor, and wait to see how the workers react, and then make changes based on the reaction of employees. This though is unlikely to happen in firms with authoritarian management structures, where informal communication can be virtually outlawed. All of these communication methods will allow the passing of information. One has to remember that we are not just talking about telling people what they need to know, or giving orders, we are talking about developing ideas and ensuring that these ideas are acted upon.

Communication can be easily linked to team working, or quality circles. These groups allow the pooling of ideas so that the whole is always more than the sum of its parts. Research has shown that effective communication requires both formal and informal channels. Formal statements can be supported by informal explanations.

2.8 Vertical and Lateral Communication

The combination of vertical and lateral communication is what makes up an effective communication network. Downwards vertical communication, from manager to subordinate and so on, is used to tell employees about decisions that have been made. It sounds like giving orders, but within the method we can see that it has definite functions beyond this. These advantages of formal vertical communication are given below.

• It allows decisions made by managers to be carried out by subordinates; i.e., giving orders.

• It ensures that control from the centre is strong and that actions are co-ordinate and consistent.

• it reduces conflicts, power struggles, empire building. The combination of the above will increase efficiency, and therefore increase profitability. The flow of information upwards, that is backwards vertical, also has an important role to play in effective decision making. This is because it:

• It helps managers to understand employee’s views and concerns, whether in regard to internal factors or external issues.

• It can alert managers to potential problems, such as discontentment with decisions implemented, or dissatisfaction of customers.

• It has an important role in motivation Herzberg and Maslow (1954).

Lateral communication takes place when people at the same level in an organisation share information. This type of communication is essential as it lets different departments understand the objectives, aims and requirements of other departments. If we look at a typical traditional hierarchy where direct lateral communication is not possible, there may be many layers of hierarchy for communication between departments to pass through. In the past, a lack of understanding about what different sectors of a business are trying to achieve, has led to over or underproduction, lack of required manpower or skills, or shortages of capital. Lateral communication tries to overcome these problems.

2.9 Different Communication Networks

A successful business should, as far as, possible use a variety of types of communication networks. The way these communication networks pass on information can be pictured if we see them as different shapes, as indicated by their names. These networks (with the exception of ‘the chain’) are all very different from the traditional hierarchical organizational structures which are still found in many unreformed public sector bodies. Each network has been designed with one overall objective; to improve communication.

***The circle**

In this network departments and individuals can only communicate with the two others adjacent to them in the circle. This type of communication can occur between middle managers from different departments. But it can be slow or disorganized because of lack of co-ordination.

***The chain**

Within the chain network one person passes information on to others who then pass it on. This is the formal approach. The main advantage is that there is a leader, a coordinator at the top of the network who can oversee communications downwards. The main problem is the isolation felt by those at the bottom.

***The wheel**

In the wheel network, there is a person, or group, or department that occupies a central position, the spoke of the wheel. This is a good problem solving network, with lots of potential input to a central co-coordinator.

***All connected or all channel network**

This network is best used in small groups and it is often used to solve complex problems. Communication between members takes advantage of information technology based on communication systems such as video conferencing and e-mailing.

2.10 Cultural Differences in Business Communication

There is no better arena for observing a cultural interchange in action than business. Cultures tend to reveal themselves in situations where much is at stake, because it is here that their resources are most needed. Marriage, family obligations, and such stressful experiences as illness and the death of a loved one bring out much of what is distinctive and fundamental in a culture. The same is true for business, because economic survival is at stake. Business practices are shaped by deeply-held cultural attitudes toward work, power, trust, wealth—and communication.

Communication is fundamental in business, because business is a collaborative activity. Goods and services are created and exchanged through the close coordination of many persons, sometimes within a single village, and sometimes across global distances.

Coordination of this kind requires intense communication. Complex product specifications and production schedules must be mutually understood, and intricate deals between trading partners must be negotiated. Communication styles vary enormously around the world, and these contribute to a staggering variety of business styles.

Probably the single most useful concept for understanding cultural differences in business communication is Edward T. Hall's (1976) distinction of low-context and high-context cultures. It explains much about how negotiation proceeds, how agreements are specified, and how workers are managed. Yet, this distinction, insightful as it may be, is derivative. It is best understood as reflecting a more fundamental distinction between rule-based and relationship-based cultures, which is in turn grounded in different conceptions of human nature. The discussion here begins by showing how business practices reflect low-context and high-context characteristics, but it subsequently moves to the deeper levels to explore how communication styles are integrally related to other characteristics of the culture.

2.11 High and Low Context Communication

In high-context communication, the message cannot be understood without a great deal of background information. Low-context communication spells out more of the information explicitly in the message. Let's suppose someone would like to drink some Löwenbräu Original beer with 5.2% alcohol content by volume. If he/she orders it online, he/she specifies all these details. This is low-context communication. If someone is sitting in a Munich*biergarten*, it may be enough to say, "*Noch eins, bitte*" ("Another one, please"). The waiter knows that he/she just drank a stein of Löwenbräu Original, or that customers who speak with a foreign accent nearly always want the city's most famous beer. Because the remark is meaningful only in context, it is an example of high-context communication. As a rule, cultures with western European roots rely more heavily on low-context communication. These include Australia, Canada, New Zealand, and the United States, as well as much of Europe. The rest of the world tends toward high-context communication. Naturally, high-context communication can occur in a low-context culture, as the German *biergarten* illustrates. Communication within a family or close knit group is high context in almost any part of the world. Conversely, low-context communication is becoming more common in high-context cultures, due to Western influences and a desire to accommodate expatriates.

One of the more obvious markers of a low-context culture is the proliferation of signs and written instructions. If he/she steps off the train in Munich, there are signs everywhere to direct him/her to the taxi stand, public transportation, ticket offices, tourist information, and lavatories. Detailed street maps of the area are mounted on the walls, and bus and tram schedules are posted. In much of the high-context world, there is little such information.

Nonetheless everyone seems off hand ready to know where to go and what to do. Much of what one must know to operate is absorbed from the culture, as if by osmosis. In these parts of the world, my hosts normally send someone to meet me on the platform, partly as a gesture of hospitality, but also because they are accustomed to providing information through a social context rather than impersonal signs. Any person is much less likely to be greeted at a German airport or station, not because Germans are inhospitable, but because they transmit information in a different way.

It may appear that low-context communication is simply an outgrowth of urbanization and international travel, rather than a cultural trait. These are certainly factors, but there is an irreducible cultural element as well. The smallest town in the United States carefully labels every street with a street sign and numbers the buildings consecutively, even though practically everyone in sight has lived there a lifetime and can name the dwellers of every house. Yet, very few streets in the huge city of Tokyo are labeled or even have names, and building numbers are nonexistent or arranged in random order. The United States and Japan are perhaps the world's most extreme cases of low-context and high-context cultures, respectively.

Likewise, international travel and migration fail to explain low-context and high-context behavior, even if they are factors. It is true that international airports are now well pasted in most parts of the world. Yet, there are few areas with a more transient and multicultural population than some of the Arab Gulf states, in which perhaps less than twenty percent of the population is indigenous. Communication nonetheless remains largely high context. Local authorities may post directional signs at roundabouts, in an effort to accommodate Western tourists and expatriates, but these are remarkably useless—no doubt because the local people never rely on signs and therefore do not really know what it means to use them as direction indicators.

2.11.1 Regulating Behavior

Low- and high-context communication styles are, at the root, contrasting approaches to regulating behavior. One way to identify a low-context culture is that behavior norms are often communicated by putting them in writing them rather than through personal enforcement. If someone is not supposed to enter a particular area or smoke there, posted signs will let him/her knows. In a high-context culture, there may be no signs, but a guard or employee may accost him/her if he/she breaks any of the rules. He/she may take offense at this, because in Western country, being called down for bad behavior implies that he/she should have known better, and he/she normally do not know better unless someone writes down the rules. But in high-context cultures, being corrected by other persons is a normal procedure for regulating behavior.

Whereas Westerners live in a world of rules and instructions and are lost without them, many others live in a social context. A Western or international airport is full of signs and display screens that direct passengers to the correct check-in counter and gate, update departure times, and so forth. However, if he/she enters a crowded departure lounge in a regional, non-Western airport, he/she may find no signs or displays to indicate which gate corresponds to what destination, or if the displays exist, they may be blank or incorrect. Airline employees standing at the doorways may announce the flights, but they are inaudible in the din. Somehow, everyone knows where to go. They pick up cues from the people around them. For example, they may have unconsciously noticed who was in the queue with them when they checked in, and gravitated toward these same people when they reached the departure lounge.

There are clear implications for business communication. A manager in New York City transmits behavior norms through employee manuals and official memos. Employees who want a week off, for example, are expected to consult these sources, or perhaps their employment contracts, for whether they are entitled to a holiday or not. They follow prescribed procedures for filing a request, which is granted according to the company's policy. How employees make use of their holidays is of no consequence. In fact, managers typically want as little discretion as possible to evaluate the merits of the case, because they feel more comfortable applying rules than exercising personal judgment that they may have to defend. Employees in Bogotá, by contrast, will more likely approach the boss, or a friend of the boss who can plead their case. They will explain how important it is to attend a niece's wedding in Miami or a grandfather's funeral in Buenos Aires. The boss is willing to make such decisions, because this is what it means to be a boss. Ironically, it may also be necessary to follow bureaucratic procedure that is even more tedious than in New York City, but the request is ultimately granted on the basis of personal decision. The role of bureaucracy in high-context cultures is an interesting issue. This will be taken up later in this work. Because company norms in a high-context culture must be communicated personally, close personal supervision is essential. Rules that are not personally enforced may be seen as non-binding. The company may not want employees to use company cars for personal purposes, but a failure to monitor vehicle use may be interpreted as granting them permission. A similar principle applies in education. The instructor may tell students not to copy homework solutions from their classmates and state this policy clearly in the course syllabus. Yet, if it is easy to copy solutions without getting caught, the students may feel free to do so. They reason that if the instructor really cared about copying, he or she would not allow it to occur.

2.11.2 Contracts

The difference between low- and high-context communication is particularly evident in the area of contracts. Western contracts are marvels of thoroughness. So, simple a transaction as renting a bicycle for a day may require three pages of fine print to spell out how to deal with every possible contingency. Once a contract is signed, there is no flexibility in the terms unless both parties agree to renegotiate. If a party fails to deliver, the legal system is expected to enforce compliance.

Contracts in high-context societies have a different character, for two reasons. One reason traces directly to the high-context nature of communication. It is not necessary to write everything (or perhaps anything) down, because mutual understanding and a handshake suffice. When there is a written contract, it may be more a memorandum of understanding than a binding legal document. Because the terms are vague, there is room for adjustment as the situation develops. As for compliance, the parties are more likely to rely on a pre-existing trust relationship than a legal system.

A second reason for the lack of detailed contracts is that the very idea of a contract is central only in certain cultures, primarily those historically influenced by the Middle East. A Westerner, for example, sees doing business as synonymous with making deals.

The idea of a covenant is fundamental to the culture and even governs the relationship between God and the Human kind in the Christian Old Testament. In a Confucian culture, by contrast, doing business is primarily about developing personal relationships. These can be based on family or clan connections, or on relationships of mutual obligation popularly known as *guānxì* (a Mandarin Chinese word for "connection"). Business plans develop along with the relationship rather than through formal communication in written contracts. Managers may draw up contracts to please their Western business partners, but one should not be surprised if they want to alter the terms the day after the document is signed. Why enslave oneself to a piece of paper, when the world constantly changes?

2.11.3 Negotiation and Decision Making:

Every cross-cultural business manual cautions Western negotiators that, in much of the world, “yes” does not necessarily mean yes, and “maybe” can mean no. “Yes” can be a way of indicating that one understands or acknowledges a proposal. If the proposal is unsatisfactory, the response is likely to be indirect, perhaps consisting of such statements as, “we will think about it,” a period of silence (as in a Japanese setting, where silence can have other meanings as well), or simply a failure to pursue the matter in subsequent meetings.

This kind of indirect speech relies on high-context communication to get the message across, but there is much involved than simply a tendency to engage in high-context communication. There is a desire to save face or otherwise avoid giving offense.

Indirect speech occurs generally in situations where parties may disagree, not only in negotiation, but also when a decision is being discussed or conflicts must be resolved. Westerners tend to be frank in such settings. Parties who disagree state their views openly, because their differences are resolved by what are regarded as objective standards. The winning view is the one backed by the stronger argument, spreadsheet calculations, or the logic of market forces. The losers may find their predicament unpleasant, but they are expected to subjugate their personal feelings to objective criteria.

In much of the world, however, there is no such faith in objectivity. Life revolves around human relationships rather than what are seen as universal rules of logic. Because there is no independent standard by which to resolve conflicts, it is important not to give offense in the first place. Such scruples may not apply during transient interactions with strangers, as when bargaining in a street bazaar. But when dealing with business associates with whom one must maintain working relationships, it is necessary to preserve harmony through deference, courtesy, and indirection.

One result of this dynamic is that business meetings tend to serve different purposes in different parts of the world. In low-context cultures, meetings provide an occasion for the company to consider pros and cons and perhaps even arrive at a decision on the spot. Participants in the meeting are expected to express their opinions openly, provided they back up their views with facts and arguments. In high-context cultures, deliberation and decision-making tend to take place behind the scenes and at upper levels. A meeting might be an occasion to announce and explain the decision.

As for negotiation, the very concept, at least as it is understood in the West, may be problematic in a relationship-based culture. It may be seen as a form of confrontation that undermines harmony. Westerners view negotiation as a poker game in which players can lose without hard feelings, as long as everyone plays by rules that are somehow in the sky. Yet when no such rules are acknowledged, and only human relationships are recognized as real, it is best to foster these relationships and build trust. If there is common ground for business, it will develop along with the relationship. Confrontational bargaining can be appropriate in high-context cultures, but again, only in such settings as a street market, and not between colleagues. High-context communication remains part of the picture, but it has a different purpose. The object is not to avoid giving offense but to arrive at a price with as little information exchange as possible. As a Westerner, he/she may regard “haggling” as a waste of time, because he/she believes the price should be dictated by the logic of the market. However, if there is no well defined market price, a price below my maximum and above the seller’s minimum must somehow be arrived at. This is impossible if he/she reveals his/her y maximum and the seller reveals her minimum, because he/she will insist buying at his/her minimum, and he/she will insist on selling at his/her maximum. Bargaining tends to be a ritualized activity that reveals just enough information about the seller and me to allow us to identify a price in this range, or discover that there is no mutually agreeable price. Hand and facial gestures, tone of voice, and walking out of the shop can signal intentions that are not explicit in verbal comments. Westerners often ask how they should bargain in a traditional market, but it is impossible to say in general. The conventions are very specific to the culture and must be learned over an extended period, perhaps by going to the market with one’s parents. One-on-one bargaining of this kind can actually be more efficient, in an economic sense, than low-context Western commerce that explicitly reveals an equilibrated market price on a price tag or web site. Negotiation may discover a price on the seller and I can agree, allowing mutually beneficial trade to proceed, even when one of us is dissatisfied with the market price and no trade would occur in a fixed-price system. In fact, some recent online auctions and trading are beginning to resemble traditional practices more than transparency-based Western commerce.

