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Analysis of Legal English Needs for Developing ELP Teaching Materials in the Department of Law at the University of Oran 2

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Statement of Originality

I hereby declare that this dissertation is my own work and that all sources I have used and/or quoted have been fully referenced and acknowledged.

Sara ACHIR

Dedications

First and foremost, all praise to ALLAH for the countless blessings and the ability to pursue this research endeavour.

I dedicate this thesis to the loving memory of my father, who passed away before the completion of this work.

I would also like to share this accomplishment with my loving family and friends who never stopped believing in me and made this thesis a priority in our lives. Their unconditional support and love made the completion of this thesis possible and I am grateful to ALLAH for having them in my life at a time when things seemed to be taking a wrong turn.

Acknowledgements

Abstract

English occupies an important place in many departments in Algerian universities and is a compulsory module. However, like many other departments, the Department of Law at the University of Oran 2 continues to face various challenges in teaching English for Specific Purposes (ESP), and the extent of the course's impact remains unclear. Therefore, this study contributed to addressing these concerns by implementing a mixed-methods research approach that aimed at investigating the ESP teaching situation in the Department of Law at the University of Oran 2 in order to develop suitable English for Legal Purposes (ELP) teaching materials. Accordingly, a needs analysis procedure was adopted as a starting point to identify learners' needs and as an ongoing process to evaluate the effectiveness of the proposed course. A case study methodology was also used to gather the necessary data for this study. This involved a range of tools including the distribution of questionnaires to both learners and subject specialist teachers, informal interviews with language teachers, focus group discussions with students, and document analysis. The results of the study indicated that the Department of Law lacks a well-defined and structured programme or plan with a clear vision, objectives, and strategies for the professional development of its English language teachers in the area of legal English. Additionally, the findings highlighted the absence of systematic evaluation and follow-up measures to improve the quality of the ESP courses. Despite the limitations imposed by time constraints and the lack of a structured programme for the ELP course, the students and subject specialist teachers had positive attitudes towards ESP and were able to provide a general overview of the impact of English on their academic and professional lives. In addition, learner assessment and students' evaluation of the proposed course provided constructive feedback for course adjustments and clarification of the objectives. In addition to providing input about the teaching and learning of English in the Department of Law and how it can be improved, the study can play a vital role in raising awareness of the importance of ESP training for teachers, conducting needs assessments for learners, and creating a sense of urgency among decision-makers for systemic change in the teaching of ESP.

Keywords: Course Evaluation, ELP, ESP, Needs Analysis, Teaching Materials.

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List of Abbreviations and Acronyms

CARS Creating a Research Space

CBI Content Based Instruction

CBLT Competency -Based Language Teaching

CNP Communicative Need Processor

DA Deficiency Analysis

EAP English for Academic Purposes

EBE English for Business and Economics

EBM Economics, Business, and Management Sciences

EBP English for Business Purposes

ECMP English for Community Membership Purposes

EFL English as a Foreign Language

EGAP English for General Academic Purposes

EGBP English for General Business Purposes

EGP English for General Purposes

ELEC International Legal English Certificate

ELP English for Legal Purposes

ELT English Language Teaching

EMP English for Medical Purposes

EOP English for Occupational Purposes

ESCP English for Socio-Cultural Purposes

ESL English as a Second Language

ESP English for Specific Purposes

ESS English for Social Studies

EST English for Science and Technology

FLT Foreign Language Teaching

GE General English

ICT Information Communication Technology

L2 Second Language

LMD Licence Master Doctorate

LNA Learning Needs Analysis

NA Needs Analysis

PBL Project-Based Learning

PSA Present Situation Analysis

Q&As Questions and Answers

STEM Science, Technology, Engineering, and Mathematics

TBLT Task- Based Language Teaching

TEFL Teaching English as a Foreign Language

TESL Teaching English as a Second Language

TOLES Test of Legal English Skills

TSA Target Situation Analysis

UK United Kingdom

US United States

GENERAL INTRODUCTION

General Introduction

The internationalisation and globalisation of market economies and social dynamics have created a strong demand for information from foreign jurisdictions and different legal systems. This need has been exacerbated by the rapid and complex nature of cross-border transactions involving people from different cultures and linguistic backgrounds. The effective exchange of information relies heavily on language skills, making it an increasingly challenging, yet critical task nowadays. English proficiency has become an indispensable requirement for economic openness in international trade deals.

English for Specific Purposes courses have grown in importance due to the increasing demand for English proficiency in publications and research, organisation of conferences, and training courses. As a result, English has solidified its position as a sine qua non of academic and professional success, making it a fundamental part of the educational curriculum in Algeria.

In fact, the implementation of the LMD system in Algeria is a reflection of the country's recognition of the high demand for English both nationally and internationally. This system emphasises proficiency in foreign languages, especially in English. All students, regardless of their field of study, learn English in order to gain access to scholarly papers and documents, as well as they are provided with the necessary vocabulary and cultural understanding. In addition, the LMD system goal is to facilitate the mobility and communication between researchers from developed and developing countries. Therefore, the growing presence of ESP in universities across the country was a response to the changing needs of the global workforce for professionals who are required to communicate with people from all over the world in their daily tasks.

English language proficiency has become increasingly important for students studying law at the University of Oran 2. The mastery of English is now considered a crucial skill for both academic and occupational purposes. To meet this need, the Department of Law has implemented English courses for students pursuing Master's degrees. These courses are designed to help students read and comprehend English textbooks and articles related to their field of study. Additionally, the courses aim to develop students' spoken and written English skills, as effective communication is essential in the legal profession. By offering ELP

courses, the University of Oran 2 is responding to the changing needs of the legal profession and recognising the importance of English language proficiency for future lawyers.

Background of the Study

Over the past years, globalisation has been widely portrayed as an inevitable phenomenon, primarily as a global movement towards economic, financial, trade and communications integration. This movement has affected everyone and has incited both hope and fear due to the increased access to information and financial products, particularly after the establishment of a free market and the political economic concept of laissez-faire.

Globalisation is also perceived as another form of imperialism to achieve neoliberal goals and to create more core-periphery relations. In the field of law, globalisation has a significant impact on areas such as banking law, competition law, copyright law, patent law, arbitration law, environmental law, and many others.

As a sub-branch of ESP, English for Legal Purposes shares the general characteristics of ESP. Firstly, ELP courses are designed to meet the specific needs of the learner. Secondly, they all use a discipline- specific methodology for teaching, research and activities. Thirdly, the focus of learning is on language skills, discourses and genres that are relevant to legal studies. Lastly, the materials are authentic in order to expose learners to real-world examples.

Legal English is the result of the interdisciplinary studies combining legal studies and the English language. Hence, the study of legal English must be approached from both perspectives. It is necessary to study the use of English in legal theory and practice, according to the perspectives and methods of legal norms.

Legal communication in many fields is profoundly influenced by international and cultural exchange, as legal texts often have to cross linguistic boundaries between different legal systems. Therefore, as an integral component of culture, legal translation requires a high degree of legal, linguistic, and cultural knowledge, as well as expertise on the part of the ELP teacher. The ELP teachers regularly encounter different national legal systems and have to deal with incongruent legal concepts that may have different meanings or may even be completely unknown in their legal system. It is worth mentioning that legal systems have developed differently in different countries.

In Algerian universities, this presents a challenge for ELP teachers who have to develop teaching materials in areas where they may have no prior knowledge. This requires not only a profound understanding of the legal system and language but also sensitivity to the cultural nuances of their students. Effective legal communication across different legal systems and cultures is crucial in today's globalised world. Therefore, ELP teachers must possess the necessary skills and knowledge to navigate these complexities and provide students with the tools they need to communicate effectively in their legal professions.

Statement of the Problem

The research problem was identified through classroom observations and casual discussions with faculty members in the Department of Law at the University of Oran 2. It was noticed that despite the great emphasis on teaching ESP in Algerian universities, little attention has been given to ESP training and needs analysis at Faculty of Law and Political Science.

English for legal purposes is taught by teachers who are not trained to teach ESP, which can result in a less than optimal learning experience for students. Additionally, ELP courses are often limited to translation and memorisation of vocabulary out of context, which can hinder students' ability to apply their language skills effectively in legal settings.

When the language needs are ignored, it can significantly impact the learners' motivation, no matter how much effort they put into their language learning. Many of the difficulties faced in ELP classes are the result of teachers failing to recognise students' interests and needs as a fundamental source of information. By conducting a needs analysis, instructors can tailor their teaching methods and materials to meet the specific needs of their students, resulting in a more effective learning experience.

This thesis, therefore, attempts to provide a framework for conducting a linguistic needs analysis for Master's students in the Department of Law. The aim of this analysis is to put forward guidelines for the redesign and development of suitable ELP teaching materials.

Significance of the Study

The literature review reveals that there are no previous studies on the integration of needs analysis in the context of ELP at the University of Oran 2. Therefore, this work can be

seen as a valuable contribution to the field of English for Legal Purposes, providing new teaching materials that will enrich the literature.

The study highlights the importance of focusing on learners rather than teachers in ESP. This approach shift emphasises the role of needs analysis in designing courses, developing materials, and choosing suitable methods for teaching ESP to specific groups of learners (see Cheng, 2011; Long, 2005; Jordan, 1997; Robinson, 1991; Hutchinson & Waters, 1987). In other words, it is essential to understand students' needs in terms of objectives, language attitudes, expectations, and preferred learning styles in order to select appropriate teaching materials. Ultimately, a needs analysis procedure will be adopted as a starting point to identify learners' requirements and as an ongoing process to evaluate the effectiveness of the proposed course.

This work aims to provide a guide to the multidisciplinary nature of English for Legal Purposes, which encompasses the intersection of language and law. It is intended to be an invaluable resource for academics, students and professionals working in applied linguistics. It also attempts to explore the interrelationship between theory, method and data in ELP, while recognising the importance of raising new research questions in the field.

It is hoped that the research findings will make a helpful contribution to ESP research in Algeria. It is particularly significant in its own context as it offers, for the first time, insights into the theoretical and practical aspects underlying effective ESP teaching in the Department of Law at the University of Oran 2. It is expected that ESP teachers and syllabus designers will benefit from this work when designing future syllabi. This is particularly important as there has been little research to investigate the current English language courses for law students or to identify the English language needs of legal professionals in the workplace. Thus, this work can provide a solid foundation for future research in this area, making it an essential resource for law students and ELP teachers alike.

Research Questions

This research seeks to provide a comprehensive analysis of the teaching and learning of English in the Department of Law at the University of Oran 2. To achieve this, the study investigates the main areas of ESP: needs analysis, legal English, language skills (reading, listening, speaking, and writing), language learning strategies, course design, assessment and evaluation. The current study attempts to address the following questions:

1) What are the English language needs for Master's students in the Department of Law at University of Oran 2?

2) What are the steps taken to develop a course material for law students at the University of Oran 2?

3) What are the means to evaluate and improve the effectiveness of the course?

Research Hypotheses

The main hypotheses of the study are:

1) We presuppose that Algerian law students at the University of Oran 2 need to master reading skill in order to understand legal texts in English. They also need to master speaking skill to be able to hold conversations in their future careers.

2) It is hypothesised that a needs analysis can greatly assist course designers in defining a set of objectives for the development of ELP materials that will improve students' academic performance and motivation.

3) It is presumed that testing and student feedback can be valid measures of course effectiveness.

Research Methodology

In order to test the research hypotheses and answer the research questions, the present research is divided into three phases. In the preliminary phase, the English language needs of law students will be explored and analysed using the following research tools:

1/ Focus group discussions with Law students

2/ Interviews with three English teachers

3/ Two questionnaires for:
- Law students
- Subject specialist teachers

4/ Teaching materials and students' notes

The second phase involves designing a suitable ELP course that meets the demands of the target situation. The last phase includes assessing learners' performance at the end of the course and evaluating the proposed teaching materials through a survey to gather law students' opinions.