2.12 Relationship-based and Rule-based Cultures:

This is a good point at which to examine the cultural mechanisms that underlie high- and low-context communication styles. They may be roughly categorized as *relationship based* and *rule-based*. Each is associated with a set of practices that regulate interpersonal relations and deal with the stress and uncertainty of human existence. This deeper perspective allows one to understand business communication patterns that are not fully explained as deriving from high- and low-context communication styles.

Behavior in relationship-based cultures is regulated through close supervision by authority figures. This requires that authority be respected, and it therefore resides in persons with whom one has significant relationships, such as parents, elders, bosses, or even departed ancestors. Improper behavior is deterred by shame, loss of face, punishment, or ostracism. Because the authority figures are close at hand and form an integral part of the social environment, behavioral norms are usually implicit in the cultural situation and need not be spelled out explicitly. Relationship-based cultures, therefore, tend to rely on high-context communication.

Behavior in rule-based cultures is based on respect for rules. This is not to say that rule based cultures have rules and relationship-based cultures do not; both do. Rule-based cultures are distinguished by two characteristics: (a) people respect the rules for their own sake, while rules in relationship-based cultures derive their authority from the persons who lay them down; and (b) compliance with rules is often encouraged by guilt feelings and fear of punishment if one happens to be caught violating the rules, rather than shame and constant supervision. Because personal relationships are relatively unimportant in the enforcement of rules, the rules tend to be spelled out explicitly, and people are taught to pay attention to them. The result is low-context communication. One can now begin to see why high- and low-context communication styles are, at the root, contrasting approaches to regulating behavior.

The distinction of relationship-based and rule-based cultures also underlies differences in negotiating styles. The frankness of rule-based cultures is possible because of an underlying confidence that rules have objective validity and can therefore serve as a basis for resolving disputes. The absence of such confidence in relationship-based cultures requires that they fall back on courtesy and face saving.

Relationship- and rule-based mechanisms deal with the stress and uncertainty of life as well as regulate behavior (Hooker 2003). Family and friendship ties provide a sense of security in relationship-based societies. Loyalty obligations to family and cronies are therefore strong and may take precedence over one's own welfare, but it is loyalty well invested, because these institutions provide a refuge in difficult times.

The ruled-based stress management mechanism is less obvious but equally fundamental to cultural success. Because social control does not rely so totally on personal relationships, these tend to weaken, and people must seek security and predictability elsewhere. Fortunately, the very rules that regulate behavior provide a basis for imposing order and predictability on society as a whole. The search for universality also leads to the discovery of scientific laws, which provide a basis for engineering the environment for even greater predictability and control. Rule-based peoples therefore turn as much to the system around them for security as to family and friends, or even more so. The systemic resources range from advanced medical technology to deal with disease to legal systems to resolve disputes.

2.12.1 Transparency

The issue of transparency comes to the fore most obviously in finance and investment, and it likewise reflects an underlying orientation toward rules or relationships. Western-style investment places a premium on publicly available information. A capitalist may invest in family members or friends, but this is not the general pattern and may cause more strain that the relationships can bear. It is also argued that capital markets are more efficient if money can flow from any investor or any firm that can use it productively, rather than being restricted by personal connections. Investors must therefore have access to publicly available information about the condition of a firm and its plans for the future.

These conditions give rise to the Western business world's most distinctive form of communication, the accounting statement, as well as such documents as the prospectus and the annual report. All rely on strongly rule-based activities and are therefore possible only in rule-based cultures. Accounting, in particular, relies on an entire profession that develops intricate reporting standards in the form of Generally Accepted Accounting Principles (GAAP) and certifies its practitioners with grueling examinations. Prospectuses and corporate annual reports are regulated by law to ensure transparency. Investment in a relationship-based society typically occurs through pre-existing trust relationships. The phenomenal growth of the Chinese economy in recent decades, for example, has been fueled largely through family-based investment, much of it coming from overseas Chinese communities in Canada, Indonesia, Malaysia, and North America. Investment can follow *guānxì* relationships as well. The process is anything but transparent, and financial statements are of secondary importance. It may even be insulting to one's business partners to ask for them. One must not assume, as is often done in the West, that transparency-based investing is necessarily superior. Both systems can generate spectacular success, as witnessed by Western economies on one side and the explosive growth of the Chinese and Korean economies on the other. Attempts to import Western-style finance can bring disaster, as demonstrated by the Asian financial crisis. Asian economies that converted quickly to Western-style loans and equity shares in the late 1990s lacked the cultural support for transparency. Loans and stock portfolios were poorly selected, and collapse was inevitable. Meanwhile, China and Taiwan largely averted the crisis by sticking primarily with traditional finance.

Transparency-based finance has the efficiencies already mentioned, but it tends to be unstable because it is prone to massive movements of capital (a key factor in the Asian crisis) and relies on sometimes fragile public institutions to implement its rule-based structure. Relationship-based finance requires slow cultivation of trust, but it can be remarkably stable in the presence of institutional turmoil. China was the world's largest economy for eight of the last ten centuries (and will become so again in the present century), despite the succession of many dynasties and much political unrest.

2.12.2 Marketing and Advertising

One might expect global marketing and advertising to homogenize as business globalizes. There is mounting evidence, however, that this is not the case (Dahl 2004, De Mooij, 2003). One might also expect demand patterns and advertising content to become increasingly Westernized in populations of growing affluence. Again, the reality appears to be precisely the opposite (De Mooij, 2000). Marketing technology supports this tendency towards heterogeneity by allowing the delivery of different messages to many subcultures and market segments, even when they live amongst each other.

Although there is a tendency to associate Western marketing with mass advertising, there is a well established Western practice of “relationship marketing” in business-to-business commerce, and it can provide a doorway to culturally appropriate marketing elsewhere.

Even here, however, business networking styles differ. Networking in the West often involves approaching strangers at a trade fair or cocktail party, and the relationship rarely develops beyond a casual acquaintance. Networking in a relationship-based business system works through pre-established connections with family and friends to cultivate new partners and build trust relationships.

A relationship-based style can be very effective for consumer marketing as well, even in the West, as for example when movies become popular through “word of mouth.” This approach is particularly appropriate in high-context countries where people are extremely well connected, and the word can spread with remarkable alacrity.

Mass consumer marketing is relies on low-context communication and for this reason alone is it unnatural for relationship-based cultures. People in these cultures traditionally prefer to take advice from someone they know and trust than from impersonal advertisements. Most of the world is now accustomed to mass advertising, but the legal infrastructure for regulating its content and accuracy may be much less effective than in rule-based cultures.

When Western-style mass advertising is used in high-context cultures, one must obviously take care that it conveys the intended message. The background and context can embody more information than the verbal message, perhaps the wrong information. This is not only due to a general sensitivity to high-context communication, but to the generally larger role of symbols in many non-Western cultures. Symbolism is at work in all cultures, as emphasized in Clifford Geertz (1973), in the sense that practices and institutions have meaning beyond themselves. But most world cultures are more alert to symbolic meaning than Western European and North American cultures, which are more sensitive to visual impressions. Thus certain colors may be chosen in a Western advertisement to give it the right kind of look, while in much of Asia colors powerfully symbolize abstract qualities—red for happiness and marriage, white for mourning, blue for immortality, and so forth. The Japanese present an interesting exception, because they are as visually oriented as the French (which may help to account for the French fascination with things Japanese), to the point that the appearance and layout of a Japanese meal are more important than the taste.

2.12.3 Conceptions of Human Nature

The distinction of relationship-based and rule-based cultures sheds light on why the former prefers high-context, and the latter low-context, communication. It explains the necessity of indirect speech and face saving in the former, and the preference for frankness and logic-based argument in the latter. To use the terms of Trompenaars and Hampden-Turner (1997), it explains why relationship-based cultures are *particularist*, meaning that judgments are relative to the social situation, while rule-based cultures are *universalist*, meaning that judgments must conform to the universal standards.

It remains to be explained, however, why relationship-based cultures are willing to recognize the centrality of relationships, and rule-based cultures are willing to recognize the universal validity of certain rules. This can be accomplished by moving to yet a deeper level of analysis that recognizes differing conceptions of human nature. This maneuver will also justify the differing conceptions of power across cultures, which play an important role in business communication.

In relationship-based cultures, the unit of human existence is larger than the individual, perhaps encompassing the extended family or the village. Ostracism from the group is almost a form of death, because one does not exist apart from one's relatedness to others. In the Confucian ideal, for example, taking care of parents and grandparents comes first, followed by caring for one's children, and only then oneself. Bantu cultures identify individual welfare with that of the village. The greeting ritual of the Shona people, for example, begins *Maswere sei* (How is your day?), to which the response is *Ndiswera maswerawo* ("My day is OK if yours is"). The principle is not simply that loyalty to the group entitles one to loyalty from the group. Loyalty to the group is loyalty to oneself. Neglecting other members of the group is like neglecting parts of one's body. The most extreme example is perhaps the pantheistic doctrine of Hinduism, which regards all minds as manifestations of a single underlying *atman*. The centrality of relationships in relationship-based cultures therefore has an ontological basis, specifically in communal conceptions of human existence.

Because relationships are fundamental, social control is exercised through relationships. Certain figures must have inherent authority over others to whom they are related, much as the head has authority over the body. Parents have authority over children, husbands over wives, older siblings over younger siblings, village elders over their neighbors, and so forth. This gives rise to a *high power distance* culture, in which the subordination of some people to others is accepted, even by subordinates, as natural and inevitable. Rule-based cultures regard human beings as autonomous individuals. Autonomy means in part that no individual has natural authority over another. Social cohesion therefore demands that there be some authority that is apart from any individual. Originally this was the godhead in the monotheistic theology that so heavily influenced the West, but because the godhead was understood as a lawgiver, the conception evolved into governance by universal rules of conduct. The Greek conception of individuals as rational beings reinforced this solution by allowing the rules to be understood as self-justifying because they are inherently logical. The centrality of rules in rule-based cultures therefore has an ontological basis, namely the conception of human beings as autonomous, rational individuals.

Due to the fundamental equality of autonomous individuals, rule-based cultures tend to have *low power distance*, meaning that no individual is seen as having an inherent authority over others. This raises a problem of leadership, because it is often necessary for someone to take charge. Various solutions have evolved, such as the European concept of aristocracy (rule of the excellent), whereby some individuals earn the right to lead by virtue of superior talent and learning, or the American idea that people take turns in positions of power and return to ordinary status as soon as the term of office expires.

2.12.4 Deference

Power distance has a pervasive effect on communication patterns in relationship-based business. The effect can be seen in both verbal communication and in such nonverbal signals as body language and other kinds of behavior.

Perhaps the most elaborate verbal cues for power distance are the grammatical inflections found in such languages as Japanese and Korean. Japanese has special word forms that show respect or reflect greater formality and politeness. Usage can also depend on whether one is addressing members of an in-group or an out-group. It is vital to observe these niceties in business, and companies may even train employees how to use proper language to show respect to customers or superiors. Korean culture is strongly age sensitive, and an age difference of a year or less may require deferential language from the younger party. Two classes of inflections are used: honorific inflections to show respect to the persons mentioned, and no fewer than seven “speech levels” to show different degrees of respect to the listener. Nearly every language has resources for showing deference, if not to the extent of Japanese or Korean, and these tend to be important in business settings.

Deference is also shown by avoiding remarks that could embarrass superiors or cause loss of face. High-power distance cultures can operate only so long as authority figures are respected, and respect is difficult to maintain when the boss appears to be a bungler. Subordinates may take care not to express their opinions in front of the boss until they learn what the boss thinks, because a disagreement could be viewed as finding fault with the boss. Subordinates do not openly point out the mistakes of superiors or even describe problems in the company, because this could suggest that the boss has failed to manage properly. It is obviously important for managers to be aware of problems, but these can be communicated in private or through a third party. In some high-power distance cultures, it is appropriate for employees to bring problems to management collectively, as in a petition from the labor union, because this does oblige any employee to challenge the boss as an individual.

Deference is also shown in body language. Well-known examples include low bows or lowered eyes in some Asian countries. While Westerners see direct eye contact as indicating honesty, it may be unconsciously interpreted as threatening in East Asia. Guidebooks for travellers in the Middle East frequently warn against crossing one’s legs, because pointing one’s foot toward another is presumably offensive. A more general principle is that a slouch or relaxed posture reflects the confidence of a highly-ranked person, while an upright seated posture with feet on the floor are seen as showing deference. In Turkey, subordinates may be expected to keep their coat jackets buttoned in the presence of a superior, and in some traditional Bantu cultures, women and children kneel and perhaps clap their hands when receiving a gift. The famous business card rituals of East Asian countries can also signal deference. The cards are always received, and normally given, with both hands, held at the corners between thumb and forefinger. The card is oriented so that the recipient can read it, preferably in his or her language. The recipient should take a moment to read the card and treat it with respect rather than stuffing it in a pocket. These practices are independent of rank, but one can show deference by presenting cards to more highly ranked individuals first. In Japan, the lower ranking person holds the card (*meishi*) at a lower level than that of the higher-ranking person. The underlying principle is that in Japan, and to a lesser extent in Korea and China, the business card contains a little bit of the owner’s soul and must be treated accordingly.

Punctuality is another way of acknowledging rank. Punctuality is generally more important in what Edward T. Hall (1959) calls *monochromic* cultures, which are those in which people generally do one thing at a time, and less so in *polychromic* cultures in which people deal with several tasks at once. The underlying causes are again rule-based and relationship-based mechanisms.

People in rule-based cultures seek security and predictability by structuring their environment, and in particular by structuring their time. They tend to set aside a time slot for each activity, resulting in appointments and strict schedules. This kind of structuring can succeed only if people are reasonably punctual. Punctuality is not required as a stress-management tool in relationship-based cultures, but it can nevertheless mark rank. Subordinates may show up on time to make sure the boss is not kept waiting, while the boss may show up late to make sure there is no loss of face by having to wait, or simply to display superior status. Supervisors in Indonesia, for example, may habitually arrive half an hour late to meetings, with the ritual excuse of being held up in traffic. One should be cautioned, however, that punctuality may be expected of everyone in some relationship-based countries, such as China and particularly Japan.

2.12.5 Bureaucracy

High-context societies may require greater paperwork and bureaucracy even though they take written rules less seriously. Boye Lafayette De Mente (1994) reports that, at one point, the U.S. government required the filing of twenty-six documents, in the course of nine administrative procedures, to approve a joint venture in pharmaceuticals. For the same type of venture, Japan required 325 documents in forty six administrative procedures, and South Korea required 312 documents in sixty-two administrative procedures. Bureaucracy is bad enough in low-context cultures, but it tends to be even worse in high-context cultures.

There are several reasons for this paradox. One is the necessity of close supervision in relationship-based societies, which is often reflected in multiple layers of bureaucratic checks. A public employee in Mexico who wishes submit a claim for a travel reimbursement may be required to submit one set of forms to immediate supervisors and additional forms to a national office in Mexico City. The supervisors relay copies of their forms to Mexico City, where functionaries compare them with the employee's forms and further paperwork obtained from vendors. The goal is to minimize corruption, and if everything checks out, there is an eventual authorization to reimburse the traveller. The process can take months.

Another reason is that rule-based societies actually run themselves largely through written rules, and the bureaucracy must work. If the paperwork gets too complicated, the system will grind to a halt, and customers or the public will demand better services. In relationship-based societies, the bureaucracy primarily serves purposes other than straightforward functionality. One purpose is to cement the power of important individuals. A department head who signs off on more forms has more power, and so there is constant maneuvering to enlarge one's turf in this way. This occurs in all bureaucracies, but it is less likely to be checked in an organization in which things actually get done through personal relationships rather than bureaucratic procedure. In addition, Hall (1959) points out that polychromic cultures are already inclined to have bureaucracies that are organized around personal power than around logical organizations in Germany or Scandinavia. The networks of personal influence tend to grow like vegetation, resulting in a sprawling and complex bureaucracy.

Bureaucracy serves still another purpose in what Geert Hofstede (2001) calls uncertainly-avoiding cultures. These are cultures in which people feel uncertain about life and seek reassurance in a predictable or low-risk lifestyle. The notion of classifying certain countries as uncertainty avoiding is somewhat problematic, because all cultures have mechanisms for alleviating uncertainty, and it is only a question of how they do it. Nonetheless, societies that Hofstede classifies as uncertainty avoiding commonly find reassurance in ritual, which can be remarkably complex and exacting. Strange as it may seem, bureaucratic procedure can be experienced as a form of ritual and can to that extent be reassuring, not only to the functionaries to whom it provides reliable employment, but to anyone who seeks predictability in procedures that are, by definition, always the same. This is perhaps why military organizations, which must deal with the stress and uncertainty of conflict, are highly bureaucratic even in a rule-based country like the United States. One in fact sees dysfunctional bureaucracies in uncertainty-avoiding countries, such as Greece, Portugal, Russia, several Latin American countries, and so on down the list, although these are scarcely the only countries to be so endowed.

2.13 Variations among Rule-based Culture

Business communications styles can differ markedly even among rule-based cultures, and similarly among relationship-based cultures. Consider, for example, a typical business presentation in which the speaker is trying to attract funding for a business venture. The presentation would have a very different character in the United States than in Germany, even though both countries have strongly rule-based cultures.

The American speaker begins with a small joke to “break the ice,” while this is inappropriate in Germany. Germans wish to be reassured by the professionalism and seriousness of the speaker. Humor suggests casualness that might translate into an ill-considered undertaking. The American’s slides contain flashy visuals with such phrases as “fantastic opportunity,” which strikes the Germans as childish. They prefer graphs and charts to reassure them that proper market research has been conducted. These differences are due to the fact that Germany is an uncertainty avoiding culture, while the United States is not. Indeed, the American audience probably contains venture capitalists who are willing to fund risky startups, while the German audience is more likely to consist of stolid bankers. The desire for security and predictability go far beyond the business meeting. Germans pay a premium for high-quality products that are less likely to break down, and they invest heavily in a highly-engineering physical and social infrastructure on which they can rely.

The American presentation could also cause problems in Scandinavia. The speaker delivers a hard sales pitch, sprinkled with buzz words and such terms as “aggressive,” while Scandinavians prefer a low-key presentation couched in plain language. The American approach reflects a “masculine” culture that values competition and aggression, whereas Scandinavian culture is “feminine” and emphasizes cooperation more than competition.

Western Europeans make much of their different styles, but one should see them as variations on low-context, logic-based communication. It is true that the British are normally reserved and understated, while the French gave us the very word *frank* (which refers to the Franks, an old word for the French). Yet, the British can deliver a devastating comment with scarcely an inflection of the voice. If French and Italians become animated or emotional in a business meeting, one must bear in mind that

Descartes was French and Galileo was Italian, and by the end of the day the decision is likely to reflect the logic and pragmatism of a Glaswegian.

The situation changes somewhat as one moves East the Russian society, for example, is essentially rule-based, but business partners may find it more important to feel comfortable with each other than to get the financials right. Business people from abroad should be particularly cognizant of this, due to the uncertainty-avoiding culture and the tendency of the Russians to feel apprehensive about foreigners. Frequent references to mutual Russian friends and contacts can be reassuring, as can participating in such rituals as vodka drinking and *banya*, the Russian sauna.

Themes and variations also occur among relationship-based cultures, and one obvious theme is saving face. In Confucian cultures, for example, one never utters a word or takes an action without calculating the effect on face. This is obviously important when dealing with superiors or colleagues, as when verbal disagreements are muted and indirect signals are used in negotiation. Yet, it can be equally important to respect the face of subordinates. These are high power distance cultures in which the boss is expected to be authoritarian, perhaps bark orders, and deal harshly with employees who disobey. Yet, the boss should not embarrass employees in front of others when they make good faith effort to do the job right—unless they have bungled so badly as to lose face already. This can damage morale and may even erode the boss’s authority in the eyes of other employees. Confucian authority carries with it a paternalistic duty, and careless disregard of face indicates lack of care for one’s subordinates. Face is a powerful force and must be used wisely.

Face is likewise important in the more conservative Latin American countries, such as Mexico, but it is manifested in a somewhat different form—namely, as *machismo* or masculine honor. A Mexican business conversation can be very different from one north of the border in the United Sates. The purpose of conversation is as much to build trust between business partners as to exchange information, particularly in the early stages of the relationship. There is much talk about family, because a good family man is a man of honor who can perhaps be trusted in business as well. The relationship is not based so much on mutual obligation, as in the case of *guanxi*, but at its best on an emotional bond of friendship. Whereas US business people talk business in a business meeting, Mexican business conversation is about the whole person. It is important to keep the emotional radar in operation to remain sensitive to how the other party is reacting. In particular, one should take care not to embarrass the other by alluding to mistakes or shortcomings, because this brings loss of honor.

Honor is the primary male virtue in *machismo* cultures. The very word *virtue* comes from the Latin for manhood (*vir*). Toughness and capacity for violence can be part of *machismo*, but only in service of an honorable cause, such as protecting one's family. *Machismo* evolved in treacherous environments where courage and a code of honor were necessary survival traits for men, and successful cultures have a way of making virtues out of necessities. The sense of honor and self-respect can be very finely tuned, which may create the impression that men are thin-skinned. In any event, it is essential to respect this sensibility. This becomes a particularly delicate issue when there are problems in the company, and so much as mentioning the problems may cast aspersions on managers who could be held responsible for them. One technique for broaching the topic is to blame it on outside forces, such as unreliable suppliers or corrupt politicians.

These may not lie at the root of the problem, but blaming them at least allows the problem to be discussed. The historical source of Latin American machismo is Arab culture, by way of the northern African influence on Spain. It remains very much alive in Arabic-speaking countries today, particularly in Saudi Arabia and the Gulf region. Warm personal greetings and ceaseless courtesy are a must in business dealings. It is never a bad idea to preface one's remarks with some such nicety as, "Thank you for your comments," or, «I learned much from your report." An impractical proposal or a questionable statement should be ignored or smoothed over, so that no one appears foolish. The goal is to protect the male ego. Flattery that strikes Westerners as obsequious is perfectly appropriate, particularly where superiors are concerned. Power distance is very much part of the picture, and honorific terms and titles are expected. Such phrases as "Your Excellency" may be obligatory for government officials or members of a royal family.

Courtesy is integral to business relations throughout the Middle East. Arabic, Turkish, Farsi, and other Middle Eastern languages contain many resources for polite speech, and when speaking the languages one should take advantage of this. Above all, it is important to convey a message that one enjoys the company of one's business partners. The Western distinction of professional life from life as a whole is as foreign here as in Latin America.

A second theme is found in the communication styles that promote harmony and mutual support in group-oriented cultures. For example, the communalism of the Shona culture mentioned earlier is reflected in the importance of acknowledging others. If he/she walks past a colleague in the hallway four or five times a day, he/she should take care to greet her every time. To walk past without acknowledgment is seen as cold and scarcely human. A short conversation with a clerk as I purchase goods in a shop would also be appropriate (Situations in which a clerk or functionary deals with hundreds of people a day, so common in modern life, are experienced as highly unnatural because there is no time to relate to them). When making a presentation before co-workers, he/she should acknowledge by name any person in the audience who contributed to the project he/she is discussing at the moment. Interestingly, this last example is not so much an affirmation of community as of individualism. Cultures that rely heavily on one principle tend to compensate by providing an outlet for its opposite. The communalism of many African cultures is often counterbalanced by occasions for ego recognition. It is on much the same principle that highly individualistic Western cultures may develop such communal mechanisms as volunteerism, patriotism, and support groups.

Another distinctive form of group communication is found in the Japanese practice of consensus building for a policy decision. The practice is traditionally known as *nemawashi* ("going around the roots"), which refers to the practice of preparing a tree for transplant, much as one prepares an organization for a new policy. A memo would be circulated among members of the group, each of whom would contribute with ideas and identify them with his stamp. The object is to accommodate everyone's view and thereby maintain harmony. Consensus building through informal consultation remains an important process in the Japanese business world. Decisions in an organizational setting tend to evolve in the middle ranks and receive ratification by superiors, perhaps at a formal meeting. This is not a denial of high power distance but it actually protects it, because if the decision turns out to be a mistake, it is impossible to hold a single decision maker responsible, and face is saved.

2.14 Intercultural Business Communication

The key to cross-cultural business understands one’s business partners well enough to make cultural adjustments. This raises the issue as to which side should make the adjustments. A practical rule of thumb is that business transactions should favor the cultural norms of the social infrastructure on which they primarily rely. While Westerners sometime have the impression that business is a self-contained activity, in reality it depends radically on pre-existing cultural mechanisms to get anything done. If business is to tap these resources, it must respect the culture that provides them.

Thus, if a Western multinational firm that operates in Malaysia is negotiating with local firms for construction labor, the Malaysian business style should dominate. Construction is not just a matter of hiring workers. It is a complex undertaking that requires intricate coordination of activities, sourcing of materials, supervision of workers, and hundreds of working relationships among the parties involved. All these will occur according to the norms of the local culture that makes them possible. Conversely, if a Malaysian business is seeking foreign capital from a multinational firm, it must acknowledge that this capital will be raised according to rule-based Western mechanisms that require transparency, accounting standards, detailed contracts, and legal enforcement. The conversation will therefore take place primarily in the Western mode.

The language of conversation is another matter. Cross-cultural business normally takes place in a trade language, regardless of which cultural norms otherwise govern the transaction. The use of trade languages is prehistoric, and bilingualism appears to be nearly as old as language itself. A trade language can either be the language of a dominant or once-dominant power, or a *pidgin* that combines two or more languages but is no one’s native tongue (such as the *lingua franca* that historically served as the trade language of the Mediterranean region). Pidgins become *creoles* when people start speaking them as a native language, a famous example being *Tok Pisin* (“talk pidgin”) of Papua New Guinea. English is currently the leading trade language in most of the world, but regional trade languages include Swahili, Persian, and Mandarin Chinese. The choice of the trading language is normally a matter of convenience, reflecting the competencies of the parties involved. Even when everyone seems conversant in a common language, it may be prudent to use interpreters, because some of the parties may be embarrassed to say they do not understand. It is widely believed that globalization implies cultural homogenization, and that Western-style business is becoming the worldwide standard along with the English language. This judgment is at best premature, however. The world economic order is moving away from Western hegemony toward a multi-polar equilibrium, with such power centers as China, India, South Korea, and Brazil operating alongside North America and Europe. One might therefore expect a renewed tendency toward cultural pluralism, a process that one might call cultural de-globalization. Information technology is widely supposed to hasten homogenization. Yet, it is also a force for cultural de-globalization, because it supports relationship-based communication patterns as readily as Western practices. Mobile phones provide an excellent case in point. Although they were initially popular in Finland, where snowstorms knock down land lines, they quickly spread to Asia, where they fit the culture hand-in-glove. The phones not only enable the constant personal interaction on which relationship-based cultures rely, but they solve the problem of how to provide constant supervision in a mobile age. Parents are on the phone with their children several times a day, even if they are overseas; to monitor their activities and make sure they do their schoolwork. Bosses on a business trip telephone subordinates incessantly to make sure they remain on task. Text messaging and video technology enhance these functions.

The Internet is equally adept at supporting multiple communication practices. Such websites as Face book and My place can facilitate Western-style networking with strangers, but they can equally well support the family and other trust relationships typical of relationship-based cultures. For example, the site orkut.com (introduced by a Turkish employee of Google) allows the user to “connect with friends and family,” according to the masthead, as well as “discover new people through friends of friends.” It is extremely popular in Brazil, where it ably serves a relationship-based culture. Thus despite the globalization of commerce, intercultural communication skills remain important in business, and may become even more so in an increasingly multi-polar world economy.

2.15 Conclusion

This chapter discusses the importance of business communication in its various assets and facets which are the transmission of information within the business environment and it also discussed the importance of effective communication which has greatly contributed to organizational success. The next chapter seeks to report the results of the study and to present the data obtained from the questionnaire.