Structure of the Study

This thesis consists of four chapters. The first chapter reviews the relevant literature on English for Specific Purposes and needs analysis. The second chapter is divided into two parts. The first part focuses on the context of the study and the development of legal language in Algeria. It also provides detailed information on the teaching of English at university level in general and in the Department of law in particular. The second part of this chapter deals with the rationale for the chosen methodology, the participants, and the research tools used to conduct the study. Chapter three then presents and analyses the data, while chapter four consists of two main parts. The first part proposes a sample course for law students, after explaining the principles of developing a teaching material. The second part addresses assessment and evaluation at the end of the course, which would serve as the basis for recommendations to improve the teaching/learning situation in the Department of Law at the University of Oran 2.

Chapter One

An Overview of Needs Analysis in English for Specific Purposes

Chapter One

1. **Introduction**

English for Specific Purposes is an area of language learning that has seen a surge in interest due to the widespread use of English for the exchange of information. This chapter focuses on the theoretical foundations of ESP, including definitions, origins, classification, types, development, teaching approaches and legalese. It then discusses the importance of needs analysis in deciding the content of an ESP course and the different roles of ESP practitioners. Finally, it provides an overview on needs analysis research in the field of ESP in various Algerian institutions and universities in order to draw some implications for the study.

1.1 Definitions of English for Specific Purposes

The teaching of ESP emerged as a way of responding to the language needs of a new generation of learners interested in a specific field, as opposed to General English (GE) courses whose objectives are broad and not clearly defined. Furthermore, ESP has established itself as "a viable and vigorous movement in the field of TEFL/ TESL" (Johns & Dudley-Evans, 1991, p.297). Therefore, one of the most relevant definitions of ESP is that proposed by Hutchinson and Waters (1987, p.19), who defined ESP as an approach in which all aspects, from content to methodology, are determined by the learner's reasons for learning. They also mentioned that it should not be seen as a specific language product, nor as a specific type of language or methodology.

It is generally accepted that the definition of ESP refers to the ultimate practical use of language to achieve occupational and academic goals (Widdowson, 1983). ESP aims to equip learners with skills that will enable them to deal thoroughly and effectively with their academic or professional tasks. Sarre and Whyte (2017) defined it as a field of English language studies that focuses on the language, communication, and culture of professional communities and specialised groups. Hutchinson and Waters (1987) identified three factors that have contributed to the growth of the ESP movement: the need for a global language to meet specific work-related needs; advances in linguistics, looking at how language is used in real-world communication; and the development of educational psychology and its focus on learner needs and motivation. Accordingly, many educational institutions around the world now offer ESP courses to help learners succeed in their studies and careers.

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According to Robinson (1991), ESP is "normally goal-directed" (p. 2) and English is not learned as an end goal but as a means to study or work. She also outlined the principles of ESP based on some characteristics such as limited time span, adult students, and homogeneous classes. In addition, ESP teachers can identify needs and prioritise different skills accordingly. Strevens (1988) noted that ESP is characterised by the ability to adapt the skills developed to the needs of the learners. For instance, English for Legal Purposes is taught as a method that blends subject matter and English language to give learners the language skills they need for a particular situation. Moreover, Dudley-Evans and St. John (1998) modified Strevens' definition of absolute and variable characteristics: in terms of absolute characteristics, ESP is (1) designed to meet the specific needs of the learner, (2) uses the basic techniques and practices of the specific discipline being taught, and (3) emphasises the language aspects such as grammar, vocabulary, register, skills, discourse and genres that are relevant to that particular field. The variable characteristics are four: ESP (1) is related to or tailored to specific disciplines; (2) may use a different methodology from GE in specific teaching situations; (3) is likely to be tailored to adult learners, either in a tertiary institution or in a professional work setting, and may also be for learners at secondary level; (4) is generally designed for intermediate or advanced students.

1.2 Branches of ESP

At the end of the 1960s, with the advent of the communicative language teaching (CLT) approach, the teaching of ESP began to emerge, focusing on specialised communication in certain professional and academic fields. According to Hutchinson and Waters' (1987) tree structure of ELT, ESP included branches such as English for Science and Technology (EST), English for Business and Economics (EBE) and English for Social Studies (ESS). Each of these was further subdivided: English for Occupational Purposes (EOP) and English for Academic Purposes (EAP). However, Hutchinson and Waters (1987) argued that this division is not so clear-cut because people can work and study at the same time, or even learn languages for immediate use in a study environment that will be used later when they get the job for which they are being trained or when they return to work. Similarly, Dudley-Evans and St. John (1998) devoted a section to the classification of ESP, referring to the areas of students' academic, vocational and occupational performance, as shown in the table below. Within English for Academic Purposes (EAP), English for Science and Technology (EST) stands out as the main area of study, followed by English for Medical Purposes (EMP), then

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English for Legal Purposes (ELP), and then English for Business, Finance, Economics and Accounting, without giving a specific abbreviation to designate them. In addition to the distinction between the study of a language for academic and professional purposes, the authors also distinguish between the study of languages for vocational purposes, which is intended for pre-professional situations and non-active professionals. The study of languages for professional purposes is aimed at training or preparing for specific professions, and the study of languages for pre-professional purposes is aimed at training students to meet the expectations of employers.

Dudley-Evans and St. John's (1998) ESP Classification			
English for Academic Purposes (EAP)		**English for Occupational Purposes (EOP)**	
-English for Specific (Academic) Purposes -English for (Academic) Science and Technology -English for (Academic) Medical Purposes -English for (Academic) legal Purposes -English for Management, Finance and Economics	-English for General Academic Purposes	-English for Professional Purposes -English for Medical Purposes -English for Business Purposes	-English for Vocational Purposes -Pre-Vocational English

Table 1.1 Classification of ESP (Dudley-Evans & St John, 1998, p.6)

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The classification of ESP has become much more complex because of the increasingly globalised and interconnected world and its diverse forms of social, economic and communicative practices. According to Belcher (2009), the early history of ESP was largely driven by the need to communicate across languages in areas such as commerce and technology, while it has now expanded to include other areas such as English for Socio-cultural Purposes (ESCP) and English for Community Membership Purposes (ECMP). The programmes of these last two ESP modalities can be designed for immigrants or refugees to facilitate their socio-cultural participation.

1.3 English for Specific Purposes vs. General English

Hutchinson and Waters (1987) noted that although EGP and ESP are similar in theory, very different in practice. ESP teaching methods focus on the goals and needs of the learner, whereas GE focuses on language and its learning from a broad perspective, covering all language skills and the social aspects of English-speaking communities. In addition, ESP courses are usually attended by adults, whereas General English courses can be attended by both children and adults. This is because ESP courses are usually dedicated to teaching language that is closely related to a specific profession that university students want to pursue after graduation, whereas GE courses provide the fundamental English language skills needed to use the language in general. As the authors noted, learners of ESP are mainly adults with an understanding of their language needs, whereas GE courses are offered to students as a compulsory module in schools with the aim of success in examinations. In addition, ESP courses require a certain level of English, as learners need to have a basic knowledge of English in order to learn professional English. GE courses, on the other hand, are designed for learners with little or no previous knowledge of the language and build their skills gradually until they reach their desired level. Basturkmen (2006) stated that GE tends to move from a definite point to an indeterminate one, whereas ESP aims to lead learners to a known destination in order to achieve specific objectives. Dudley-Evans and St. John (1998) noted that ESP is generally designed for intermediate or advanced learners, but can also be used with beginners. Furthermore, GE does not require a needs analysis for its courses. Its curricula are fairly standard and usually include reading comprehension, vocabulary, grammar, various speaking and listening activities and other language-related content. In contrast, ESP courses are tailored to the specific needs of the learner and require a needs analysis both before and after the course. These courses can be challenging for students as they often involve learning

the vocabulary of a particular profession. GE courses, conversely, are less specialised and require less preparation from the teacher.

In the same vein, according to Basturkmen (2010), ESP courses are narrower than GE courses because they focus on the needs of learners in their academic or professional domains. She explained that ESP links the domain of language learning to the needs of language use that learners will encounter in their academic and professional contexts. In simpler words, language teaching in ESP is basically related to the needs of the learners who want to use English in their field of specialisation. It requires a thoughtful study of these interests and needs to help course designers make the course relevant to the learner in terms of activities and instruction. However, it is more appropriate to think of English language teaching as a continuous line that runs from well-defined courses such as GE courses to ESP courses. Similarly, Dudley-Evans and St. John (1998) identified five relative positions along a continuum of ELT course types, based on the specific syllabus of each course. ESP courses are placed in the third and fourth positions:

Dudley-Evans and St. John's ELT continuum General Specific				
Position 1	**Position 2**	**Position 3**	**Position 4**	**Position 5**
English for beginners	Intermediate to advanced EGP courses with a focus on particular skills	EGAP/EGBP courses based on common-core language and skills not related to specific disciplines or professions	Courses for broad disciplinary or professional areas, for example Medical English, Legal English, Negotiation/meeting skills for business people writing for scientists and engineers	I) An 'academic support' course related to a particular academic course II) Working one- on-one with business people

Table 1.2 Dudley-Evans and St. John's ELT continuum (1998, p.9)

In addition to categorising ESP according to the learner's background (student or professional) and subject area (business, medicine, law), Dudley-Evans and St. John (1998) proposed a continuum of English language courses, from general to specific, comprising five distinct positions. Within this continuum, ELP occupies position four, alongside other courses designed for broader disciplinary or professional domains. As the authors emphasised, it is important to recognise that participant groups are unlikely to be homogeneous. Careful attention must therefore be paid to selecting skills and contexts that are relevant to the diverse range of participants involved.

Widdowson (1983) also started from a general concept of teaching English as a foreign language in order to justify the existence of ESP by drawing a difference in the formulation of objectives between ESP and GE, as well as in the way to achieve them. Put simply, EGP is generally required as the foundation for later achievement in the subject area (Trimble, 1985). EGP should not be considered as an isolated component of English language teaching as it serves to "enhance students' general language competence for more accurate and fluent production and reception of English in dealing with everyday situations" (Liu et al., 2011, p.271).

1.4 The Rise and Development of ESP

Since its early beginnings in the 1960's, ESP has undergone different phases, which include new visions for course and syllabus design in terms of materials development and methodology (Johns, 2013; Hyland, 2006; Dudley-Evans & St. John, 1998; West, 1997; Swales, 1994; Robinson, 1991; Hutchinson & Waters, 1987). Hutchinson & Waters (1987) have identified five main phases: (1) register analysis, (2) discourse analysis, (3) skills and strategies, (4) learning needs and (5) genre analysis approach.

1.4.1 Register Analysis

Register analysis was introduced in the 1960s and early 1970s to create language programmes tailored to the needs of students. EST has been instrumental in the development of ESP, favouring the use of the present simple tense, the passive voice and noun or nominal compounds. Frequency studies based on corpora have become more popular to identify the grammatical and lexical features that learners are likely to encounter, as well as the frequent repetition of certain language elements, structures and collocations in scientific and technical

English. Halliday, McIntosh and Strevens (1964), Herbert (1965) and Twer and Latoure (1969) were the pioneers of register analysis, focusing on the grammatical and lexical frequencies in the learner's domain. According to Dudley-Evans and St. John (1998), the context determines which aspects of grammar are appropriate and the ESP teacher needs to be aware of these contexts.

The purpose of register analysis is to identify key language features that need to be taught to learners. Initially, the focus was on the frequency of certain lexical items and structures in technical texts. Once these language forms were identified in technical English, specific terminology and structures were selected, focusing on form rather than meaning. Widdowson (1979) noted that this approach cannot reveal the communicative character of texts and cannot deal with discourse because it isolates language forms from context by using a small corpus of texts. As a result, textbooks based on register analysis that focuses solely on scientific English lack authenticity and communicative purpose.

This approach was more pedagogical and descriptive rather than explanatory (Robinson, 1991). Consequently, from the early 1970s, the communicative needs of users were explored through functional rhetorical approaches. Further, methodologically, it is not a very solid approach as Hutchinson and Waters (1987) considered language needs as "the core of learners" to design courses.

1.4.2 Discourse Analysis

A major shift in linguistic analysis was the emergence of rhetorical analysis (Lackstrom et al., 1973), which focuses on the text and the writer's purpose rather than on form (Robison, 1991). In the 1970s the focus shifted to the level above the sentence, considering how sentences are combined to create meaning (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987). These patterns were used to design the ESP syllabus. This stage is based on identifying organisational patterns in texts and specifying the linguistic means that make them occur. Rhetorical text structures differ between disciplines. ESP has been closely associated with discourse, with a focus on rhetorical structures and purposes (Robinson, 1991). This includes the study of coherence and cohesion and how language is used to achieve different rhetorical purposes within texts/contexts.

This new orientation studies the decision-making processes of language users, the constraints they face when communicating in social contexts, and the impact of their language use on other participants in the act of communication (Crystal, 1997). In other words, grammatical and lexical choices are determined by the communicative purpose of the speaker/writer. According to Jordan (1997), discourse analysis was introduced to examine patterns of rhetorical organisation, looking at how verb tenses and other grammatical features affect the structure of discourse, as well as the relationships between utterances (e.g., aspects of cohesion and discourse markers).

English materials for students of science and technology and other specialist fields have focused on the selection and presentation of the most common lexical and grammatical features. Rhetoric was then given much attention in EST, as certain rhetorical choices have an impact on grammatical forms. Trimble (1985) defined rhetoric as the process by which a writer creates a desired piece of text. Later, there was a real contribution that took into account the role of context, the communicative properties of language and the purpose of teaching it. Discourse analysis was first proposed by the American structuralist Zellig Harris in 1952, but it was not until the 1970s that it became the focus of linguistic interest. Van Dijk (2009) argues that context is a subjective construct that is constantly updated, as the link between society and discourse depends on how language users define the genre or communicative event.

As a discipline, discourse analysis is an important tool for studying the relationship between language and its contexts. It goes beyond the description and analysis of spoken and written interactions from a linguistic perspective to refer to broader and more complex aspects, taking into account the social and cultural contexts of language use. According to Chimombo and Roseberry (1998), its primary purpose is to provide a deeper understanding and appreciation of texts and how they become meaningful to users. However, Dudley-Evans and St. John (1998) noted that this approach does not take into account the development of the four skills.

1.4.3 Analysis of Skills and Strategies

The Skills-Strategies approach to course design aims to help learners develop the study skills needed to learn a language, such as adapting reading speed to the material being

read, using the dictionary, inferring word meanings from context, interpreting graphs, diagrams and symbols, taking notes and summarising (Richards et al., 2002).

While the previous stages concentrated only on language use, this phase focuses on the thinking processes that underlie language use, and the basic principle is that all language use involves common thinking and interpretive processes that enable us to extract meaning from discourse. According to Hutchinson and Waters (1987), this approach of ESP focuses on the skills and strategies learners uses to acquire the language they need. It is based on reading a range of specialised English texts to infer the meaning of words from context, using visual layout in the comprehension and the production of the language.

Researchers have long discussed the interpretative strategies used by the reader and listener to discover the meaning of unknown words. There has been an increase in research on strategies that enable learners to activate some skills and strategies which they are expected to apply when using the language (Widdowson, 1981). They enable learners to process the information better by making sense of what they see, feel and hear (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987). For Johnson (1996) language behaviour is divided into skills (reading, writing, listening and speaking), and then into sub-skills or micro-skills, as in the case of reading for information, skimming and scanning.

1.4.4   Analysis of Learning Needs

The constructivist approach to learning shifts the traditional perspective on how a student learns. It is based on the premise that Knowledge cannot be directly transferred from one person to another, but that individuals construct their own understanding by connecting new information with what they already know. It is then that what is learnt makes sense to them and can be useful for life. This approach focuses on the process of learning, learners' motivation and learning styles (Dudley-Evans & St. John, 1998), with the aim of language learning rather than language use (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987). Attention has shifted from language-centred teaching and teaching methods that rely on the teacher and the textbook as the only source of knowledge to students' needs that arise from their interaction with the environment. Learning Needs Analysis therefore aims to explore learners' learning styles and how they want to learn, rather than what they need to learn (West, 1998). According to Hutchinson and Waters (1987), the focus in ESP is on the process of language acquisition

rather than just language use, and a valid approach to ESP must be based on understanding the process of language learning.

In contrast to the traditional classroom, the learning-centred approach involves learners in the decision-making process regarding the content of the syllabus and teaching methods. Hutchinson and Waters (1987) prefer the term "learning-centred" to "learner-centred" because it implies that learning is "a process of negotiation between individuals and society" (p. 72).

When learners have a say in the choice of course content, activities, and materials, it positively affects their motivation and the development of autonomy in learning. While this approach is considered communicative and allows for appropriate decision making about the syllabus and materials (Holliday, 1994), it has been criticised for being complex and time-consuming (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987).

1.4.5   Genre Analysis

In his work 'Genre Analysis: English in Academic and Research Settings', Swales introduced the term 'genre' to the field of EAP. He defined genre as a class of communicative events that share a set of communicative purposes, recognised by expert members of a discourse community, that shape the discourse's schematic structure of the discourse and influences content and style choices. Swales emphasised the significance of communicative purpose in distinguishing one genre from another, as genre serves a common social action. In the same vein, Bhatia (1997) highlighted four areas of competence for dealing with technical discourse. These include understanding the language code, acquiring genre knowledge, sensitivity to cognitive structures and using generic knowledge. In order to successfully navigate specialised discourse, learners need to have a comprehensive understanding of the language code, be familiar with the particular discourse community, be aware of the restricted aspects of the language code, and have expertise in interpreting, using liberties specialised discourse.

Genre analysis is valuable for ESP (Dudley-Evans & St. John 1998) because it provides a means of accessing the conventions of a discourse community. By examining the rhetorical practices of different communities, genre analysis can reveal how language is used and how it reflects the social, cultural and epistemological characteristics of different

disciplines (Hyland, 2002). Attention to communication strategies in relation to professional and academic settings is a key aspect of genre analysis. Bhatia (2002) suggested that genre analysis can be seen both as a reflection of the realities of institutionalised communication and as a pedagogically useful tool for designing language teaching programmes in simulated classroom contexts. For example, many researchers have applied Swale's (1990) Creating a Research Space (CARS) model, which has had an enormous influence on genre analysis and academic writing. Its main aim is to find the regularities that characterise the rhetorical variation of different parts of academic articles by identifying specific moves and steps. Swales (2004) defined a move in genre analysis as a unit of discourse or rhetoric that serves a clear communicative purpose. He emphasised that moves within a genre can be recognised linguistically by sentences, utterances or multiple sentences, and that different disciplines may use or repeat different steps. Examples of genres can also vary in their prototypicality. Genre analysis reflects discursive practices in disciplinary communities and allows for different analytical perspectives. Bhatia (2004) defines genre analysis as the study of how language is used in a particular setting, focusing on rhetorical and discourse styles and types. In addition to identifying specialised language, a genre-based approach emphasises the needs of language in specific situations and contexts. As result, target situation analysis, or needs analysis, emerged to link language use with the purpose of communication.

1.5 Language skills in ESP

Different language teaching methods have different priorities. Some emphasise oral skills over reading and writing, others general communication skills and the ability to express oneself effectively. Still others emphasise grammatical correctness and pronunciation. Some methods aim to teach basic grammar and vocabulary, while others focus on learning behaviours and processes. The approach taken to teaching a language depends on the aims and needs of the students.

Language skills include speaking, listening, writing and reading, and the emphasis on each skill may vary depending on the context and learning objectives. Self-taught learners may excel in reading and writing but lack in other skills. However, to truly master a language, all four skills must be practised as they are interrelated. Language skills are divided into receptive skills (listening and reading) and productive skills (speaking and writing), and learners need to develop proficiency in all of them to learn a language properly.

Learning English is not enough for students to be able to perform the tasks required in an academic or professional environment (Dudley-Evans & St. John, 1998). They also need study skills, such as adapting reading speed, using a dictionary, interpreting graphs and diagrams, taking notes and summarizing (Jordan, 1997). These skills are particularly important for university students studying English for a specific subject. Teachers need to understand when and how to develop these skills in their students to better prepare them for their future careers.

1.5.1   Reading

Reading is a vital tool for students to acquire knowledge and achieve expected learning outcomes in their studies. According to Wixson et al. (1987), reading involves understanding context and information and using existing knowledge to build new knowledge. Prior knowledge is essential for understanding the meaning of a text. Watkins (2018) identified different types of reading, including extensive reading for pleasure, which allows students to choose what they want to read, and intensive reading, which involves detailed reading of grammar and vocabulary. Both types of reading require engagement and the use of reading strategies. Scanning involves looking quickly for specific information, while skimming involves focusing briefly on a few words per line and headings to identify the general idea of a text. Teachers should provide materials for extensive reading and train students in reading strategies for intensive reading.

In academic settings, it is widely recognised that reading is one of the most important language skills for research because of the status of English as the language of textbooks and journals. Robinson (1991) suggested that "reading is probably the most generally needed skill in EAP worldwide" (p. 102) in order to extract the needed information. Hence, the teaching of reading in EAP is aimed at getting the maximum benefit by concentrating on what is relevant to the students' purpose.

Reading involves cognitive skills that require thinking at the level of language. According to Goodman (1988), reading is a psycholinguistic guessing game involving an interaction between language and thought. In teaching ESP, learners should be involved in selecting texts that are appropriate to their level, interests and needs. Teachers cannot rely solely on the institution's textbooks, but must focus on materials that stimulate learners to

read and make reading beneficial. Hutchinson and Waters (1987) pointed out that materials should be selected to stimulate learners' interest in reading.

1.5.2   Listening

Listening involves interpreting speech by understanding the message you hear so that you can respond to it. It is important for ESP students to work on developing listening comprehension as English is used in lectures. Therefore, Richards (1983) proposed a list of micro-skills for effective listening comprehension:

- Determine the purpose and scope of the monologue

- Identify the topic of the lecture

- Recognise the role of discourse markers

- Recognise key lexical items related to the topic

- Deduce word meanings from context

- Recognise the function of intonation in signalling information structure.

Hadfield (2008) suggests that listening is probably the most difficult skill to acquire in a second language because spoken language is very different from written text. In English, speakers may omit subjects or verbs, pause mid-sentence, hesitate while thinking about what to say next, or include words, phrases or ideas that are not essential. Hence, we highlight different kinds of activities and strategies proposed by Hadfield to develop listening skills:

- Listening with a purpose
- Listening for gist
- Listening for specific details

In addition to its receptive nature, it requires the active participation of the listener. This definition then involves a series of complex processes that go from the simple perception of sounds to the process of a social aspect of language in which the receiver constructs and negotiates meanings.

1.5.3   Writing

For students in higher education, writing is the most important skill because it involves the ability to express ideas clearly and coherently in examinations. In this respect, teachers can sometimes only measure students' knowledge, skills and progress through writing. The

development of this language skill in ELT also means that students need to use different aspects of language such as grammar, vocabulary, spelling and punctuation (Usó-Juan & Martínez-Flor, 2006).

With regard to EFL students, writing is the most difficult skill as it requires generating ideas, organising them and translating these ideas into a readable text (Richards & Renandya, 2002). In addition, writing should be a teacher-guided process as it allows for monitoring and diagnosing problems while writing paragraphs, notes, essays, and reports. Therefore, genre analysis has become the most widely used and effective methodology in teaching ESP writing (Hyland, 2013).