3.1 Introduction

The purpose of this chapter is to present and analyse the collected data from the questionnaire. The framework and the presentation of the findings rely on the purposes of the study and research questions mentioned earlier in this work. First, background information on the respondents and their workplace which is Wataniya Telecom is given. Then the overall English language needs of the respondents, divided into quantitative and qualitative needs are presented.

3.2 Workplace Profile

Wataniya Telecom Nedjma is an Algerian mobile telephone corporation with its staff, environment and faithful customers. Algeria's third private mobile telephone operator after Djezzy and Mobilis. It counts around 5 million subscribers.

Operator's Name	Wataniya Telecom Nedjma
Network Name	Nedjma
Technology Used	GSM 900/1800

Table 3.1: Wataniya Telecom Algeria Network

3.3 Nedjma's Staff

Nedjma Company is run by Algerian manpower with 98 percent of its staff. It is the Algerian third private mobile operator and counts 1577employees including 23 foreigners. It adopts the strategy of training and transferring experiences from foreign employees to Algerian executives. In this regard, it has trained a large number of Algerian employees instead of bringing foreign manpower.

Staff	Number
Algerian	1577
Foreigners	23

Table 3.2: Wataniya Telecom Nedjma's Staff

3.3.1 Sex and Age

There are 199 men and1401 women in the sample. The age of the respondents is categorized in four age groups (see table 3.3). The age of 30-40 is the biggest with 48% of the respondents. The other groups were quite evenly represented, each having a share of approximately 23% except for the group of 54 which accounted for only 4% of the respondents.

Age	30	30/40	40/50	54
Percent	30%	48%	18%	4%

Table 3.3: The Respondents' Age

3.4 Foreign Contacts

The survey also covers information about the foreign operations of the respondents' workplace. They were asked whether their workplace had foreign contacts and if they had, what were these foreign contacts. The type of foreign contacts gives the broad context in which English is needed.

The respondents reported that their workplace WTN had foreign contacts. When asked about the type of foreign contacts, not all the respondents understood the question in the same way, which was obviously due to the question: "what kinds of foreign contacts does your company have?" Different answers were given. For example, importing mobile apparatus is one of the most often mentioned types of foreign contacts. Furthermore, contacts with sister companies like Tunisiana (Tunisia), Wataniya Telecom Maldives (Maldives) as well as with parent company Wataniya Telecom (Kuwait) are also mentioned.

3.5 Internal Communication

Several of the foreign contacts mentioned by the respondents refer to "in house "overseas contacts, such as contacts between Sister Companies and the Main Company. One of the key strategic decisions in these kinds of contacts is choosing the common language to be used; the corporate language being English which is used for both internal and external communication.

The results of the survey show that English is used in WTN. English is one of the corporate languages in WTN Company. When asked whether English is used in written internal communication such as in writing letters, memos, reports, document analysis, and e-mails, 45% of the respondents reported that it was. However, only 15% of them stated that English was needed in oral internal communication like presentations, meetings, negotiations, telephone conversations, problems solving situations at their workplace.

3.6 Language Attitudes

The notion that workers' attitudes towards the use of a particular foreign language is one of the determinants of achievement and use of the language in the workplace has been stressed and discussed in several previous works. Gardner and Lambert (1972). The great majority of previous studies made use of the concepts of integrativeness and instrumentality which were originally introduced by Gardner and Lambert (1972). An attempt will be made in this section to highlight the attitudes of the workers in question towards English in relation to these two notions: it is hypothesized that the respondents have rather positive attitudes toward English that its use is motivated and enhanced by instrumental rather than integrative factors.

Questions	Algerian Arabic	English
What language is more attractive?	30%	70%
What language is more useful to you in your workplace?	23%	77%
What language do you conduct your work in more quickly?	40%	60%
What language do you prefer to use in your Institution?	33%	67%

Table 3.4: Language Attitudes towards Algerian Arabic and English (WTN)

3.7 Purposes of using Algerian Arabic and English in WTN:

Item	Only Algerian Arabic	Algerian Arabic and English	Only English
For correspondence	0%	70%	30%
For communication with other colleagues	60%	25%	15%
For filling in documents	7%	50%	43%

Table 3.5: Language Use in WTN.

From Table 3.5 we notice that WTN workers need English for a number purposes. The results also show that both languages, Algerian Arabic and English, are used by the respondents for a wide range of activities, though Algerian Arabic appears to be used much more often than English.

However, the use of Algerian Arabic, in general, appears when talking with colleagues in the workplace. This could be due to the fact that all workers are Algerians, they find it easier to communicate in Arabic.

3.8 Quantitative Needs for English

The respondents were asked how often they needed English in their work for speaking, writing and reading Table 3.5 illustrates their answers.

English needs	Frequency
For speaking	always
For writing	sometimes
For reading	rarely

Table 3.6: English Needed for Speaking, Writing and Reading in WTN

This table 3.6 shows that almost half of the workers need English in their work for speaking almost every day. Moreover, the respondents need English at least weekly for writing. The respondents need English for reading almost every day. As a conclusion, approximately half of the respondents need English almost in their daily activities.

3.9 Qualitative Needs for English

Qualitative needs for English are also examined in terms of communicative competence. They contain three broad dimensions: strategic, grammatical and sociolinguistic competence.

The respondents were asked how important they considered the following aspect of communicative competence in their job:

1- The fluency of speech in formal and informal situations which refers to strategic competence.

2- The grammatical accuracy of speech in formal and informal situations, and the grammatical accuracy of formal and informal written documents which refers to grammatical competence.

3-The familiarity with the communication culture of foreign partners which refers to sociolinguistic competence.

3.9.1 The Fluency of Speech in Formal Situations

The respondents can use English with ease and confidence and are equal partners in most formal conversations. They are able to speak with clarity and precision on a wide range of specific topics of limited personal relevance especially in the workplace. They can effectively use tense/aspect frames as well as supporting evidence to discuss or argue in connected, paragraph-length discourse. Their vocabulary use is rich, but mostly generic (except for areas of personal specialization or interest). When asked to perform a more complicated task, for instance to defend an opinion, their linguistic production weakens in quality and they may resort to narration, description, explanation, anecdote and other strategies.

Importance of the Fluency of Speech in Formal Situations	Percentage
Very important	60%
Not very important	40%
Not at all important	0%

Table 3.7 : The Fluency of Speech in Formal Situations

Table3.7 shows that roughly half of the respondents are of the opinion that the fluency of speech in formal situations such as in meetings is very important in their job. 40% of the respondents stated that it is not very important, and no respondent thought that it is not at all important.

3.9.2 Speech Fluency in Informal Situations

The respondents can use English fluently, although with hesitation at times, and are sufficiently clear and accurate in conversations on different topics of personal relevance that go beyond self in most informal situations. Their speech is somewhat fluent, but strained and tentative, typically produced in short paragraphs, with a noticeable use of false cognates, literal translations, and self-corrections. They can use different language functions and time frames, but control of aspect and some grammatical structures is weak at times. They can actually use sentences to produce paragraph length discourse, but when asked to perform higher level functions their production reduces to minimal discourse and it weakens both in quality and quantity.

Importance of Speech Fluency in Informal Situations	Percentage
Very important	30%
Not very important	45%
Not at all important	25%

Table 3.8: Speech Fluency in Informal Situations

Table 3.8 shows that the fluency of speech in informal situations such as telephone conversations is considered very important by 30% of the respondents, and not very important by 45%, and only 25% thought that it is not at all important.

To sum up, the speech fluency is considered slightly more important in formal situations than in informal situations, but the difference is very small. In both situations, the speech fluency is considered important by the majority of the respondents.

3.9.3 Grammatical Accuracy of Speech in Formal Situations

The respondents exhibit more breakdowns and more hesitation as well as some problematic error patterns in delivery, coherence and expression of intended meaning. They fail to maintain an appropriate use of grammar, syntax, and vocabulary. Code-switching, false cognates, literal translations, and other signs of their native language are frequent, and gaps in communication may occur.

Grammatical Accuracy of Speech in Formal Situations	Percentage
Very important	62%
Not very important	38%
Not at all important	0%

Table 3.9: Grammatical Accuracy of Speech in Formal Situations

Table 3.9 shows that roughly half of the respondents are of the opinion that the fluency of speech in formal situation is very important in their job. 38% of the respondents stated that it is not very important, and no respondent thought that it is not important at all.

3.9.4 Grammatical Accuracy of Speech in Informal Situations

The respondent's answers contained many inaccuracies in vocabulary, grammar, and pronunciation as well as long and frequent pauses and self-corrections while searching for adequate lexical and grammatical forms. Their response exhibits frequent breakdowns as well as consistent patterns errors in all skills

Grammatical Accuracy of Speech in Informal Situations	Percentage
Very important	40%
Not very important	50%
Not at all important	10%

Table 3.10: Grammatical Accuracy of Speech in Informal Situations

Table 3.10 shows that 40% of the respondents thought that the grammatical accuracy of speech in informal situations is very important in their job. However, 50% considered it is not very important and 10% stated that it was not important at all.

To sum up, the grammatical accuracy of speech in formal situations is considered important by over half of the respondents 61%, as in informal situations it is considered important by only 39% of the respondents. In other words, the grammatical accuracy of speech is considered clearly more important in formal than in informal situations.

From the results above one notices that the importance of fluency versus accuracy of speech in formal and in formal situations are considered important by the respondents, whereas grammatical accuracy was considered important by the majority of the respondents. The fluency of speech was consequently considered more important than the grammatical accuracy in formal situations. However, the fluency as well as the accuracy were both considered important in formal situations by the majority of the respondents.

A clear majority of the respondents considered the fluency of speech important in informal situations while a minority of them considered grammatical accuracy important in informal situations.

3.9.5 Grammatical Accuracy of Informal Written Documents

Written communication involves any type of interaction that makes use of the written word. It is one of the two major types of communication, along with oral/spoken communication. Written communication is very common in business situations, so it is important for small business owners and managers to develop effective written communication skills. Some of the various forms of written communication that are used internally for business operations include memos, reports, bulletins, job descriptions, employee manuals, and electronic mail. Examples of written communication avenues typically pursued with clients, vendors, and other members of the business community, meanwhile, include electronic mail, Internet Web sites, letters, proposals, telegrams, faxes, postcards, contracts, advertisements, brochures, and news releases.

In order to write effectively, a writer needs some of knowledge which can be summarized as:," a) content knowledge, b) context knowledge, c) language system knowledge, and d) writing process knowledge".

On the other hand, the process of writing encompasses the following features " : a) purpose, b) audience, c) the writer's process, d) content, e) syntax, f) grammar, g) mechanics, h) organization, and i) word choice". (Raimes,1983: 6)

The Grammatical Accuracy of Informal Written Documents	Percentage
Very important	15%
Not very important	70%
Not at all important	15%

Table 3.11: The Grammatical Accuracy of Informal Written Documents

Only 15% of the respondents considered the grammatical accuracy of informal written documents very important for their job. As many as 15% considered it not important at all.

3.9.6 Grammatical Accuracy of Formal Written Documents

The role of grammar in writing is akin to the role of listening and speaking where the two are mutually synergistic. In other words, writing and grammar are inextricably intertwined in as much as of good writing derives its excellence from faultless grammar. This is emphasized in Frodesen and Eyring (2000: 23) who believe that, *"a focus on form (grammar) in composition can help writers develop rich linguistic resources needed to express ideas effectively"*. Based on these views, the researcher deduced that second language writers need to pay attention to form in developing writing proficiency.

Grammatical Accuracy of Formal Written Documents	Percentage
Very important	65%
Not very important	35%
Not at all important	0%

Table 3.12: Grammatical Accuracy of Formal Written Documents

Table 3.12 indicates that 65% of the whole respondents agree that the grammatical accuracy in formal written documents, such as annual reports, was very important for their job, and 35% considered it as not very important.

3.10. Most Common Errors in WTN's Annual Reports

Though grammar, spelling, and punctuation errors abound in our culture and while some grammar rules are changing (such as the ban on starting a sentence with "and"), rules don't always change simply because a multitude of people break them. Some common errors can completely change the meaning of a sentence; others simply make the writer look sloppy. Even a few errors can make the difference between an outstanding presentation and a "No, thank you" from a potential client. We shall present in what follows some errors in WTN's annual reports. But prior to this, we shall give a glimpse of what a report is in this case.

3.10.1 What is an Annual Report

The annual report is a critical document for any organization. Producing a credible annual report which meets the needs of its numerous internal and external audiences is a balancing act. This course will provide a good understanding of what is required to produce an annual report.

Most businesses have to write an annual report, especially public companies. Annual reports are published and then distributed to shareholders. Annual reports help investors learn about the company's growth and future plans. An annual report must be written in a proper format.

3.10.2. Annual Report Main Sections

An annual report has five main sections:

* Letter to shareholders
* Biography of corporate executives
* Financial summary
* Information about the company's operations
* Financial statement and its tables

***Letter to Shareholders**

A letter from the CEO or the President of the Company is also included IN the annual report. The letter is addressed to stock owners or shareholders of the company as illustrated by the sample below:

Dear Shareholders,

The year 2003 was forecast to be a very challenging one for Wataniya Telecom, as your Company implemented its strategy to evolve from being a Kuwait-only mobile communications operation into a regional telecommunications business. Thanks to good planning, hard work and the grace of God, it is my pleasure to report that the year's operational results and regional expansion successes significantly exceeded the Company's business plan objectives, highlighting the commitment and continuous efforts of Wataniya Telecom's Board and Management to enhancing shareholder value. Although the Company's business in Kuwait has started to reach a state of market maturity, a situation that had been anticipated and planned for, Wataniya's investment in three underdeveloped regional telecommunications markets means that the Company today is well positioned to continue to generate significant growth in the years to come.

Since Wataniya Telecom started commercial service in Kuwait a little over four years ago, your Company has focused on providing its customers with good value, reliable mobile communications and high quality customer service, using the latest technology to make this cost effective. As a service business, this has required a significant investment in the recruitment and training of the Company's employees and in the development and deployment of business processes that are designed to be 'customer-centric. Wataniya Telecom's results and regional expansion success are proof of the wisdom of this strategy of investment in people. With over 55 per cent of our employees in Kuwait being Kuwaiti nationals, and the majority of our employees in Tunisia and Iraq being citizens of those countries, this vision of developing local people to manage the business provides for long-term organization stability and shows our commitment to the countries in which we operate.