In guiding the development of this skill, Hadfield (2008) suggested that teachers can divide the writing activity into many stages, each practising an important sub-skill in the process, in order to build this communicative potential in their students.

In academic writing, there are three approaches to writing (Robinson, 1991; Dudley-Evans, 1998):

1- The product approach

Model Text➔ Comprehension/Analysis/ Manipulation➔ New Input ➔ Parallel Text

2- The process approach

The thinking stage (general ideas; select ideas; group the ideas; order the ideas) ➔ *The process stage* (writing task; draft 1; feedback; revision; input; draft 2; feedback; revision; draft 3).

3- The social-constructionist approach

The social-constructionist approach to teaching writing is linked to the development of the genre analysis as a key element in ESP texts.

1.5.4   Speaking

In ESP classrooms, academic speaking is neglected and considered the least necessary skill because of the lack of knowledge of the subject matter (Robinson, 1991). According to Brown (2000), speaking is "an interactive process of constructing meaning that involves producing, receiving and processing information" (p. 263). This means that speaking is the act of conveying information or expressing one's thoughts and feelings through the use of verbal and non-verbal symbols, in a variety of contexts. Similarly, Jordan (1997) asserted that

speaking is used in academic situations such as: asking questions in lectures, interpreting, and oral presentations.

Based on ESP literature, speaking is a challenge for both teachers and learners to practise a wide range of language functions and situations. Speaking in a foreign language is a linguistic ability that encompasses not only pronunciation, lexicon, and grammar, but also socio-cultural and pragmatic knowledge of the target language. According to Nunan (1989), the ability to speak in English is perhaps the most challenging skill for learners because it requires several different skills, including:

- Pronouncing different phonemes in an intelligible way

- Effective use of stress, rhythm and intonation patterns

- Speaking fluently

- Possessing good transactional and interpersonal skills

- Taking short and long turns

- Managing interactions effectively

- Negotiating meaning

- Listening effectively in conversations

- Understanding the purpose of the conversation

- Using appropriate conversation formulas and filters

It can be inferred that oral expression is a critical aspect of students' language skills and practice, as it requires mastery of both micro and macro skills. Consequently, students may feel nervous about being misunderstood or judged when speaking. To encourage students to become more interested and motivated in speaking English, Hadfield (2008) suggests assigning discussion topics for pairs of students to practise before speaking in front of the whole class. Additionally, he recommended that teachers provide feedback to students and avoid interrupting them while speaking, as this can hinder their development of fluency.

1.6 Language Sub-skills

Not integrating or separating grammar and vocabulary from the other skills does not facilitate the acquisition of a new language, but rather limits it. In other words, teaching vocabulary and grammar independently of the other four skills is unproductive. For example, memorising decontextualised vocabulary from the dictionary does not ensure that the learner knows the correct meaning of a word.

1.6.1 Grammar

The role of grammar in foreign language teaching has changed over time, depending on different theories and approaches to language learning and teaching. To begin with, the grammar-translation method taught Latin and focused on learning a foreign language through the study of literature. This method emphasised the deductive teaching of grammar by presenting rules and then translating them. In the mid-nineteenth century, the direct method emerged, which emphasised speaking and listening and inductively presented grammar rules for students to find out for themselves. Later, the audio-lingual method gained popularity, which viewed language learning as mastering language elements and combining them into phrases and sentences. This method also saw language learning as a habit-forming process, leading to the memorisation of dialogues and various grammatical exercises.

The 1970s witnessed the emergence of communicative approaches to language teaching (Halliday, 1970; Hymes, 1972; Widdowson, 1978), which moved away from the idea that grammar is the central component. Instead, the aim was to achieve communicative competence, which consisted of four essential components: grammatical competence, sociolinguistic competence, strategic competence and discourse competence (Canale & Swain, 1980). Grammar was no longer seen as an end in itself, but as a means of expressing meaning and facilitating communication. However, grammar is still relevant in analysing sentence structure features in ESP contexts, with discourse markers such as voice, verb tenses, articles, nominalisations and logical connectors being important (Dudley-Evans & St. John, 1998). Teaching grammar in ESP contexts should be based on learners' needs (Zhang, 2009), and research is needed to determine the most effective way to present grammar in these contexts.

1.6.2 Vocabulary

Vocabulary building is crucial for both productive and receptive language skills and requires considerable effort and time. A larger vocabulary enables students to use language more effectively in different contexts. Lexical problems often hinder communication, as communication can break down if the wrong words are used. According to Allen (1983), research shows that lexical problems often interfere with communication. Without a basic understanding of vocabulary, students cannot carry on a conversation, leading to a breakdown in communication and an inability to convey messages effectively. Therefore, a wide range of

vocabulary helps individuals to communicate with others and to understand the intended message.

The most important aspect of learning vocabulary is that students know how to use it in a context by selecting words that are useful to them. To do this, students need to go through a series of steps to learn vocabulary. Some researchers have demonstrated that one of the tenets of learning English as a foreign language is to have a basic command or knowledge of the vocabulary. Moreover, the main issue with teaching vocabulary is that only a small amount of information about a word is usually taught at one time (Nation, 2001), leading to forgetting of infrequently used words. Independent learning through listening and reading exercises is often more effective for vocabulary acquisition because it enables learners to understand the meaning of words, their pronunciation, and their use in different contexts. This is referred to as "learning burden" (Nation, 2001, p.2), where teachers analyse the importance of specific words to be taught. The author also suggested teaching word forms, including the spoken and written forms, as well as the grammatical functions and use of the word.

Jeanne McCarten (2007) developed two theories of vocabulary acquisition: teaching from the corpus and teaching from the classroom. These two methods include the main aspects of teaching vocabulary and what students should know in class at the time of learning English, such as the meaning of words, differences and similarities with the mother tongue and grammar rules. It also defines two types of vocabulary that the teacher must clarify when teaching:

1- Active or productive vocabulary, which is the vocabulary we want students to be able to use when speaking and writing.

2- Passive or receptive vocabulary, which is defined as the vocabulary we want them to be able to recognise and understand, but not necessarily produce.

She found that there are between 2,000 and 5,000 high-frequency words that should be given priority in teaching. The data is used to explore the different meanings of words in different contexts, such as conversations, magazines and academic books. This study involves examining the frequency of words and phrases, identifying differences in the use of vocabulary between spoken and written language, understanding the contexts in which particular vocabulary is used, analysing word collocations, observing grammatical patterns

and how words combine to form them, and recognising how vocabulary is used strategically to organise and manage discourse (McCarten, 2007).

Cultural Awareness

Language and culture are deeply intertwined, making it challenging to fully understand one without the other. Communication styles, vocabulary, and nonverbal cues are all influenced by cultural contexts. A study by Fulcher and Davidson (2007) found that learners who have a solid grasp of cultural context display greater proficiency and confidence in using the language. Despite often being overlooked, culture plays a crucial role in language acquisition, enhancing the learning experience and fostering a comprehensive understanding. Stanlaw (2013) emphasized that understanding cultural context is vital for a deeper comprehension of a language and its associated worldviews, which is essential for fostering cross-cultural understanding among foreign language learners.

Culture is integral to language learning and should not be seen as an additional skill alongside speaking, listening, reading, and writing. It operates in the background from the very beginning, often challenging learners' communicative competence and their understanding of the world (Kramsch, 1993).

Understanding the cultural context of everyday conversational conventions such as greetings, forms of address, and making requests goes beyond simply producing grammatically correct sentences. It involves knowing what is appropriate to say in various situations and grasping the underlying beliefs and values represented by different language forms. Therefore, culture must be integrated as a crucial element of language learning.

1.7 Factors Affecting Learning

ESP can benefit from the successful guidelines provided by second language learning theories, as pointed out by Hyland (2009). The literature on second language acquisition has identified several factors, such as interests, backgrounds, learning styles, and attitudes that can impact adult students' outcomes in learning English. Thus, it is crucial for teachers to consider various factors when developing foreign language materials, including emotional factors such as *motivation*. Gardner (2010) stated that motivation is determined by attitudes towards learning and the effort a student is willing to make. Dornyei (2001) emphasised the importance of a positive attitude towards language learning, which can be fostered by using authentic texts of current events that have socio-cultural value. Schumann (1999) argued that

the brain evaluates incoming stimuli on the basis of novelty, pleasantness, goal/need significance, coping potential and self/social image. Students will reject stimuli that do not meet their needs. Tomlinson (1998) also suggested that incorporating students' experiences, feelings, opinions and cognitive abilities can help to achieve active participation in the learning process.

From a cognitive perspective, students' interest can help them to integrate new information with existing concepts in their cognitive structure. According to Ausubel's Subsumption Theory, the learner makes a conscious effort to integrate new information by linking it to existing relevant concepts and propositions in his/her cognitive structure (Ausubel et al., 1978, as cited in Novak, 1993). Therefore, the material must be meaningful and clear enough for learners to relate new concepts to existing knowledge.

Personality is another factor that can influence language learning. Students with a personality that easily accepts the risks involved in learning a foreign language are more likely to be successful. On the other hand, low self-esteem can cause anxiety and inhibit communication and the willingness to make mistakes, which can have a negative impact on the language learning process (Maclntyre & Gardner, 1994). The language classroom can be stressful for many students (Dornyei, 2001), especially for those with low language proficiency. It is therefore important to create a supportive environment where students feel comfortable expressing themselves without fear of ridicule or shame. Krashen's (1985) affective filter hypothesis highlights the role of affective factors in second language learning, with high motivation and self-confidence leading to low affective filters and better language learning outcomes. Teachers can help to reduce anxiety in the classroom by incorporating activities that cater for different learning styles and strategies (Dornyei, 2001; Tomlinson, 2003).

Aptitude also influences language learning because each individual is different and has different language learning abilities, such as phonetic coding ability, ability to identify unfamiliar sounds, ability to learn language inductively, ability to identify rules and patterns, grammatical sensitivity, ability to identify the grammatical functions of words, memory or rote learning ability, and ability to remember associations (Carroll, 1990). Wen and Skehan (2011) added that high aptitude students are gifted in their abilities and skills in acquiring new linguistic items (i.e., they acquire these features relatively easily and faster than others). However, Csolle & Kormos (2004) claimed that language aptitude cannot simply predict

whether or not a learner will be able to learn a foreign language, but it can predict the rate of progress the individual is likely to make. In other words, some people will learn languages more easily than others because of their intellectual abilities. Therefore, language aptitude tests can predict how quickly and easily foreign languages can be learned (Dornyei, 2005).

Regarding *age*, a very important factor, impacts how a student learns a foreign language. Early exposure to language instruction consistently produces better outcomes (Snow, 1983), and starting the acquisition of the first language at an early age leads to better fluency in a second language later on. There is evidence that there is a critical period for accent acquisition, with children who learn a second language in the early years having a better accent than adults who learn English as a second language. Neurologists Penfield and Roberts (1959) conducted research showing that children's brains have enormous plasticity, which diminishes as they grow into adulthood. They concluded that the left side of the brain plays a primary role in language learning and that the best age to start learning a second language at school is between four and ten. While children learn languages quickly and effortlessly, adults have advantages such as greater memory storage capacity and analytical skills. Adults also understand language rules with greater depth and insight than children, and they are often more motivated to learn a foreign language for specific purposes (Rogoff, 1990).

The *learning strategies* used by language learners are an important factor in language acquisition. Research has demonstrated the significance of incorporating learning strategies into language teaching (Oxford, 1990; O'Malley & Chamot, 1990), and teaching materials should be selected with this in mind. Cognitive theory emphasises the importance of certain thinking processes in retaining knowledge, and learning strategies are mental action plans for achieving educational goals (Bimmel, 1993). According to Oxford (1990), there are direct and indirect learning strategies, and they are divided into six main groups. Direct strategies involve mental processing of the language, such as memory, cognitive, and compensation strategies. Indirect strategies provide indirect support for language learning, such as meta-cognitive, affective, and social strategies.

Vocabulary learning strategies are a subcategory of language learning strategies that have gained importance due to the interest in the active role of learners in the learning process. For this reason, many researchers (Oxford & Scarcellat, 1994; Schmitt, 1997) have acknowledged their correlation with language learning strategies for integrative reading

comprehension and oral communication tasks. While it is important to learn isolated words, it is crucial to systematically incorporate them into communicative contexts. Developing communicative competence involves not only language skills but also communicative and non-verbal strategies and an understanding of culture-specific meanings. Therefore, it is essential to practise these strategies in the language classroom.

The use of different *learning styles* significantly impacts students' academic performance, as learners benefit when their styles align with the learning environment and resources. Felder and Henriques (1995) define learning style as the methods individuals use to acquire, store, and retrieve information, typically categorised into visual, auditory, and kinesthetic modalities. Harmer (2007) explains that students with strong visual skills tend to remember information better when they see it, while those with strong auditory skills respond well to what they hear. Some students learn more effectively through physical activities. Although all students engage multiple senses, some may have a stronger preference for visual, auditory, or kinesthetic learning, which influences how they absorb information.

Due to diverse educational and cultural backgrounds, personalities, and learning experiences, each person learns a foreign language differently, resulting in varying levels of success. Recent research in foreign language education emphasizes the importance of individual differences among learners, particularly regarding learning styles, which extend beyond mere variations in intelligence, interest, and motivation. By understanding these styles, teachers can create supportive environments that facilitate optimal learning. Teachers should act as facilitators, fostering learning atmospheres that align with student development and promote effective interactions.

1.8 ESP Course Design

Hutchinson and Waters (1987) defined a course as a cohesive sequence of teaching-learning experiences designed to guide learners towards a particular level of knowledge. They also defined ESP course design as the process of interpreting a learning need to create a comprehensive set of teaching-learning experiences that are specifically designed to guide learners towards a desired level of knowledge. Based on this definition, it can be concluded that the purpose of ESP courses is to create appropriate content and effective tasks and activities that meet the learning needs of ESP learners. According to the authors, course design is essentially a matter of asking questions and seeking answers that determine what

should be implemented in the course in terms of syllabus, materials and methodology. The authors listed questions that course designers need to answer:

1) Why does the student need to learn?

2) Who will be involved in the process?

3) Where will the learning take place?

4) What are the advantages and disadvantages of the location?

5) When will the learning take place?

6) How much time is available?

7) What does the learner need to learn?

8) What aspect of the language is needed?

9) How will it be described?

10) What level is required?

11) What topics will be covered?

12) What learning theory will underpin the course? And what methodology will be used?

By asking these questions prior to planning course design, the course designer will make decisions about what to teach, how to teach, to whom and for what purpose. This review can be divided into three general categories that make up an ESP course: language descriptions (what?), which refers to the content; learning theories (how?), which refers to the methodology; and, finally, needs analysis (who? why? where? when?), which refers to the specific nature of the target situation and learning situation. The figure below shows all the main aspects of the course development process.
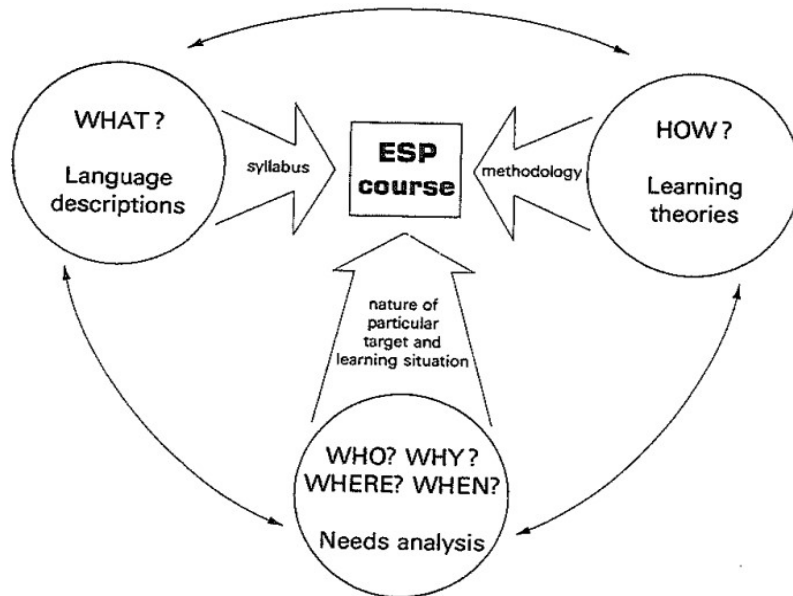
Figure 1.1 Factors Influencing the Design of ESP Courses (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987)

Dudley-Evans and St. John (1998) discussed some parameters for a well-designed course in the form of the following questions:

- Should the course be intensive or extensive?
- Should the learner's performance be assessed or not?
- Should the course address immediate needs or delayed needs?
- Should the teacher's role be that of a knowledge provider or a knowledge facilitator?
- Should the course be pre-experience or during experience?
- Should the material be common core or specific?
- Should the group of learners be homogeneous or heterogeneous?
- Should the course design be worked out by the language teacher in consultation with the learners and the institution, or should it be subject to a process of negotiation with the learners?

The various parameters can assist ESP teachers to design courses that are tailored to the learners' needs and objectives for using the target language. Additionally, the use of a range of language tests, such as placement tests, can be beneficial in determining students' language proficiency and skills at the start of a course.

1.9 Approaches to Course Design

ESP course design is also a process in which the teacher adopts an approach that will influence the design of the syllabus, the selection of materials, and the assessment procedures. Hutchinson and Waters (1987) suggested three approaches that can be adopted by ESP course designers according to the objectives of the course: (1) language-centred, (2) skills-centred and (3) learning-centred.

1.9.1   Language-centred Approach

The language-centred approach in ESP course design seeks to establish a direct connection between the language needs of the learners and the course content. This approach begins by examining the linguistic features of the target situation and then designing the course accordingly. However, Hutchinson and Waters (1987) have pointed out that this approach has some limitations, such as being static and inflexible, and not being learner-centred. Since this approach does not allow for feedback and does not consider the learner's perspective throughout the course design process, it can be seen as being learner-restricted.

The language-centred approach to ESP course design may not take into account the learners' motivation and attitudes towards language learning, as it prioritises linguistic form over other factors. Thus, ESP teachers should adopt a more learner-centred approach that takes into account learners' feedback, motivation, and attitudes towards language learning in order to create a more effective and engaging learning experience.
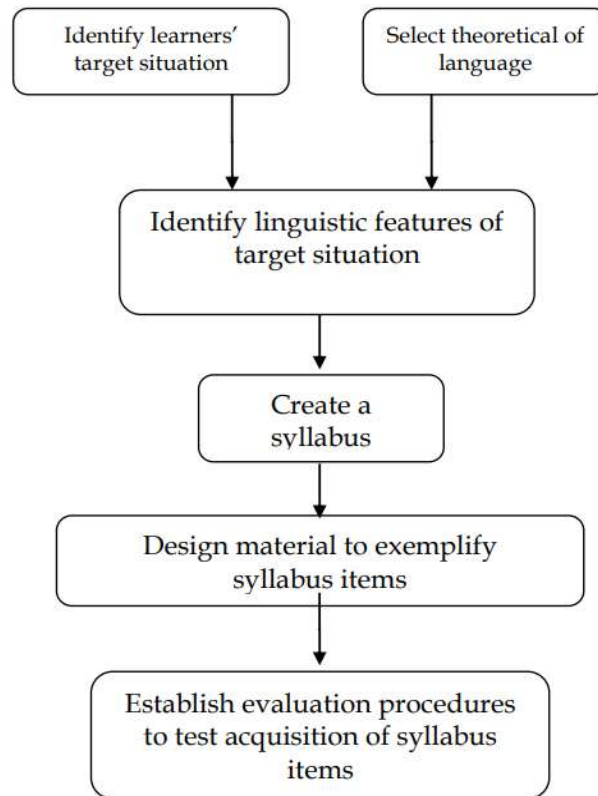
Figure 1.2 Language-centred Approach to Course Design (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987, p.66)

1.9.2 Skill-centred Approach

The skill-centred approach in ESP course design aims to assist learners for acquiring the necessary skills and strategies required for the target situation. The authors identified two fundamental principles that underpin this approach. The first principle is that language behaviour is underpinned by certain skills and strategies that learners use to comprehend or produce discourse. The second principle is that the ESP course should aid learners in developing specific strategies and skills that will enable them to effectively deal with the target discourse beyond the course.

The skill-centred approach begins with identifying the required skills and strategies, followed by gathering theoretical perspectives on language and learning. The skill-centred approach to ESP course design prioritises the learners' need to develop skills and strategies relevant to their target situation. Compared to the language-centred approach, the skill-centred approach is more learner-centred and ensures that learners are better prepared to apply their learning in real-life situations beyond the classroom.
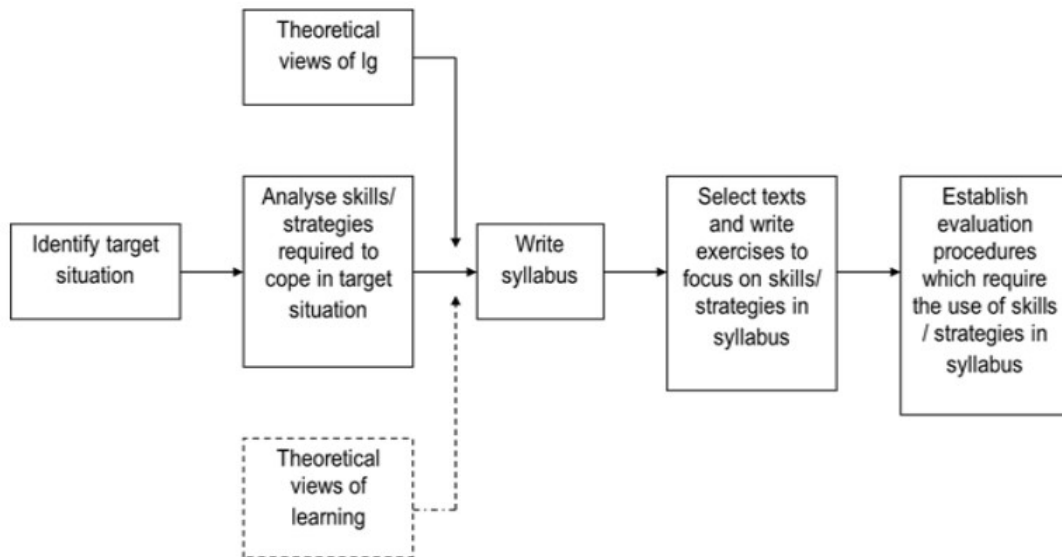
Figure 1.3 A Skill-centred Approach to Course Design (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987, p.71)