Following the Company's successful investment in Tunisia's second GSM operator in November of last year, in October 2003 Wataniya Telecom, in partnership with Asia-Cell of Iraq and United Gulf Bank of Bahrain, was awarded a GSM licence for the northern region of Iraq. Once the Company meets its coverage commitments for the northern region, it is entitled to be awarded a national licence for the whole of Iraq. In December 2003, a Wataniya Telecom-led consortium also won a 15-year national GSM licence for Algeria. With a combined population of some 70 million people, and a low penetration of both mobile and fixed-line telecommunications, these three investments provide significant growth opportunities for the years to come.

With its strong financial position and experienced management, Wataniya Telecom has in four years become established within the MENA (Middle East and North Africa) region as a respected mobile telecommunications service provider.

Your Company today has the critical mass and regional focus to leverage its knowledge and economy of scale to successfully deploy mobile communications services that offer its customers good value and excellent customer service, and its shareholders a profitable investment with good on-going growth potential.

D. R. M

General Manager & CEO

***Biography**

This section contains a brief biography of the company's officers. Not only information but a picture of each member is also included of each of the individuals. No matter what, the information reflected should be positive so as to gain the trust of shareholders. Let's look at the sample below.

***Financial Summary**

This includes the financial figures for the year such as net income, total revenue, expenses and per share earnings. This is just a snapshot as details are provided in the financial statement tables. This summary should also contain figures for at least the past two years. Look to the sample below:

Note KD 000's KD 000's

National Mobile Telecommunications Company K.S.C. & Subsidiaries

Consolidated Financial Statements As at December 31, 2003

Current assets Note KD 000's KD 000's

Cash and cash equivalents

Investments held for trading 3 56,612 24,725

7,972 4,195

Inventories 4 28,582 11,646

94,622 41,766

Total current assets 5 13,379 10,537

247,031 216,051

Non-current assets 6 94,260 57,530

Non trading investments 7 137,440 147,984

Property and equipment 9 71,746 37,882

Intangible assets

Deferred tax relating to subsidiary 8 1,952 -

Total non-current assets **247,031 216,051**

Total assets **341,653 257,817**

Liabilities, Minority Interest and

Shareholders' Equity

Current liabilities

Trade and other payables 9 71,746 37,882

Due to banks

Current portion of long-term debt 10 90,679 6,059

745 15,446

Obligations under finance lease 11 10,000

Other current liabilities 12 12,566

12 12,566 -

Total current liabilities **186,096 46,210**

F. H. A

Chairman

*** Company's Operations**:

This section is about the company which is accompanied by pictures so that the annual report looks interesting. Business conditions, marketing plans, market research, and restructuring of the organization are included in operations.

Kuwait & Algeria

***Financial statements**:

This gives detailed information about the financial situation. It included detailed information of earnings per share, net income, expenses, revenues etc as stated in the sample below.

SIGNIFICANT ACCOUNTING POLICIES

Basis of preparation

These consolidated financial statements have been prepared on the historical cost basis, except for the measurement at fair value of "available for sale financial assets". The accounting policies have been applied consistently by the Group and are consistent with those used in the previous year except for the adoption of the new and revised standards as discussed in note 2. These consolidated financial statements are presented in Kuwaiti Dinars ("KD"), which is the Parent Company's functional and presentation currency, rounded off to the nearest thousand.

3.11 Most Common Errors in the Annual Reports of Wataniya Telecom Nedjma

The primacy of English in the global arena is attributable to the fact that it is the language through which international trade and diplomacy are conducted, scientific and technological breakthroughs are highlighted, news and information are disseminated, and as a communicative tool, English functions as a mediator between different socio-cultural and socio-economic paradigms Crystal (1997). To surmise, its multi faceted role enables English to transcend cultural, social and economic barriers as the medium through which achievements and innovations in the arts, commerce and technology are highlighted.

Essentially language functions as the system of human communication which according to Richards, Platt and Platt (1992: 283), *"consists of different units, such as morphemes, words, sentences, and utterances"*. Crystal (1992: 212) on the other hand views language as," an act of speaking or writing in a given situation." This spoken or written form of language is referred to as, *"parole or performance whereas the linguistic system underlying one's use of speech or writing is referred to as competence*"**.**

Of the four skills in English, writing is considered to be the most complex and difficult skill to master. This difficulty, according to Richards and Renandya (2002: 303), " *lies not only in generating and organizing of ideas but also in translating these ideas into readable texts"*.

The important role ascribed to writing is manifested in the status accorded to it in differing situations within the teaching and learning environment. For instance, writing serves as an important tool in assessing proficiency as attested by its inclusion in the form of writing tests in major examinations such as the TOEFL and IELTS writing sub-test. Beyond the realms of assessment, the skill of writing is an essential feature of materials development (Cumming, 1997). In academia, the skill of writing is visible in conference presentations, journals and book publication through which the transmission of new ideas and concepts are affected.

As it is an important productive skill through which thoughts and ideas are disseminated, it is incumbent for instructors of writing in different educational environments to exploit the many different methods, approaches, and techniques that can serve to produce better writers. Though over the preceding decades, the process approach to teaching writing has greatly improved L1 and L2 composition pedagogy especially in terms of creativity and organization. However, these advances have been compromised through the generation of written products containing grammatical and lexical inaccuracies, which often frustrate and distract readers James (1998: 155). Hence, grammatical accuracy in writing is an issue of concern especially among WTN's workers. A number of studies Jonopolous, (1992) explain that a lack of grammatical accuracy in writing may impede progress. Therefore, it is imperative that learners be sensitized to such errors and be trained to apply the appropriate approaches to rectify them. Ferries (1994) proposes an editing approach in which learners need to edit their own work while Bates, Lane, and Lange (1993) advocate teaching students the discovery approach through which they will become independent and critical self-editors.

The lack of access to the complex cognitive processes that underpin writing has compelled most researchers to use alternative approaches to diagnose difficulties associated with language learning. One such approach is error analysis in which the output generated by learners is analyzed for errors through which the underlying identified and the frequency of error is deemed proportional to the degree of learning difficulty. As defined by Ellis (2004: 296), the effort expended in "systematically collecting, analyzing and categorizing errors is known as error analysis (EA)".

The reasons behind errors are manifold. Cooper (1977: 12) believes that," language deviations are not random but systematic and reflect an implicit hypothesis to the nature of language being learned". Abbott (1980) opined that the reasons for making errors are many. Errors are very significant to Corder (1973: 27) as he felt that," errors are indication of learning taking place". Moreover, he regarded "errors as a device a learner uses to learn through testing his hypothesis about the new system" Corder, (1976: 56). The most common errors in the annual reports of WTN are presented in the table3.12.

Original Text	Type of Errors	Corrected Text
During the period the Group has adopted the following standards for the annual periods beginning on or after 1st January 2009.	Missing comma after an introductory element**.**	During the period, the Group has adopted the following standards for the annual periods beginning on or after 1st January 2009.
Trade and other payables Short term debt Long term debt and other noncurrent liability are classified as financial liabilities.	Missing comma in series.	Trade and other payables, Short term debt, Long term debt and other noncurrent liability are classified as financial liabilities.
The long term debt is secured by pledges on the respective subsidiaries and joins the ventures assets and their equity shares.	Missing or misplaced possessive apostrophe.	The long term debt is secured by pledges on the respective subsidiaries and joins the venture's assets and their equity shares.
During the period, the Group revised the useful life of civil works.	Wrong tense or verb form.	During the period, the Group has revised the useful life of civil works
The increase in useful life has been based on management's best estimate and has been accounted as changes in an accounting estimate.	Lack of subject verb agreement.	The increase in useful life has been based on management's best estimate and has been accounted as changes in an accounting estimate

During the period, the Parent Company recorded an impairment loss of KD 2,201 thousand against the goodwill relating to two of its subsidiaries based on the Parent Company's management's assessment of the performance of this subsidiaries.	Lack of agreement between pronoun and antecedent.	During the period, the Parent Company recorded an impairment loss of KD 2,201 thousand against the goodwill relating to two of its subsidiaries based on the Parent Company 's management's assessment of the performance of these subsidiaries
Its shares listed on the Kuwait stock exchange in July 1999 and commercial operations began on December 1999.	Its and it's confusion	Its shares listed on the Kuwait stock exchange in July 1999 and commercial operations began on December 1999.

3.13: Most common errors in the Annual Reports of Wataniya Telecom (Nedjma)

3.12 Grammatical Errors in Writing of WTN's Annual Reports

This term refers to the use of a linguistic item (a word, a grammatical item, a speech act, etc.) in a way a native speaker regards as showing faulty or incomplete learning. It happens due to the incomplete knowledge of the learner (Richards et al. 1992: 127).

They include errors of morphology**,** handling word structure such as singular –s, plural –s, - ed, and –ing, and errors of syntax**,** handling structures larger than the word, namely phrase, clause, and sentence (James, 1998: 154-6).

The role of grammar as an important variable, which can affect writing, has been espoused by several researchers. For instance, Frodesen and Eyring (2000: 233) emphasize that," *a focus on form in composition can help writers develop rich* *linguistic resources needed to express ideas effectively in addition to providing assistance in error correction*".

Such views regarding the role of grammar directed the researcher to examine the relationship between writing competence and grammatical competence amongst Iranian learners.

3.12.1 Missing Commas after an Introductory Element

Many sentences begin with one or more introductory elements—clauses, phrases, or single words that lead into the main body of the sentence. To show where an introductory element ends and the main part of the sentence begins (thus helping the readers move more easily through the sentence), insert a comma after the introductory element. If the sentence includes multiple introductory elements, use a comma after each one.

3.12.2. Wrong Tense or Verb Form

A verb must clearly show when a condition or action is, was, or will be completed.

The verb is one of the most important grammatical categories and one which is seemingly universal. In grammar, verbs are distinguished by the fact that each verb typically requires the presence in its sentence of a specified set of Noun Phrase (NP) argument. Verbs serve as the locus of marking for tense, and often also for aspect, mood and agreement in person and number with subjects (Trask, 1993: 297).

3.12.3 Unnecessary Shift in Pronoun

When you use a pronoun reference in a sentence, make sure that you use the same pronoun for all subsequent references in the sentence. The most common example of pronoun shifting is the shift between one and me, you, or us.

3.12.4. Lack of Subject–Verb Agreement and Pronoun –Antecedent

The verb form used in a sentence may vary depending on whether the subject is singular or plural and whether the sentence is written in first-, second-or third person. When you are looking for subject–verb agreement errors, be mindful that the noun closest to the verb may not be the subject.

When “you” is used as a pronoun (such as you, him, her, their, it) in place of the noun to which it refers (called the pronoun’s antecedent), make sure the pronoun agrees with its antecedent in both gender and number.

3.12.5. Missing Comma(s) in a Series

To avoid potential sentence misreading, always insert a comma between the last two items in a three-or-more-item list.

3.12.6. Missing or Misplaced Possessive Apostrophe

Possessive nouns (nouns that indicate possession of something else) generally have an apostrophe-s ending if singular (e.g. accountant’s or Davis’s) or just an apostrophe if plural (e.g. accountants’ or Davises’). Possessive personal pronouns (hers, his, ours, theirs, yours, its), however, do not take apostrophes.

3.12.7 Its/It’s Confusion

“Its” indicates possession; “it’s” is a contracted form of “it is”. “Its” and “It’s” are two different forms. The former is a possessive, meaning it shows that one thing belongs to another. The latter is a shortened form of “it is.” Incidentally, contractions, such as it’s, they’re, and I’d, are perfectly fine for informal writing and are becoming more acceptable in formal writing. To be cautious, however, you may want to write out the longer form of what you want to say.

3.13 Familiarity with the Culture of Foreign Partners

Before entering a new market, it is important to understand how culture can affect your business. For instance, in Muslim countries, social norms require people to insist that they would not drink alcoholic beverages. In actuality, alcoholic beverages are popular in some areas of the Muslim countries.

International business is different from national business because countries and societies are different. Societies differ because their cultures vary. Their cultures vary because of profound differences in social structure, religion, language, education, economic philosophy, and political philosophy. Two important implications for international business flow from these differences. The first is the need to develop cross-cultural understanding. There is a need to appreciate not only that cultural differences exist but also to appreciate what such differences mean for international business. A second implication for international business centers on the connection between culture and national competitive advantage.

Familiarity with the Culture of Foreign Partners	Percentage
Very important	60%
Not very important	40%

Table 3.14: Familiarity with the Culture of Foreign Partners

Table 3.14 indicates that 60% of the respondents considered the familiarity with the communication culture of the foreign partner as very important, and40% stated that it was not very important and no respondent thought it was not important at all.

Culture sets the parameters for how and what a party communicates in a given transaction. Familiarity with a given culture can determine the success or failure of communication; you must anticipate how the other party will respond to your message. By grasping the fundamental dynamics of a given culture, you improve the odds of acceptance and understanding, cementing a working relationship and furthering productivity and prosperity between the two parties.

3.14 Challenges in Using English in Professional Context

In workplace communication, with friends, strangers, etc. there are unwritten rules that are followed when speaking English. These unwritten rules are often referred to as "register use" or workplace communication skills when referring to employment. Good workplace communication skills use can help you communicate effectively. Incorrect workplace communication can cause problems at work, cause people to ignore you, or, at best, send the wrong message. Of course, correct workplace communication is very difficult for many learners of English. This feature focuses on different situations and the correct type of register use in various situations. However, in order to communicate well in English, it is important to master the basics of correctness for workplace communications and register use.

Most Challenging Areas to Use English at WTN Workplace	Percentage
Telephone conversations	40%
Presentations.	55%
Writing.	60%
Speaking.	44%
Communicating with non native speakers of English.	75%
Communicating with native speakers of English.	66%

Table 3.15: Most Challenging Areas to Use English at WTN Workplace

Table 3.15 shows that various kinds of telephone conversations with native and non natives are considered challenging in their job. It is noted that different dialects make communicating on the phone in English more difficult. The respondents remarked that quick reacting on the phone and unexpected calls can be challenging situations in terms of English language use.

Presentations are considered challenging because of nervousness or lack of confidence in performing in English. Furthermore, it is noted that when performing in one's mother tongue, it is easier to sidestep difficult questions with more extensive vocabulary than when performing in English.

Different types of writing were considered challenging by 60% of the respondents. Several types of writings were mentioned, including formal documents and messages, letters, bulletins and answering emails.

Speaking English in different kinds of situations is stated to be challenging by 44% of the respondents. Speaking situations including conversations and unexpected speaking situations are mentioned by the respondents. Few respondents reported that they did not consider any tasks challenging in terms of English language use in their work.