1.9.3   Learning-centred Approach

In contrast to the previous approach which viewed the learner as "a user of language rather than as a learner of language" (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987, p.70), the learning-centred approach emphasises looking beyond achieving the target competencies and needs. The approach is concerned not only with the competence, but also with how the learners acquire it. Therefore, it considers the learning situation and feedback to assess course content, teaching methods and decision-making (Nunan, 1987). This approach has two implications. Firstly, course design becomes a negotiated process, taking into account the specific learning and target situations. Secondly, course design becomes a dynamic process that includes feedback channels, allowing for adjustments to be made in response to unexpected developments during the course.
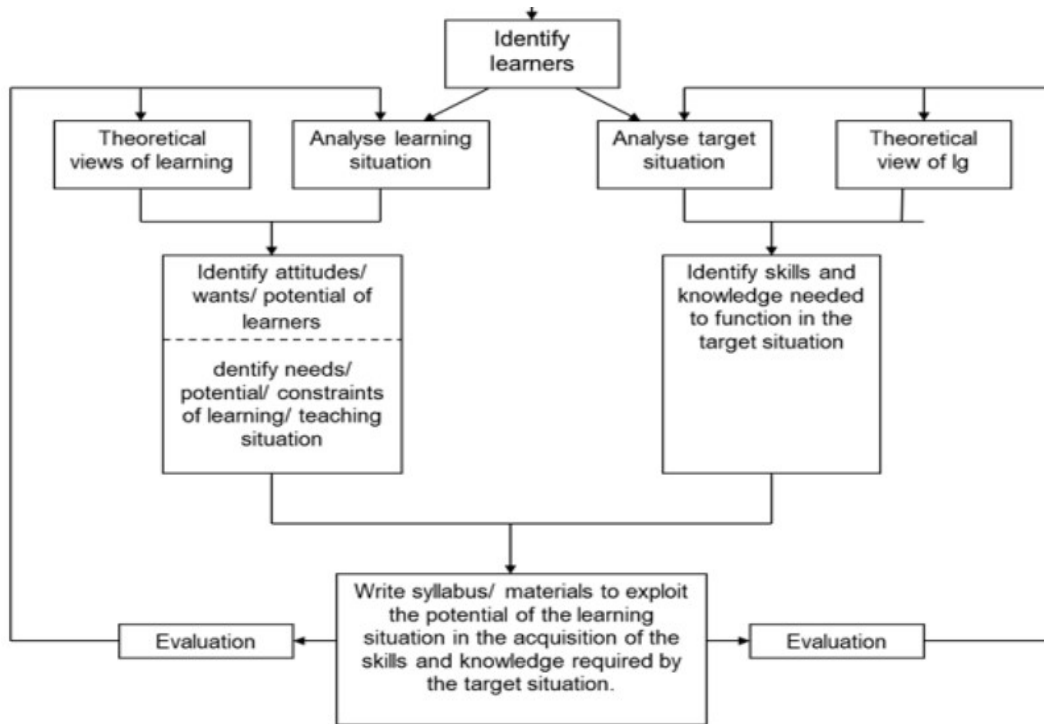
Figure 1.4 A Learning-centred Approach to Course Design (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987, p.74).

ESP teachers often consider the learning-centred approach essential when designing ESP courses, as it emphasises understanding how learners acquire language and the use of feedback channels. However, there is no single approach to designing ESP courses, and teachers should adapt different approaches to suit each specific context and learner needs. All approaches should be viewed as complementary, as each brings its own strengths, and should be adapted to the specific situation and learners (Robinson, 1991).

1.10   Approaches to Teaching ESP

An issue that has received much attention in educational reforms in most countries is the teaching of a second/ foreign language. Since there is no ideal method for teaching or learning a language, it is advisable to combine different approaches to meet the needs of each specific group of students under the concept of eclecticism. Each approach relies heavily on different aspects of language and neglects other important aspects. In the context of ESP, "It is wise to take an eclectic approach, taking what is useful from each theory and trusting in the evidence of your own experience as a teacher" (Hutchison & Waters, 1987, p.51).

1.10.1 Content-Based Approach

The Content-Based Instruction (CBI) proposes a cognitive and motivational foundation in which students develop both language proficiency and content knowledge by learning English in the context of the subject matter. According to Snow (2001), subject matter in CBI is defined by topics or themes that are based on the interests or needs in an adult EFL setting. In essence, CBI integrates a specific content of academic subject matter content with second/foreign language skills (Brinton et al., 2003).

In ESP settings, language teachers are required to deliver courses in various subjects (biology, chemistry, finance, law, engineering, etc.) using English as the medium for information. This approach considers students' language needs (Richards & Rodgers, 2001) as they are active participants in the exchange of content. They will themselves consult content relevant to their lives, interests, and/or academic goals.

It is worth noting that in language classes, exercises and tasks are tailored to the subject being taught, with the aim of encouraging students to think and learn through active use of the target language (Brinton et al., 1989). Nonetheless, according to Peachey (2003) content-based instruction still has some challenges such as:
- Learners may feel anxious and confused about how to improve their language skills because this approach does not specifically teach grammar.
- There may also be an excessive use of the mother tongue so that students can communicate their ideas quickly and easily.
- Some learners may copy exactly from reading texts to answer questions or discuss the topic.

1.10.2 The Lexical Approach

The lexical approach emerged in the 1990s as a rejection of the structuralist approach in order to discover useful language patterns for language teaching and learning. Drawing on research in applied linguistics, Michael Lewis (1993, 1997) emphasised the concept that lexical phrases are valuable in language education. Starting from the idea that language acquisition lies in the ability to understand, interpret and produce lexical phrases, Lewis provides a broader insight into their value in ESL/EFL contexts - how they interact with

components of grammar and pragmatics and their role in language acquisition. The author suggested a number of systemic implications of the lexical approach, as follows:

- The structure of language consists primarily of grammaticalised vocabulary, as opposed to vocabulary that has been transformed into grammar.

- The grammar/vocabulary dichotomy is invalid; the essentiality of a language consists of word combinations or chunks.

- The central element of language teaching is the creation of pedagogical chunks.

- The superiority of oral language over written language.

- Grammar is acquired through a process of observation, hypothesis and experimentation.

- The role of grammar

- Receptive skills such as listening are given greater importance.

- In language learning, decontextualised vocabulary learning is a legitimate strategy to maximise their communicative skills which, despite their grammatical inaccuracy, will improve once grammatical patterns of lexical chunks are discovered.

- The emphasis is on task and process, not exercise and product.

- English should be compared with the learner's mother tongue for the purpose of language awareness.

It is clear that Lewis is trying to develop student's linguistic abilities, based not on the application of grammar but on complex lexical phrases. These lexical phrases are multi-word prefabricated chunks of language that support the appropriate use of language. Therefore, Lewis (1997) proposed four categories (words, collocations, fixed and semi-fixed expressions) of lexical items that are stored so that they can be retrieved for social interaction in specific situations.

1.10.3 Project-Based Approach

Project-Based Learning is viewed as an instructional approach that implements a set of learning activities based on solving problems, through a process of design and planning by the student who works autonomously to produce a publicly-exhibited output (Patton, 2012). Project-based learning involves guiding students to discover knowledge on their own and collaborate with others to research and develop projects (Bell, 2010). This approach offers several advantages, such as increasing student motivation, improving problem-solving abilities, fostering collaboration and coexistence, and enhancing resource management skills

(Anazifa & Djukri, 2017). This generally reflects the basic skills that students need to be able to function in academic and future work environments. According to Thomas (2000), PBL is a model that organises learning around projects, which is characterised by promoting communication and student's autonomy in real contexts. PBL is also defined as an instruction that focuses on student autonomy, constructive inquiry, goal setting, collaboration, communication, and reflection on real-world practice (Kokotsaki, et al., 2016).

In the context of ESP, Noom-ura (2013) claimed that PBL and ESP are a perfect match because the main component of PBL and the distinctive aspects of ESP can go hand in hand to enhance language acquisition and achieve proficiency. Stoller (2006), Richards and Renandya (2002) and Dhieb-Henia (1999) proposed a model to guide teachers in developing and sequencing project work for their ESP classrooms. It consists of the following steps:

- Defining a theme
- Determining the final outcome
- Structuring the project
- Identifying language skills and strategies
- Gathering information and sharing materials
- Compiling and analysing information
- Writing the first draft
- Oral presentation
- Final project presentation
- Assessment and grading.

Based on the literature, the researchers suggest that designing courses based on project work could be one of the most effective ways in ESP programmes, as students use language in purposeful communication to complete authentic activities that they may encounter in their future careers.

1.10.4 The Task-Based Approach

The Task-Based Approach emerged in the late 1980s and has been developed by various researchers as a result of the widespread interest in the communicative framework of language teaching (Richards & Rodgers, 2004). According to some authors (Long, 1989; Skehan, 2003; Ellis, 2003), Task Based Language Teaching promotes organising the course

around a final task or a series of tasks that provide opportunities for communication and the exchange of real and meaningful experiences.

In this approach, students will engage, communicate, and cooperate with each other to complete the task. In other words, the aim of task-based learning is to provide students with a natural context for using of the language. Willis (1996) explained that the incorporation of tasks into teaching and learning is a communicative and meaning-based process in which learners are engaged in expressing their thoughts without essentially using an accurate language. In the same vein, Skehan (2003) added that tasks should have a communicative purpose and focus on the meaning rather than on the grammatical structure.

TBLT makes it possible to challenge the way a foreign language is taught. It prepares students for their professional performance and increases motivation, as the tasks have to be directly related to situations that the students may face in their professional life. The role of the teacher in the classroom becomes that of a facilitator, guiding the work and encouraging cooperation.

1.11 ESP Teacher Job Description

Due to the wide range of programmes falling under the umbrella of ESP, it is difficult to provide a single description of the role of ESP teachers and the tasks they must perform. However, despite this void, there are certain key elements that distinguish ESP teachers from their counterparts in GE classes. According to Hutchinson and Waters (1987), while ESP and GE teachers may share the same theoretical underpinnings of language teaching, they often differ greatly in their practical approaches.

The main task of an ESP teacher is to analyse the language needs of their students according to their field of study or profession. They then design a syllabus and select relevant teaching materials that meet the specific language needs of their students. Unlike GE teachers, who may have more general teaching experience, ESP teachers may not necessarily have specific expertise in their students' areas of study. ESP teachers need to educate themselves about their students' fields of study or profession to be effective instructors.

Unlike other English learners, ESP learners are responsible for identifying their language deficiencies, actively participating in correcting and monitoring the changes. These students are also experts in their fields but are weak in English. ESP teachers are not

necessarily supposed to be experts in the students' field, but they do need to have basic knowledge on the subject matter. Hutchinson and Waters (1987) emphasised the notion that an ESP teacher should not be a teacher of the subject matter, but instead should approach the subject matter as an enthusiastic student. In a nutshell, the ESP teacher is an advisor and a consultant who facilitates the learning process rather than providing information.

On a personal level, the teacher needs to show interest in the subject, a willingness to deal with very different groups of students, often in a short space of time, and finally the flexibility to rethink the course content according to the needs of the students. In fact, ESP has the flexibility to adapt to different situations and different groups of students (Robinson, 1991; Hutchinson & Waters, 1987; Dudley Evans & St. John, 1998).

In a student-centred curriculum, the teacher is open to analysing the changing needs of his or her students, which means that the programme is subject to constant change and adaptation. This creates a new role within the teacher's job. The ESP course involves several tasks: analysing students' needs, outlining objectives, selecting/adapting teaching materials, designing lessons, creating an adult-oriented learning environment and assessing students' progress (Schleppegrell, 1991). All these aspects have led to the need to redefine the profession of the teacher when it is focused on specific purposes, since "there is no single ideal role description" (Robinson, 1991, p.79). For this reason, Dudley-Evans and St. John (1998) use the term 'practitioner' instead of a teacher, since according to these authors, the roles go beyond teaching: being a language teacher, being a course designer and provider of materials, being a collaborator, being a researcher and, finally, being an evaluator. If we review these five aspects in more depth, we conclude the following:

1- The ESP practitioner as a teacher

The methodology of ESP is not fundamentally different from that used to teach EGP (Dudley-Evans & St. John, 1998). Nonetheless, the teacher acts as a facilitator who encourages authentic communication and shows interest in their students' field of study. ESP teachers are no longer the sole experts in the subject and, hence, they guide students in activities such as writing reports or research papers, reviewing their work and giving feedback. The aim of this guidance is to improve students' language skills.

2- The ESP practitioner as a course designer and material provider

A specific course revolves around the learner, and as such the course must meet the needs of the learner. It is the teacher's responsibility to conduct needs analysis in order to gather information from the students. With the data, the teacher can determine the objectives, methodology and content. In general, ESP teachers select or adapt the material and in some cases even write their own material when reliable textbooks are not available. The role of the ESP teacher is therefore more demanding for beginners.

3- *The ESP practitioner as a researcher*

The ESP practitioner must be able to conduct research to investigate the genre and discourse of the discipline, as well as the aspects involved in needs analysis, course design and materials production, in order to incorporate research findings into practice.

4- *The ESP practitioner as a collaborator*

It is recommended that ESP teachers collaborate with subject teachers for support and guidance in understanding new content. There are actually three types of collaboration: simple collaboration, specific collaboration and full collaboration. Simple collaboration refers to gathering information from subject teachers about the tasks that students have to perform in their professional environment and in the discourse community. Specific collaboration mainly involves the ESP teacher and the subject teacher working together to design an appropriate syllabus. In full collaboration, known as 'team teaching', the ESP practitioner and the subject teacher are together in the same ESP classroom.

5- *The ESP practitioner as an evaluator*

The ESP teacher should evaluate not only the learner's progress but also the effectiveness of the course and materials during the course and at the end of the course. In ESP courses, ongoing assessment of learners and their needs helps the ESP practitioner to know the compatibility of the course and materials used. Both summative and formative evaluation of the course and materials should be undertaken to help learners review and improve their learning.

In addition to the above characteristics, it is also important to consider that language teachers have certain personal characteristics that allow for better development in teaching ESP, such as adaptability, creativity, organisational and leadership skills, and the ability to

establish cultural communication effectively (Hutchinson & Waters, 1990; Robinson, 1991). However, most ESP teachers start out as GE teachers and have not had any training in ESP (Hutchinson & Waters, 1990). For this reason, when they encounter technical texts, they feel a lack of vocabulary and frustration; an uncomfortable position for a person who is generally considered to be knowledgeable. Therefore, the teacher does not need to be an expert in the field, but has the ability to handle the situation and to negotiate meaning with the students. In addition, teachers, most of whom are GE-trained, need to study and learn about other fields than their own when they enter the field of ESP (Hutchinson & Waters, 1990). Therefore, ESP practitioners need training in language course design, disciplinary knowledge such as economics, physics, nursing, catering, etc.

1.12 English for Legal Purposes

English for legal purposes is mainly characterised as a technical language (Mattila, 2006), used by professionals and difficult for ordinary people to understand. The specificity of legalese is one of the most important problems that affect not only people who are learning it, but also hundreds of native speakers around the world. This requires a unique, comprehensive and systematic approach to the selection of legal vocabulary from legal texts and specialised sources. When Algerian law students start studying legal English, they usually have no prior knowledge of legal terminology. In fact, knowledge of general English is not sufficient to understand a legal text because legal language differs from ordinary language in terms of vocabulary, morphology, syntax, semantics and other linguistic features (Tiersma, 2000). Moreover, legal English is mainly characterised by the use of archaic words, Latin and French words, nominalisations, embedded clauses, passive verbs and long sentences. It is clear that legal English is a very complicated and difficult language.

It is worth noting that Legal English is increasingly being used internationally as a lingua franca, which makes the challenge of translation both inevitable and special. Legal English covers different legal systems and different types of jurisdiction (De Groot, 1996), and the legal terminology of different legal systems is conceptually incongruent (Biel, 2007). Therefore, it is necessary to compare the legal systems of the source language and the target language (Cao, 2007).

1.12.1 Development of Legal English

The English legal system is the result of what the English people have done for years, shaped by the peculiarities of the English people and their historical development as a nation. As a specialised language, one of the characteristics of legal English is the lack of legal codification and the emergence of the legal tradition through orality. Celtic law was mainly based on sayings or maxims, expressed in a semi-poetic and rhetorical language, characterised by alliteration. The poets acted as judges where they were entrusted with the task of preserving this oral tradition and reciting these legal aphorisms (Tiersma, 1999).

The Anglo-Saxon Period

In the fifth century, following the collapse of the Roman Empire, Germanic tribes (Angles, Saxons, Frisians and Jutes) began to migrate from southern Denmark and northern Germany into eastern and southern Britain. The Celts had no choice but to assimilate with the Anglo-Saxon population or move to Scotland, the Isle of Man, Wales, Cornwall, Ireland or Brittany. The Anglo-Saxons spoke different dialects that came from the same Germanic language, commonly called 'Old English'. Around 600, King Aethelbert of Kent promulgated the first laws written in Old English because of the development of new political institutions and the need to codify legislation (Tiersma, 1999). They developed a kind of legal language whose words have survived to this day. Examples include the words: bequeath, goods, guilt, land, sheriff, swear, thief, land, manslaughter, murder, and right.

Some formulas of alliteration, which were recited orally to make them easier to remember in the law of the Germanic tribes, are still found in binomial expressions or conjoined phrases in which two parallel elements are connected by a conjunction such as 'and' or 'or' (Tiersma, 1999). A typical example of this phenomenon of parallelism is found today when a witness swears to tell the truth, the whole truth and nothing but the truth.

The Anglo-Saxons used not only Old English as their legal language, but also Latin, which was reintroduced in 597 after the arrival of Christian missionaries. As a result of their conversion to Christianity, the Anglo-Saxons adopted the Latin alphabet used by the Church, which enjoyed a kind of immunity because its clergy were able to read. Christianity encouraged the use of writing, which later had an enormous impact on legal transactions and codes, many of which were written in Latin. The Romans brought Latin with them and,

thanks to the administrative needs of the Church; it remained the language of law in Europe throughout the middle ages. However, Latin did not completely replace Celtic, which continued to be used in England.

The Anglo-Saxons were then attacked and colonised by Scandinavian peoples. The Vikings spoke Germanic dialects known as 'Old Norse', a language very close to Old English. As a result, Norse legal terms were adopted, such as the word law, which is derived from the Scandinavian word for 'ly', but many other terms of the same origin disappeared after the Norman Conquest (Tiersma, 2008).

The Latin and French Period

In 1060s, the Norman invasion had a profound effect on the development of legal English. This date also marks the birth of the common law, when it broke away from the Roman tradition. It is mainly based on custom. The Normans were of Scandinavian descent and their ancestors settled in Normandy during the Viking invasion. However, Normandy became a duchy of France and French was the language of the Normans who invaded England. Although France was named in honour of the Franks, it was the Germanic peoples who founded the kingdom and Latin was the main language because the centre was Gaul, an important province of the Roman Empire. England already had a legal system and a legal language, but it was the Normans who brought justice and introduced new legal concepts and procedures.

The French had a strong influence on many aspects of modern English, especially the legal language. Norman French was very different from standard French and was called 'Anglo-Norman' (Blake, 1996). It became the language of power as the Normans gained positions of influence within the clergy and the nobility, while the use of English rapidly declined. Tiersma (2008) gave the example of the basic terminology for court proceedings of French origin, including: *appeal, attorney, bailiff, bar, claim, complaint, counsel, court, defendant, demurrer, evidence, indictment, judge, judgment, jury, justice, party, plaintiff, plea, plead, sentence, sue, suit, summons, verdict* and *voir dire.*

English was the language of the courtroom, but lawyers spoke French with highly specialised legal vocabulary. Laws and textbooks designed to teach the language of the

courtroom were also written in French. In addition, the professionals tried to keep French in use, as its unintelligibility to the layman was a means of maintaining their monopoly.

By the late 1650s, legal French was gradually losing ground to English as the language of statute. In this respect, an Act for Turning the Books of Law and all Process and Proceedings in Courts of Justice into English declared the use of French and Latin illegal (Maley, 1994), but it was not until 1733 that the legal use of French was officially abandoned in England.

Despite the spread of French as a legal language in England, Latin did not disappear completely as a language for drafting legal documents. Latin was the language of most legal treatises, writs, court records, lists of pleas and charters. Unlike Anglo-Saxon, which had many dialects, Latin was a lingua franca and was understood in all parts of the country. Moreover, legal Latin is also a fusion of Latin and English elements to meet the requirements of English law. For example, the term "*murdrum*" means murder (Tiersma, 1999).

In contrast to Latin and its ability to convey meaning and organise the concepts of Roman law, the Anglo-Saxon legal tradition is the product of an oral culture and persuasion. For example, the repetitions and binary expressions consisting of a word of Anglo-Saxon origin and one of Latin or French origin: "*acknowledge and confess*", "*act and deed*", "*devise and bequeath*", "*fit and proper*", "*goods and chattels*", "*will and testament*", "*cease and desist*", "*save and except*", "*breaking and entering*", "*free and clear*", "*peace and quiet*" (Mellinkof, 1963, p.111). There are often triple repetitions: "*null and void and of no effect*", "*X is hereby authorised, empowered and entitled to*", "*I give, devise and bequeath the rest, residue and remainder*", where "*give, devise and bequeath*" does not differ in meaning from "*rest, residue and remainder*"; triple repetitions are then found in expressions such as "*the truth, the whole truth and nothing but the truth*" (Tiersma, 2006, pp.64-65).

It seems clear, therefore, that the English language of law has emerged from the contact and use of three different languages (French, Anglo-Saxon and Latin), depending on the context, the subject matter and the participants. Three different languages continued to be used to express the law until the end of 1480, when English re-emerged as the language of statutes and legislation (Tiersma, 1999). Finally, through colonisation, Britain spread its legal system and legal language to other countries around the world, where legal English took on a particular meaning that could only be understood in relation to legal institutions.

1.12.2 The Nature of Legal English

As explained earlier, legal English is the fruit of the influences of different peoples and of different languages that have contributed to shaping its unique nature. According to Mellinkoff (1963), English legal discourse includes common words with technical meanings, rare words from Old and Middle English, Latin words and phrases, French words not found in the general lexicon, and legalistic jargon. He added that legal English is inherently cumbersome, complicated and often obscure, reflecting the abundance of words and pompous phraseology typically associated with the legal professions.

Legalese is also a considerable source of terms, expressions and syntactic structures of ritualised and archaic origin, allowing the legal language to reach a degree of formality, authority and prestige of judicial bodies (Mattila, 2006). For example, the rituality of legal English stems from the Anglo-Saxon custom of repeating formulas in oaths and binary expressions that make texts complex and difficult to understand. One of the functions of legal language is to impress the reader or listener by stressing the sacredness of the law and associating it with magical and ritualistic elements (Mattila, 2006).

At the lexical level, legal English is characterised firstly by the frequent use of technical terms which make it difficult for lay people to understand. Legal vocabulary can be divided into three groups (Alcaraz & Hughes, 2002):

- Technical vocabulary, also called terminology, consists of lexical units that are used only in the legal environment and have no application outside it. In other words, these monosemic terms cannot be translated but must be adapted: estoppel, tort, dismissal of an appeal, examining magistrate, etc.

- Semi-technical or sub-technical words are words that have a specific meaning in each field or discipline. Their meaning is always activated in a specific context. These words, unlike those of the first group, are polysemic and are constantly increasing in number to meet the ever-changing needs of society. They are also difficult to understand and translate in different legal systems.

- The third group is made up of terms taken from everyday language. The general vocabulary consists of words that have the same meaning both inside and outside the discipline, but are just as important as the other groups because of their frequent use. The difference between this category and the others is that they have neither lost their everyday meaning nor acquired a different one in legal language.

The polysemy of legal terms and their ambiguity are among the characteristics of legal language that make communication difficult. The problem of ambiguity arises in situations where the text is clear and the terminology is not defined. As mentioned above, there is a close relationship between ordinary language and legal language, as legal language is largely based on the vocabulary of ordinary language. According to Pommer (2006), law intervenes in all areas of life and addresses all members of society. As a result, legal language uses expressions that are similar in form to those of ordinary language, but have a different or more specific meaning. This can lead to difficulties of understanding between experts and lay people because the semantic boundaries in legal language and ordinary language are different, and language is used to identify users as members of a professional community with their own style of communication. In this context, Dudley-Evans and St. John (1998) point out that it is very important when teaching professional English to create activities that work on vocabulary in context rather than in isolation. ELP is part of general language, which uses the same linguistic and communicative functions with a specific frequency of occurrence so that there is a complementary rather than an oppositional relationship.