Communicating with non –natives is one of the most challenging situations in terms of English language use in the respondents' job. They pointed out that when the interlocutor also is non- native, the accent, the lack of language proficiency and cultural differences can make mutual understanding difficult. Moreover, communicating with natives is considered challenging by 66% of the respondents. They explained that it could be difficult because natives may have strong accents or different dialects, which can be difficult to understand.

3.15 Conclusion

The findings of the study indicate that the English language is used extensively at the workplace and plays an important role in WTN workplace. The findings also indicate that the receptive skill (e.g. reading) was perceived as less important than the productive skills (speaking and writing). The findings oin this study can provide syllabus designers with the selection, gradation, and sequencing the material for teaching grammatical items. The next chapter will discuss English language training at WTN.

4.1 Introduction

In this chapter, the respondents are asked whether they are offered English language trainings at Wataniya Telecom Nedjma. The training needs are studied by type of work. Then, they are asked about their wants.

4.2 The Importance of Training and Development

Training is crucial for organizational development and success. It is fruitful to both employers and employees in a company. An employee will become more efficient and productive if he is adequately trained. Training is given on four basic grounds.

New candidates who join an organization are offered training. This training familiarizes them with the organizational mission, vision, rules and regulations and the working conditions. The existing employees are trained to refresh and enhance their knowledge.

If any updations and amendments take place in technology, training is given to cope up with those changes. For instance, purchasing a new equipment, changes in technique of production, computer implantment. The employees are trained about the use of new equipments and work methods. Training is given so that employees will be prepared to share the responsibilities of the higher job levels.

The benefits of training can be summed up as:

*** Improves morale of employees-** Training helps the employee to get job security and job satisfaction. The more satisfied the employee is the greater is morale and the more he will contribute to organizational success and the lesser will be employee absenteeism and turnover.

***Less supervision-** A well trained employee will be well acquainted with the job and will need less supervision. Thus, there will be less wast of time and efforts.

***Fewer accidents-** Errors are likely to occur if the employees lack knowledge and skills required for doing a particular job. The more trained an employee is, the less are the chances of committing accidents at work and the more proficient the employee becomes.

***Chances of promotion-** Employees acquire skills and efficiency during training. They become more eligible for promotion. They become an asset for the organization.

***Increased productivity-** Training improves employees efficiency and productivity. Well trained employees show both quantity and quality performance. There will be less waste of time, money and resources if employees are properly trained.

Every organization needs to have well trained and experienced people to perform the activities that have to be done. This is the most important aspect of Human Resource Management. It is widely known that Human Resource Management helps people to expand their capabilities and offer numerous opportunities. It is also felt that the expanded capabilities and opportunity for people at work will lead directly to improvement in operating effectiveness.

The human resources approach means that better people achieve better results. So if the current or potential job occupant can meet this requirement, *training* is not important. But when this is not the case, it is necessary to raise the skill levels and increase the versatility and adaptability of employees. Inadequate job performance or a decline in productivity or changes resulting out of job redesigning or a technological break –through require some type of training and development effort. As the jobs become more complex, the importance of employee development through training also increases.

In a rapidly changing society, employees *training* and *development* is not only an activity that is desirable but also an activity that an organization must commit resources to if, it is to maintain a viable and knowledgeable work force. The technological advancement is taking place at such a rapid speed that the knowledge and skills required become obsolete at a much faster rate. In order to cope up with the fast changes in requirement of skills and knowledge due to advancement of technology the need for systematic *training* has been felt necessary in almost all organizations.

Having selected the most suitable persons for various jobs in the organization through the application of scientific techniques, the next function of personnel management is to arrange for their *training*. All types of jobs in the organization usually require some type of *training* for their efficient performance. The employees' talent is not fully productive without a systematic *training* program. Moreover, a big company hires a large number of young people every year. Because the vast majority of these do not know how to perform the jobs assigned to them in work at some college or institution, must receive some initial training in the form of orientation to the policies, practices and ways of their employing organization.

4.3 English language Training at Wataniya Telecom Nedjma

More than half of the respondents (75%) reported that they were offered English language training at their current workplace. Training of employees takes place after orientation has been achieved. Training is the process of enhancing the skills, capabilities and knowledge of employees for doing a particular job. The training process moulds the thinking of employees and leads to their quality performance. It is continuous and never ending in nature.

4.4 The relationship between Training and Worker Performance

Not all workplace misunderstandings are due to poor English skills of some workers. Problems may arise from diverse causes such as poor organization of six workflow; poor supervision and poorly written workplace materials -- e.g., signs, manuals, and memos (Westerfield & Burt, 1996). On a larger level, worker productivity deficits may be due to the way the workplace itself is structured.

For example, the use of technology, labor-management relations, and compensation offered may also affect worker performance. Basic skills or English language training will not improv these issues (Sarmiento & Schurman, 1992).

Even in situations where worker improvement is noticed, it may not necessarily be due solely to the workplace training, or at least it is difficult to prove this. An analysis of a database developed by the American Society of Training and Development (ASTD) to explore the connection between employer investments in training and company performance concluded that, although firms that invested more in training seemed to be more productive than those that did not, it was difficult to tie this higher performance directly to the training offered (Bassi, et al., 2000; 2001). In any case, those involved in workplace training report that when there is little or no opportunity provided for the worker to use the new learning (whether related to language or behavior), it will not be retained (Kavanaugh, 1999; Pierce, 2001; Sarmiento & Schurman, 1992).

4.5 Functions of in-Company Language Training Courses

In-company language courses are used by firms for more purposes than simply improving the skills of employees. They can be a component of the social package, administered at the discretion of employees themselves, in preference over season tickets to the gym or a series of spa treatments. They can be a means of retaining good employees, who agree to remain in the company for a specified period of time in return for such investment.

They could be internal marketing tools included in company mission – the company that cares for its employees' lifelong learning will easily be seen as a Socially Responsible Corporation. Language courses benefit both parties as they tend to be relatively cheaper than professional training.

4.6 Characteristic Features of an ESP Course

4.6.1 Organizing the Course

Organizing the ESP course is a very important step to achieve a satisfying goal by the end of the course. There exist many factors playing a crucial role in organizing an ESP course without which the learning process would not lead to effectiveness (production and productivity).

The term ´specific´ in ESP refers to a specific purpose for which English is

learnt and the teacher should be familiar with. He or she should be able to find an answer to what Hutchinson and Waters (1992) call as ´language description´. The ´language description´ involves questions, e.g. ´What topic areas will need to be covered?´ ´What does the student need to learn? ´ ´What aspects of language will be needed and how will they are described? ´ (Hutchinson and Waters, 1992: 19, 22). Finding the right answers to these questions results from setting the exact goals and objectives of the course.

Designing a syllabus boils down to ´what´ the course is going to be about. Setting goals and objectives of the course in advance becomes inevitable.

Another feature in organizing a course underlines the way the learning is achieved. Hutchinson and Waters (1992) refer to "*´learning theory´ which provides the theoretical basis for the methodology, by helping us to understand how people learn*". (Hutchinson and Waters, 1992: 23). It is natural that learning strategies vary and correspond to learners´ groups, their age, level or reason of study. The way adults acquire language is different from children, the group of advanced learners expects different attitudes from beginners and teachers determine which aspects of ESP learning will be focused on to meet learners´ needs and expectations successfully.

Hutchinson and Waters (1992) point out to another aspect affecting the ESP course as well. It relates to learner´s surrounding and it discusses the questions of ´who´, ´why´,

´where´ and ´when´ connected with the nature of a particular target and learning situation.

They describe them as ´needs analysis´. To organize the ESP course effectively and consequently achieve a satisfactory goal, having respect for all three factors is evident.

4.6.2 Selecting the Material

Choosing ESP materials determines the running of the course and underlines the content of the lesson. Good material should help the teacher in organizing the course or what more, it can function as an introduction to the new learning techniques, and support teachers and learners in the process of learning. Materials are also a kind of teacher reflection, "*………they should truly reflect what you think and feel about the learning process*". (Hutchinson and Waters, 1992, p 107).

Good materials should be based on various interesting texts and activities that trigger of various skills providing a wide range of skills. Teachers determine which aspects of ESP learning will be focused on but one piece of material can serve for developing more than one skill, e.g. reading, listening, etc. "Teaching materials are tools that can be figuratively cut up into component pieces and then rearranged to suit the needs, abilities, and interests of the students in the course. "(Graves, 1999, p 27).

Teachers should be aware of the fact that if the materials is suitable not only for a particular discipline and answers given course objectives but also for teachers and learners themselves. Materials should also function as a link between already learnt (´existing knowledge´) and new information. (Hutchinson and Waters, 1992).

Concerning the selection of ´General English´ materials and ´ESP´ materials, some criteria must be met as well. The language teacher is responsible for selecting an appropriate text that contributes to students´ effectiveness. This means that he or she should pay attention to suitable criteria for his/her choice. Wallace (1992, 9.1) suggests the main criteria below:

*Adequacy - should be at the appropriate language, age level.

*Motivation - should present a content which is interesting and motivating for students work. It goads into students effectiveness, interest and pleasure of work.

* Sequence - it is important if there is some relation to previous texts, activities, topics not to miss the lesson's sense.

* Diversity - should lead to a range of classroom activities, be a vehicle for teaching specific language structure and vocabulary and promote reading strategies.

* Acceptability - should accept different cultural customs or taboos. Selecting an appropriate material regarding the main criteria is an essential phase in organizing a course. It may happen that learners´ needs and expectations are not met due to the wrong choice of material. "Materials provide a stimulus to learning. Good materials do not teach: they encourage learners to learn.“ (Hutchinson and Waters, 1992, p 107).

4.6.3 Types of Activities with Text

A text as a learning materials can be used for learning and practising a wide range of skills. In an ESP course, it can be a source for new vocabulary, communicative or reading skills. To make working with a text as effective as possible it is necessary to put in work all students´ skills. It is preferable to combine working on a printed text with listening to audio-cassette or video-cassette that means receptive with productive activities. Concerning the ESP activities it is necessary to keep in mind the context that should be consistent with studying the subject matter.

We can use various types of plays, puzzles, collocation grids, questionnaires etc. to increase students´ interests in a given topic and lead them into further problems raising issues. It is a kind of a preparation step. Wallace (1992) considers the pre-reading activity as very important for students' motivation; a topic or genre of the text is introduced with collective discussion or some pictures to be fully motivated. (Wallace, 1992, 62). We see warming-up activities as a very important and necessary phase on which the next working process depends.

Receptive activities - work with a text itself, reading, listening. We can realize various reading strategies; e.g. aloud, quiet, skimming, scanning, with or without translation and informative. They should lead to the encouragement of students. We can distinguish language-based approaches (e.g. jigsaw reading, gap-filling) or approaches relating to content of the text. Both of them should lead students to be as much active and reflexive as possible. The summarization of lesson that should be done by students, it shows how students understand a given topic.

Follow-up activities - next improving, developing, appropriate using of learnt. We can practice it in a form of creative homework, exercises. Harmer (1991) draws that a large scale of skills and activities can be developed e.g. drawing characters, making discussion, creating some pictures, dramatic activities etc.

(Harmer, 1991, p 188).

4.7 The Role of the Teacher in an ESP Lesson

4.7.1 The ´ESP´ Teacher versus the ‘General English´ Teacher

It is difficult to delimitate where ´General English´ and ESP start and end. It is the same with the role of the teacher in those two courses. The aim of the ESP teacher is not only to meet the learners´ specific needs in the field of particular discipline but also to provide a satisfying learning background (Designing course, setting goals and objectives, selecting materials, etc.) as mentioned above.

Studying the subject matter in English is in the centre of students´ attention not the language itself how it is in ´General English´ course that is why the concept of an ESP course is adapted to students´ needs. On the other hand an“ESP teacher should not become a teacher of the subject matter, but rather an interested student of the subject of the subject matter. “(Hutchinson and Waters, 1992, p 163).

Hutchinson and Waters (1992) stress that distinguish the ´ESP´ and the ´General English´ teacher. Beside the typical duties of a classroom teacher, the ESP teacher “deals with needs analysis, syllabus design, materials writing or adaption and evaluation, “they see the “ESP teacher´s role in one of many parts. “ (Hutchinson and Waters, 1992, p 157).

In general, the positive attitude to ESP content, learners and previous knowledge of the subject area is required. (Hutchinson and Waters, 1992, p 163).

4.7.2. Dudley Evans Theory of ESP Practitioner

Tony Dudley Evans and St John (1998) define five key roles for the ESP practitioner: teacher, collaborator, course designer and materials provider, researcher and evaluator. The role of the ´teacher´ is in fact the same as a role of ´ the General English´ teacher. The role of ´the collaborator´ is connected with working (collaborating) with specialists to meet the specific learners´ needs. The aim of the role of ´ a course designer´ and ´materials provider´ is the same in both ESP and ´General English´ courses i.e. to provide the most suitable materials in the lesson to achieve set goals. The role of ´evaluator´ is very important in the whole learning process. It is necessary to inform students about their progress in their language learning process that is why giving feedback is an inevitable part of each activity (Laurence Anthony, 2007).

4.7.3 Creating a Learning Environment – Motivation:

Creating a positive learning atmosphere in the classroom is a primary step for achieving set objectives and goals. It makes teaching and learning more pleasant for both sides of the process, for a teacher and a learner, and it supports students in their work.

Creating a positive learning atmosphere is closely linked to motivation. Motivation is an important and a necessary part of students´ work that affects their future success or failure. It is a kind of inner motor that encourages us to do our best to achieve a satisfactory goal in our activity. Harmer describes motivation as “*some kind* *of internal drive that encourages somebody to pursue a course of action*“ (Harmer, 1991, 14). The role of motivation during each activity is inevitable. Students should be motivated as much as possible to enjoy the activity and achieve its real aim.

“*Motivation makes teaching and learning immeasurably easier and more pleasant, as well as more productive*”. (Ur, 1996, p 274).

Motivation to learn can be affected by various factors around students. The teacher is probably the major factor in a process of motivation. He or she has a primary role in the continuance of students´ motivation. His or her enthusiasm and interest in the subject matter are considered to be highly motivated features for students. Students are definitely influenced by the way of speaking, explaining and teachers attitude to them so the method of learning is another important factor in motivation. It has a close connection with an attractive way of lesson presentation. Others factors that influence motivation may be the general attitude to the subject matter or the influence of people close to them.

Concerning the ESP course, positive attitude to the subject matter is more than evident and there is no prior need to develop students´ positive attitude to the subject matter that was already developed by previous knowledge and interest in studying subject, but to make students familiar with particular ways of using English. That is why English should not be presented as a subject matter of learning, but in the context with learners´ needs and knowledge. The way of presenting the content of the course through English is an important motivating step for ESP students. Lack of motivation may lead to lack of the students’ interests in studying the subject. That is why a teacher should be careful about the choice of ESP materials and activities in the lesson and about organizing the course in general. “Students will acquire English as they work with materials which they find interesting and relevant and which they can use in their professional work or further studies. “ (Fiorito, 2007).

A good selecting of materials, the teacher´s way of presenting the content of the course with regard to context and students´ evaluation are considered to be the most motivating factors in the process of the ESP approach learning. *"Successful language learning and teaching lies not in the analysis of the nature of language but in understanding the structure and process of the mind. "(Hutchinson and Waters, 1992, p 39).*

4.7.4. Evaluation

Evaluation of students´ work, teachers´ work or course evaluation are the necessary parts of any learning and teaching process. Evaluation is not only a motivating factor but it also shows students´ progress or effectiveness in the course, or one can disclose possible inadequacies that are not successfully covered. It helps the teacher provide information on whether he or she has done a good job or not.

Evaluation can be performed on various ways which address to what we in fact evaluate. Hutchinson and Waters (1992) stress two prominent levels of evaluation:

´learner assessment´ and ´course evaluation´. (p 144)

There exist many types of tests, questionnaires, tasks or the evaluation can be

done in form of talk (discussions, interviews). The test is perhaps the best way for

learner assessment. The teacher finds if the content of the course meets the learner´s expectation and whether the learner is able to dispose with the new information and apply learnt skills in a particular situation. "This assessment takes on a greater importance in ESP, because ESP is concerned with the ability to perform particular communicative tasks." (Hutchinson and Waters, 1992, p 144).

Course evaluation in the same way as learner evaluation, helps to assess whether the characteristic features of designing the course were met. "*In course evaluation we need to involve all those who share the learning process in making the ESP course as*

satisfying to the parties as possible"(Hutchinson and Waters, 1992, p 156).

There is no prior time for doing evaluation. It depends on the course running itself and an individual situation but it is important to be aware of giving feedback.

4.8 Abilities Required for Successful Communication in Occupational Settings

Cummins (1979) theorized a dichotomy between basic interpersonal communication skills (BICS) and cognitive academic language proficiency (CALP). The former refers to the language skills used in the everyday informal language used with friends, family and co-workers. The latter refers to a language proficiency required to make sense of and use academic language. Situations in which individuals use BICS are characterized by contexts that provide relatively easy access to meaning. However, CALP use occurs in contexts that offer fewer contextual clues.

After having developed and taught the curriculum for Language Preparation for Employment in medical Sciences, I have reached the conclusion that there are three abilities which are necessary for successful communication in a professional target setting. I have added a third skill or ability to Cummins' theory in order to complete the ESP picture.

The first ability required in order to successfully communicate in an occupational setting is the ability to use the particular jargon characteristic of that specific occupational context. The second is the ability to use a more generalized set of academic skills, such as conducting research and responding to memoranda. With the health science group, this was largely related to understanding a new culture. The third is the ability to use the language of everyday informal talk to communicate effectively, regardless of occupational context. Examples of this include chatting over coffee with a colleague or responding to an informal email message.

The task for the ESP developer is to ensure that all three of these abilities are integrated in the curriculum. This is a difficult task due to the incredible amount of research required. Close collaboration between content experts and the curriculum developer was not possible during the development stages for the health science curriculum. In retrospect, the experience and knowledge of health science faculty would have lessened the workload in this area tremendously. Fortunately, there does exist a wealth of information on academic and general language skills. The trick involved in the interweaving process is to develop a model that best integrates the restricted repertoire with the academic and general for the learners in question.

4.9 Workers Wants

In asking the workers about their wants (what kind of English language training courses would they like to be enrolled in) they reported the answers indicates in Table 4.1 below. A closer examination of table 4.1 reveals that the assertion that the workers are quite aware of their wants is a valid one. For example, the great majority of workers believe that increasing their corpus of specialized lexical items and technical terms, improving writing, speaking and listening skills should be given more attention and emphasis in designing any training courses for them.

Comparing the percentage scores of the workers across their wants, we notice that they are still differentiated from one another by their responses to the included items. For example, only 54% of the workers want to increase their corpus of specialized lexical items and technical terms and 49% of workers wanted to improve their writing skills where more than 75% wanted to improve their speaking skills.

Item	Workers' answers %
To increase my corpus of specialized lexical terms and technical terms.	54%
To learn grammar.	2%
To improve writing skills.	49%
To improve reading skills.	37%
To improve listening skills.	23%
To improve speaking skills.	73%

Table 4.1: Workers' Wants by Types of Work

4.10 Annual Wataniya Telecom Scholarship Programme

As the second Annual Wataniya Telecom Scholarship Programme, Wataniya gives its employees the opportunity to finish their undergraduate or graduate studies in accredited universities while remaining employed with reduced working hours to accommodate their studies and work responsibilities.

The program is an annual program that includes ten employees per year and lasts for up to four years.

Wataniya believes strongly in its core asset - its people. This falls under the employee strategy "A Better You Simply Means a Better us" that provides value-added HR resources to employees, career patching and opportunities development within a performance driven culture.

Scott Gegenheimer GM & CEO of Wataniya Telecom said:

"*It is very important for us to invest in building the skills of our employees because they are a major asset behind Wataniya's successes and the driving force in maintaining Wataniya's position as the provider of unique and innovative services. Competencies and we are always there to support them.*"

Employees, who were granted the scholarship in 2008, successfully continue to study on their program: two employees are currently studying in Bahrain while others study in Kuwait. Selected employees study in different fields as for Master or undergraduate degrees such as MBA, Computer Science, Information Technology, Business and Marketing, Business Administration.

Wataniya's initiative in granting its employees a scholarship keeps it in the lead as a Kuwaiti company that constantly strives to provide the best for its community and its people.

4.11 Recommendations and Directions for Further Research

The following suggestions and recommendations can be incorporated in any English as a foreign language course for business purposes.

This study suggests that the English language is used extensively in the business field in EFL and lingua franca contexts. It plays a crucial role as the main tool of communication to conduct a variety of different activities. Therefore, the criteria to define English language courses for business purposes should be based on the target communicative situations representing the communicative use of language rather than formal linguistic categories representing the grammatical rules of language.

Though this study suggests that receptive skills are perceived as more important than productive skills in a wide range of activities in the business field, it is hard to recommend that English courses for business purposes should emphasize reading and listening skills over writing and speaking skills because the differences in percentages between receptive and productive skills are very close. Further research in this regard is needed to support such claim.

Complementary courses in English for business purposes should be available on an ongoing basis in workplaces which feel that their college preparation was not adequate. Finally, this study has provided empirical data on a certain group of learners who belong to the business profession. Though the aim is to have a clear picture of their English language business needs to enhance the English language courses at the college level, the picture does not yet cover the entire wide spectrum of the ESP process. The following recommendations may facilitate further recommended areas of research in order to obtain a more comprehensive view of the wide spectrum of the ESP field.

This study identified the English language communicative needs as perceived by a certain group of learners at the workplace. However, it is important to investigate the same needs as perceived by current students and their instructors to see how these perceptions reconcile with the findings of this study.

If this study is used as an input in selecting text materials and teaching methods for business students, an evaluation study ought to be carried out to test how the new courses meet the intended communicative needs.

A related research project in this regard is to investigate the required English language skills of ESP teachers to determine the needed level of qualifications to teach ESP courses in terms of how much specialized knowledge teachers need and how they get it.

Further research is needed in regard to the importance of receptive skills versus productive skills in the business field.

This study provided information regarding the specific language situation in the business field in Algeria. Since this environment presents a lingua franca, it would be interesting to investigate how interaction unfolds at the micro level. To what extent is the English language used in the careers of WTN professionals in Mostaganem area?

The respondents were asked about their perceived percentage of using English in the workplace and about their perceived importance of having a high level of English proficiency to perform the job. With regard to language use situations, the respondents were asked about using English in business training and using English with English speaking coworkers.

Most respondents reported that they used English regularly to communicate at the workplace. It is obvious that the English language plays an important role in their professional life. Therefore, this difference in the amount of English used by business professionals should be reflected in language courses at the college level.

The extent of English language use is also reflected in the respondents' business training courses. In this highly specialized situation, the respondents who indicated that they took business training courses expressed that English is the only language used in these courses. This indicates that English is not only extensively used while they are conducting their jobs, but is also crucial to the continuing development of their business skills. However, it is interesting to notice here that 25% expressed that they did not take any business training course while on the job. In reviewing the profile of the respondents, the researcher found that 75.6% of the respondents graduated recently between 1999 and 2004. Perhaps recent graduates are less likely to take on-the-job training courses. What is significant is that once a WTN professional takes a business training course, the English language is heavily used.

From this conclusion, the researcher can safely predict that students in business professions will find themselves working in a multilingual environment where English is used extensively. This will require them to use the English language as their tool of communication in order to conduct their jobs. Thus, these data suggest that college English language courses for future business professionals need to focus more on fluency and understanding rather than accuracy and structure. Since this environment also represents many multicultural as well as multilingual situations with co-workers from all around the world, cultural interaction ought to be considered when designing a curriculum to prepare students for their future careers.

Finally, when respondents were asked about the importance of having a high level of English proficiency to perform the job, the majority of the respondents asserted that it is very important to have a high level of English proficiency to perform the job.

What levels of the reading, writing, listening and speaking skills of the English language are required in the workplace and for performing what kind of activities?

The data show that there is considerable agreement among the respondents about the relative importance of proficiency in English reading, writing, speaking, and listening. This indicates that a high command is needed in all skills

Thus, receptive skills were perceived as less important than the productive skills to perform the job effectively

The vast majority of the respondents felt it was important to have a high level of proficiency in speaking and writing skills. This suggests that students in business professions need to acquire a high level of the speaking and writing skills to be prepared for their professional lives. This suggests that English programs designed to prepare business students need to intensify the focus on receptive skills, the differences in percentages between receptive and productive skills are so close that it is hard to make a strong judgment in this regard.

In conclusion, respondents considered all English language skills to be important to conduct their jobs effectively. Though receptive skills were viewed as more important than productive skills, the percentages were so close that it is hard to prioritize any skill area over others. However, not all activities require a high knowledge of the English language. Therefore, activities in an English program should reflect situations similar to what the business students will encounter in their future careers. For example, reading and writing courses should use authentic materials from the business environment representing each profession instead of using generic materials covering the whole range of the business field. Listening and speaking courses should contain dialogues instead of individual word repetition.

4.12 Conclusion

In this concluding chapter, the researcher has attempt to sort out suggestions that may help improve ESP in workplaces conditions in order to identify and remedy to workers' lacks and had added some proposals to fulfil workers' needs.

GENERAL CONCLUSION

The on-going globalization of markets and trade in the 21st century has caused companies to come together to do business internationally. These businesses often gather people from a mixture of linguistic and cultural backgrounds. In situations like these, businessmen, negotiators, and those involved in international business usually employ the English for Specific Purposes. English is becoming the lingua franca of the modern world at a fast rate particularly in such important areas as:

> "*The new technologies, business, tourism and entertainment, and its global dominance encourages many speakers of other languages to gain at least a working use of the language in many fields" (Wilson, 2005: 334).*

English has been deemed as an important tool in a workplace situation because of its facilitative function, where by the focus is on the goal to be achieved and on how the use of a particular set of language conventions influences an outcome. Since language is a very adaptable medium, it can change to reflect the needs of a particular context or situation. For a communicative conversation to be successful, a shared cultural knowledge and understanding is required from speakers and listeners.

The present study was conducted to investigate the needs of economist workers in using English for specific purposes in Wataniya Telecom Nedjma.

The main aim of such an analysis was to sort out the major workers' needs in using English in different situations. The rationale behind this study was to identify the workers' needs, wants, lacks of and attitude toward English for the purpose of including in our curriculum what is needed by the workers and excluding what deemed to be less important to them. The workers in this workplace demonstrated a great desire to use English extensively for the purpose of communication, though to varying degrees.

With regard to linguistic levels in terms of accuracy and communicability, the conclusion is that despite the fact that the texts analysed contain a relatively large number of grammatical errors, especially involving subject-verb concord, article use, word order and prepositions, the documents seem to be communicatively effective.

The present study shows that the workers of WTN realise the importance of being able to write communicatively efficiently in English, regarding both their employability and their professional success. Furthermore, they express a clear wish for training in English oral and written communication, as well as a need for further training in these skills in their present work situation. The question is what to focus on in ESP courses and how professional writing in English can best be practised.

The respondents' need to use English for occupational purposes, however, it is clearly perceived that they face many difficulties in all skills, in addition to the challenges in using English in professional context such as communicating with non – natives is one of the most challenging situations in terms of English language use in the respondents' job.

The result obtained showed that the workers' lack of interest was mainly due to their non-awareness of the usefulness of English in their occupational and professional uses. English is needed for certain purposes and the results data analysis, show that both languages, Arabic and English, are used by the respondents for wide range of activities, though Arabic appears to be used much more often than English. However, the use of Arabic, in general appears when talking with colleagues in the workplace.

This could be due to the fact that all workers are Algerian, who may find it easier to communicate in Arabic.

Furthermore, 75% of the respondents reported that they were not offered English language training at their current workplace. The workers wants For example was to increase their corpus of specialized lexical items and technical terms, improving writing, speaking and listening skills should be given more attention and emphasis in designing any training courses for them.

This detailed study into the use of English in Wataniya Telecom Nedjma workplace recommends that course designers and the developers of teaching and learning materials should provide more specifically focused English courses to learners in their respect fields of work.

The Annual Wataniya Telecom Scholarship Program is considered very important, since it gives the opportunity to its employees to finish their undergraduate or graduate education in accredited universities while remaining employed with reduced working hours to accommodate their studies and work responsibilities.

Finally, from a pedagogical perspective, studies observing wash-back effects of different teaching methods, materials and learning strategies regarding language acquisition could provide more substantial evidence for the development and direction of ESP courses than the present cross-sectional study has given. For instance, an interesting avenue to explore would be to investigate if the use of more authentic workplace data in ESP courses would enable future workers in business settings to develop their language skills in such a way that they can more easily adapt to various communicative situations and demands in the workplace.

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1. INCORPORATION AND ACTIVITES

National Mobile Telecommunications Company K.S.C. ("the Parent Company" or "NMTC") is a Kuwaiti Shareholding Company incorporated by Amiri Decree on 10 October 1997. The Parent Company and its subsidiaries (together referred to as "the Group") are engaged in the provision of mobile telephone and services in Kuwait under a licence from the Ministry of Communications, Kuwait and also elsewhere through subsidiaries and joint venture in the Middle East and North Africa (MENA) and Maldives region. The Parent Company is also permitted to invest surplus funds in shares and other securities and acquire interests in related businesses in Kuwait and similar businesses abroad. **It is shares** were listed on the Kuwait Stock Exchange in July 1999 and commercial operations began in December 1999. The Parent Company is a subsidiary of Qatar Telecommunications Company Q.S.C. ("QTEL"), a Qatari Shareholding Company listed on the Qatar Stock Exchange.

The address of the Parent Company's registered office is Wataniya Telecom Tower, Sharq Area, Plot 1/A, Ahmed Al-Jaber Street, Kuwait City, Kuwait.

This interim condensed consolidated financial information was approved for issue by the Board of Directors of the Parent Company on 20 October 2009.

2. BASIS OF PREPARATION

This interim condensed consolidated financial information has been prepared in accordance with International Financial Reporting Standard, IAS 34, Interim Financial Reporting, and the guidelines issued by the Kuwait Stock Exchange. The accounting policies used in the preparation of this interim condensed consolidated financial information are consistent with those used in the most recent annual audited consolidated financial statements for the year ended 31 December 2008 except for the impact of the adoption of the Standards as described in note 3 and revision of the useful life of civil works (included in property and equipment) in one of the subsidiaries as disclosed in note 5.

This interim condensed consolidated financial information does not contain all information and disclosures required for full financial statements prepared in accordance with the International Financial Reporting Standards. For further information refer to the Group's annual audited consolidated financial statements for the year ended 31 December 2008.

In the opinion of management all adjustments consisting of normal recurring accruals considered necessary for fair presentation **has been** included. Operating results for the nine month period ended 30 September 2009 are not necessarily indicative of the results that may be expected for the year ending 31 December 2009.

3. ADOPTION OF NEW AND REVISED STANDARDS

During the period, the Group has adopted the following standards effective for the annual periods beginning on or after 1 January 2009.

IAS 1 (revised 2007) Presentation of Financial Statements

The revised Standard has introduced a number of terminology changes (including revised titles for the interim condensed consolidated financial information) and has resulted in a number of changes in presentation and disclosure. The revised standard requires all non-owner changes in equity (i.e. comprehensive income) to be presented separately in a consolidated statement of comprehensive income. However, the revised Standard has had no impact on the reported results or financial position of the Group.

IAS 23 (Revised 2007) Borrowing costs

The revised standard **eliminated** the previously available option to expense all borrowing costs when incurred. Instead the Group will now have to capitalise borrowing costs incurred on qualifying assets. However, the revised standard has had no impact on the previously or currently reported results or financial position of the Group as the transitional provisions of this Standard permit an entity to continue expensing borrowing costs relating to qualifying assets for which the commencement date for capitalisation is before the effective date.

3. ADOPTION OF NEW AND REVISED STANDARDS (CONTINUED)

IFRS 8 Operating Segments

IFRS 8 is a disclosure Standard that has resulted in a redesignation of the **Groups** reportable segments (see note 16). This new standard which replaced IAS 14 "Segment reporting" requires a management approach for segment reporting under which segment information is presented on the same basis as that used for internal reporting purposes. However, the revised standard has had no impact on the reported results or financial position of the Group as the Group was previously also reporting segments consistent with the internal reporting being provided to the chief operating decision maker.

4. JUDGEMENTS AND ESTIMATES

The preparation of interim condensed consolidated financial information requires management to make judgements, estimates and assumptions that affect the application of accounting policies and the reported amounts of assets and liabilities, income and expense. Actual results may differ from these estimates.

In preparing this interim condensed consolidated financial information, the significant judgements made by management in applying the Group's accounting policies and the key sources of estimation uncertainty were the same as those that applied to the annual audited consolidated financial statements as at and for the year ended 31 December 2008.

5. RE-CLASSIFICATION ARISING FROM IFRIC 12 AND REVISION TO USEFUL LIFE OF PROPERTY AND EQUIPMENT

a) **During the year ended 31 December 2008** the Group adopted IFRIC 12 "Service concession arrangements" to account for revenues, construction costs, property and equipment and intangible assets under the Build, Operate and Transfer ("the BOT") agreement of Public Telecommunication Company Ltd. ("PTC") with Saudi Telecom Company ("STC").

The effect of the reclassification on prior period's interim condensed consolidated financial information as a result of the above is summarised as below:

	30 September 2008 as previously reported	30 September 2008 as reclassified
	KD 000's	KD 000's
Property and equipment	412,760	380,063
Intangible assets	228,139	260,836
Network construction revenue	-	3,259
Network construction costs	-	(3,259)
Amortisation of intangible assets	11,079	13,748
Depreciation of property and equipment	47,854	45,185

b) During the period, the Group has revised the useful life of civil works (included in property and equipment) for one of its subsidiaries and increased the useful life from 7 years to 15 years. The increase in useful life **have been** based on management's best estimates and has been accounted as changes in an accounting estimate. The effect of the revision has been to increase the profit for the nine month period ended 30 September 2009 by KD 2,218 thousand.

9. LONG TERM DEBT

	30 September 2009 (Unaudited) KD 000's	31 December 2008 (Audited) KD 000's	30 September 2008 (Unaudited) KD 000's
Current portion			
Due to local banks	6,367	5,145	5,121
Due to foreign banks	10,695	11,979	27,323
	17,062	17,124	32,444
Non-current portion			
Due to local banks	56,520	10,289	59,306
Due to foreign banks	76,943	127,791	93,755
	133,463	138,080	153,061

The long term debt is secured by pledges on the respective subsidiaries and joint venture's assets and their equity shares.

10. SHARE CAPITAL AND DIVIDENDS

The Annual General Assembly of the Parent Company held on 26 March 2009 approved the annual audited consolidated financial statements of the Group for the year ended 31 December 2008, payment of cash dividend of 50 fils per share for the year ended 31 December 2008 (2007: 50 fils per share) and bonus issue of nil (2007: 10%) to the Parent Company's equity shareholders on the register as of 26 March 2009.

11. IMPAIRMENT LOSS ON GOODWILL

During the period, the Parent Company recorded an impairment loss of KD 4,201 thousand against the goodwill relating to two of its subsidiaries based on the Parent Company's management's assessment of the performance **of this** subsidiaries.

12. BASIC AND DILUTED EARNINGS PER SHARE ATTRIBUTABLE TO EQUITY HOLDERS OF THE PARENT COMPANY

Basic and diluted earnings per share attributable to equity holders of the Parent Company is calculated as follows:

	Three months ended 30 September 2009	Three months ended 30 September 2008	Nine months ended 30 September 2009	Nine months ended 30 September 2008
Profit for the period attributable to equity holders of the Parent Company (KD 000's)	18,500	25,593	97,322	68,179
Number of shares outstanding	Shares	Shares	Shares	Shares
Weighted average number of paid up shares (thousands)	504,033	504,033	504,033	504,033
Weighted average number of treasury shares (thousands)	(2,871)	(2,871)	(2,871)	(2,871)
Weighted average number of outstanding shares (thousands)	501,162	501,162	501,162	501,162
Basic and diluted earnings per **share attributable to equity holders of the Parent Company (fils)**	36.91	51.07	194.19	136.04

NATIONAL MOBILE TELECOMMUNICATIONS COMPANY K.S.C. AND SUBSIDIARIES

INTERIM CONDENSED CONSOLIDATED STATEMENT OF INCOME (UNAUDITED)

For the period from 1 January to 30 September 2009

		Three months ended 30 September		Nine months ended 30 September	
		2009	2008	2009	2008
	Notes	KD 000's	KD 000's	KD 000's	KD 000's
Revenue		118,870	125,277	351,683	355,278
Cost of revenue		(34,240)	(45,082)	(109,058)	(128,396)
Depreciation on equipment		(16,459)	(16,009)	(47,504)	(45,185)
		68,171	64,186	195,121	181,697
Network construction revenue		149	2,452	1,539	3,259
Network construction costs		(149)	(2,452)	(1,539)	(3,259)
		-	-	-	-
Gross profit		68,171	64,186	195,121	181,697
Amortisation of intangible assets		(4,949)	(4,674)	(14,260)	(13,748)
Selling and distribution costs		(12,417)	(11,207)	(37,044)	(29,730)
Administrative expenses		(24,610)	(22,639)	(70,556)	(67,165)
Net other operating (expense)/ income	8	(67)	6,569	52,631	12,632
Dividend income		17	25	27	240
Interest income		349	1,278	1,509	4,406
Impairment loss on available for sale investments	7	(1,637)	-	(7,243)	-
Impairment loss on goodwill	11	-	-	(4,201)	-
Gain / (loss) on sale of available for sale investments		44	(6)	264	279
(Loss) / gain on sale of investments held for trading		-	(59)	-	189
Finance costs		(2,552)	(3,751)	(10,525)	(12,462)
Profit before deferred tax, contribution to Kuwait Foundation for the Advancement of Sciences ("KFAS"), National Labour Support Tax ("NLST"), Zakat and Directors' remuneration		22,349	29,722	105,723	76,338
Taxation relating to subsidiaries		(4,565)	(4,266)	(10,261)	(9,727)
Provision for contribution to KFAS		(197)	(269)	(1,024)	(717)
Provision for NLST		(530)	(673)	(2,666)	(1,793)
Provision for Zakat		(212)	(269)	(1,067)	(717)
Directors' remuneration		(112)	(100)	(337)	(300)
Profit for the period		16,733	24,145	90,368	63,084
Attributable to:					
Equity holders of the Parent Company		18,500	25,593	97,322	68,179
Non-controlling interests		(1,767)	(1,448)	(6,954)	(5,095)
		16,733	24,145	90,368	63,084
Basic and diluted earnings per share attributable to equity holders of the Parent Company (fils)	12	36.91	51.07	194.19	136.04

The notes set out on pages 8 to 15 form an integral part of this interim condensed consolidated financial information.

Workers Questionnaire

The purpose of this questionnaire is a need analysis conducted to examine your quantitative and qualitative English language needs for English. The aim was to identify your overall English language needs. We will appreciate if you answer these questions.

1) – What is the official language in your enterprise?

Arabic	English

2) – Is English used in internal communication in your enterprise?

Yes	No

If yes, justify

……………………………………………………………………………………

……………………………………………………………………………………

3)– Is English used in external communication with foreigners?

Yes	No

If yes, justify

…………………………………………………………………………...............

4)– What is the corporate language in your company?

Algerian Arabic	English

5)–How many Algerian as well as foreign workers are there in Wataniya Telecom Nedjma?

Staff	Number
Algerian	
Foreigners	

6) -How many male and female are there in your company?

Male	Female

7) -How old are you?

Age	30	30/40	40/50	54
Percent				

8)–What language do you conduct your work more quickly?

Algerian Arabic	English

Why?

……………………………………………………………………………………………

……………………………………………………………………………………………

9) –Is English needed for speaking in Wataniya Telecom Nedjma?

Yes	No

10)–Is English needed for writing in your company?

Yes	No

11) –Is English needed for reading in your company?

Yes	No

12) – What language do you express yourself in better and more effectively?

Questions	Algerian Arabic	English
What language is more attractive?		
What language is more useful to in your workplace?		
What language do you conduct your work in more quickly?		
What language do you prefer to use in your institution?		

13) –What kind of purposes is English needed?

-Are English and Arabic used for a wide range of activities in your company?

Item	Only Arabic	Arabic and English	Only Arabic
For correspondence			
For communication with other colleagues			
For filling and documentation			

14)–How do you consider the fluency of speech in formal situations in your company?

Very important	
Not very important	
Not at all important	

15) - How do you consider the fluency of speech in informal situations in your company?

Very important	
Not very important	
Not at all important	

16) - How do you consider the grammatical accuracy of speech in formal situations in your company?

Very important	
Not very important	
Not at all important	

17) - How do you consider the grammatical accuracy of speech in informal situations in your company?

Very important	
Not very important	
Not at all important	

18) - How do you consider the grammatical accuracy of formal written document in your company?

Very important	
Not very important	
Not at all important	

19) - How do you consider the grammatical accuracy of informal written document in your company?

Very important	
Not very important	
Not at all important	

20) - How do you consider the familiarity with the communication culture of foreign partners?

Very important	
Not very important	
Not at all important	

21) –What are the most challenging areas to use English in your workplace?

Telephone situations.	
Presentations.	
Writing.	
Speaking.	
Communicating with non native speakers of English.	
Communicating with native speakers of English.	

22) –Is English language training offered in your workplace?

Yes	No

23) –What kind of English training courses do you like to be enrolled in?

Item	Workers' answers %
To increase my corpus of specialized lexical terms and technical terms.	
To learn grammar.	
To improve writing skills.	
To improve reading skills.	
To improve listening skills.	
To improve speaking skills.	

THANK YOU VERY MUCH FOR YOUR ASSISTANCE

ABSTRACT

The purposes of this study are to investigate business , skills needed by business professionals working in Al Wataniya Telecom Nedjma (henceforth WTN) and to determine what business English communication skills should be given priority over others. In addition, the present study was conducted to investigate the needs of economist workers in using English for Specific Purposes in WTN.

This work is divided into four chapters, as follows:

Chapter One deals with the origins of the ESP approach. It discusses the theoretical background of Needs Analysis as the framework of the ESP approach, its relation to the concept of Communicative Competence and its impact on linguistic theory.

Chapter Two deals with business communication and it gives an idea about effective communication which occurs when speakers and listeners or writers and readers agree on the content of the message.

Chapter Three presents the data obtained from the questionnaire. First, background information on the respondents and their workplace WTN is given.

Chapter Four, deals with the English language training WTN and the Scholarship Program. In this chapter, the respondents are asked in the questionnaire whether they are offered English language training at WTN.

Key words:

Business; English communication; Wataniya Telecom Nedjma; English for Specific Purposes; Needs Analysis; ESP approach; Linguistic theory; Workplace; English language training; Communicative Competence.