There are two public examinations in the UK that test legal English skills for English as Second Language learners: TOLES and ILEC. TOLES is a three-level test (Foundation, Higher and Advanced) that focuses on reading, writing and understanding legal vocabulary in context. ILEC is based on levels B2 to C1 of the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages. Both TOLES and ILEC are tests of legal English for learners of English as a second language, rather than tests of legal English proficiency for native English-speaking legal practitioners. While the test is widely recognised for its apparent validity, particularly in terms of the authenticity of the topics, texts and language (Thighe, 2006), it prompts us to consider what exactly qualifies as international English in a field that has traditionally been deeply intertwined with specific contexts and cultures.

1.13   Needs Analysis in ESP

With the development of curricular approaches to foreign language teaching, NA has become an essential component in the development of effective language courses. Many scholars have emphasised the importance of NA (Munby, 1978; Richterich & Chancerel, 1980; Hutchinson & Waters, 1987; Strevens, 1988; Nunan 1988a; Robinson, 1991; West, 1997; Jordan, 1997; Dudley-Evans & St. John, 1998; Basturkmen 2006). For example, Hutchinson and Waters (1987) pointed out, "any language course should be based on needs

analysis" (p.53), whether it is English for Specific Purposes or English for General Purposes course.

1.13.1 Needs Analysis: an Umbrella Term

A 'need' is a complex term with numerous interpretations listed in the dictionary. Merriam-Webster provides four definitions that are particularly relevant: a necessary duty; a condition requiring supply or relief; lack of the means of subsistence. From a psychological viewpoint, Abraham Maslow, in his paper 'A Theory of Human Motivation', described a need as something essential for an organism to live a healthy life. A need is something required for a safe, stable and healthy life while a want is a desire, wish or aspiration. Some students may want to take an English course without needing it while other students may need to improve their English without wanting to.

From these definitions we can say that 'need' encompasses everything that seems 'necessary' to a person and generates a will that drives people towards a certain goal that can only be achieved through effort.

Defining the concept of 'need' in language learning is a complex task due to the lack of agreement among scholars. Richterich (1983) noted that the definition of language needs is unclear and ambiguous. Moreover, the definition of needs constantly changes over time. Brindley (1989) also pointed out that the ambiguity stems from the different concepts of need that exist. The prevailing definition of 'need' in education is one that sees it as a discrepancy between what is and what should be. According to Ornstein and Hunkins (1998), this gap between the current state and the desired outcome is recognised and accepted.

Needs analysis is generally a starting point to consider when asking questions about why a particular group of students need to learn English. NA is a mandatory prerequisite in the design of ESP materials (Belcher, 2009). It is worth mentioning here that this type of analysis is not an end in itself, but a means to set priorities to make decisions aimed at the improving a programme (Altschuld & Witkin, 1995). According to (Brown, 2009), NA is "the systematic collection and analysis of all information necessary for defining a defensible curriculum" (p. 269). NA can also be described as systematic and ongoing process of data collection and analysis with the aim of identifying student needs (Graves, 2000). Similarly, Richards (2001) defined NA as "procedures used to collect information about learners' needs"

(p. 51). Needs assessment (e.g., data from questionnaires, tests, interviews, and observation) gathers information about learners' needs for learning the target language. Through such a systematic process, learners become more aware of their role in the learning process.

1.13.2 **Types of Needs**

From the 1960s to the present, a number of researchers have contributed to the development of NA (Munby, 1978; Richterich & Chancerel, 1987; Hutchinson & Waters, 1987; Berwick, 1989; Brindley, 1989; Robinson, 1991; Johns, 1991; West, 1994; Jordan, 1997; Dudley-Evans & St. John, 1998). Hence, many terms have been used to describe the concepts of needs and needs analysis, such as: necessities, wants and lacks (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987); objective and subjective (Brindley, 1989); perceived and felt (Berwick, 1989); process-oriented and product-oriented (Brindley, 1989).

Firstly, Hutchinson and Waters (1987) provided a very useful classification of needs which distinguishes between target needs and learning needs. The former refers to the knowledge and skills that the learner needs to be able to perform effectively in the target situation. The latter, what Garcia Mayo (2000) calls pedagogical needs, refers to what the student needs to do in the learning situation. Hutchinson and Waters (1987) classified target needs as necessities, lacks and wants. Necessities are the academic or professional requirements that learners need to know in order to function effectively in the target situation. Needs in this sense are more like "objective needs" (Jordan, 1997, p. 25). Lacks are gaps between the learners' current language skills and those required at the end of the language course. Needs refer to learners' personal expectations of the language course and what they want to learn. These needs have been defined as "subjective needs" (Jordan, 1997, p. 26). They are unpredictable and indefinable (Richterich & Chancerel, 1980).

Although it is difficult to meet wants and wishes of individuals, which may vary from person to person, these needs should be taken into account (Nunan, 1988b) in order to create appropriate materials and to use the right methods to keep learners motivated as much as possible. For Hutchinson and Waters (1987), any NA must take into consideration the target needs and the learning needs of the learners. The process of including needs, potential, and limitations into course design is called the learning-centred approach. This trend brought a greater emphasis on the personal aspects of learners' needs, allowing learners to have a say in

what they should learn and how they should learn. According to Nunan (1988a), techniques of subjective needs analysis are closely related to the techniques of objective needs analysis.

The idea of including students' needs in NA is related to the findings of (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987; Robinson, 1991; Brindley, 1989). The authors divided needs into subjective needs and objective needs.

Objective needs include requirements related to language proficiency in the typical everyday situations in which the target population needs to be involved. Subjective needs refer to cognitive and affective factors such as personality, attitudes, desires and expectations. Objective needs relate to content and subjective needs to methodology. According to Nunan (1988b), they should not be seen as synonymous because it is possible to define content from a subjective perspective (students decide what they want to learn) and define methodology from an objective perspective (teachers decide how students can learn the content better). Then there is the distinction made by Widdowson (1983) between 'goal-oriented needs', which is what the learner wants to achieve at the end of a course, and 'process-oriented needs', which is what the learner needs to learn during the course.

In response to the emphasis on the end result in needs analysis, some scholars, such as Nunan (1988b) and Brindley (1989), have called for a broad or process-oriented approach. Brindley's perspective recognises the learner as an individual in the learning situation who has to integrate learning needs such as attitudes, motivation, awareness, personality, wants, expectations, and learning styles. Berwick (1989) noted how this distinction reflects the tension that occurs between a student-centred teaching approach and the one centred on the teacher's authority. However, this pedagogy reconciles the subjective conditions coming from the learner and the objective conditions coming from the teacher.

1.13.3 Components of Needs Analysis

The concept of 'needs' in language learning is complicated not only by the lack of consensus among scholars, but also by the development of the concept through different approaches. These approaches include Target Situation Analysis, Present Situation Analysis, Learning Situation Analysis and Means Analysis. Each approach aims to provide a framework for analysing and identifying learners' needs in different contexts.

1.13.3.1   **Target Situation Analysis**

Chapter One

Target situation analysis (TSA) refers to the language requirements that learners need to be successful in their academic or professional environment (West, 1994). It involves identifying the language skills and knowledge that learners need to perform their roles effectively in their respective fields (Hyland, 2006). TSA essentially categorises what learners need to know in order to perform competently in specific circumstances. Robinson (1991) described needs analysis, which focuses on the needs of learners at the end of a language course, as a type of TSA.

Munby's sociolinguistic model is the most influential model for placing learners' target language needs at the centre of ESP courses. Munby (1978) argued that the analysis of learners' communicative needs should determine the syllabus and materials of ESP courses. Munby's model details communication aims, contexts, language skills, functions and structures. He advocated using Hymes's notion of communicative competence as the basis for designing ESP programmes. According to Canale and Swain (1980), a "model of communicative competence" has three key components: a socio-cultural orientation (based on Hymes's work), a socio-semantic view of language knowledge (based on Halliday's work on the nature of language), and discourse rules (Widdowson's studies).

Munby (1978) argued that Chomsky's concept of competence was relevant to language teaching, but needed to be adapted to include contextual factors in the development of communicative competence. His 'Communication Needs Processor' (CNP) includes key communication variables such as purposive domain (ESP classification), setting (the time and place), interaction (student-student, student-teacher), instrumentality (medium of communication and channel of communication), dialect (the dialects the learners need to comprehend and produce), target level (level of linguistic proficiency), communicative event (what the learners will have to do with English), and communicative key (the way in which communication needs to be performed). The aim is to equip learners with effective communication skills in their target situation, which is achieved by translating their needs into communicative competence presented in a form of syllabus (Jordan, 1997). According to Dudley-Evans and St. John (1998), TSA covers objective, perceived and product needs.

While Munby's (1978) approach to analysing the target situation is seen as a significant contribution to needs analysis, it has also attracted criticism (West, 1994). The approach is seen as inflexible, complex and lacking an exploration of the limitations within the student needs analysis (Hawkey, 1983), and "collects data about the learner rather than

from the learner" (West, 1994, p.9). This view of course design neglects important elements of the teaching/learning process because it focuses solely on defining the communicative objectives of the course without considering the learning needs of the learners or the learning context. Robinson (1991) argued that the variables identified by Munby as constraints on the implementation of the curriculum specification include factors such as government attitudes, logistical and administrative issues, student motivation and expectations, and methodological issues. Munby himself acknowledged that these variables should only be considered after the syllabus has been developed.

Nunan (1988a, 1988b), Berwick (1989) and Brindley (1989), among others, stressed the importance of involving the students and their circumstances in the teaching and learning process in order to achieve student autonomy (Nunan, 1988b; West, 1994). Jordan (1997) also criticised Munby's model because he believed that practical constraints should have been considered at the beginning of the NA. He divided NA into three areas: analysis of deficiencies, analysis of strategies, and the analysis of the environment. However, the best attempt at criticism is that of Hutchinson and Waters (1987) when they proposed a paradigm of teaching and learning languages for specific purposes, the learning-centred approach. They argue that the CNP model does not take into account the learning needs of the students, and it focuses solely and exclusively on what Richterich calls 'objective needs'.

1.13.3.2   Present Situation Analysis

Present Situation Analysis (PSA) was first proposed by Richterich and Chancerel (1980). In this approach the sources of information are the learners themselves, the educational institution, and the user-institution. Hyland (2006) defined PSA as the combination of a learner's existing abilities and expectations at the onset of a course. This includes their skills and perceptions, familiarity with the subject matter, and understanding its requirements and genres. It attempts to identify strengths and weaknesses in language, skills and learning experiences. PSA can be seen as complementary to TSA (Robinson, 1991; Jordan, 1997). PSA seeks to explore what the students are like at the start of the course taking into consideration the learners' needs, their strengths and their weaknesses (Robinson, 1991). Therefore, PSA can be carried out through placement tests.

The PSA in the current study was also developed to cover deficiency analysis (DA), which is an approach that identifies the gap between what the information that learners know

at present and the target information that they need to know by the end of the course. In other words, DA refers to the necessities of the PSA that the students lack.

1.13.3.3   Means Analysis

Means analysis refers to the external factors that influence the teaching/learning process as stated by Dudley-Evans and St. John (1998), Means analysis recognises that what may be effective in one context may not necessarily lead to the same results in another setting. The aim of means analysis is to adapt the ESP course to the environment in which it will take place. According to the authors, means analysis provides us with "information about the environment in which the course will be run" (p. 125).

In contrast to Munby's Communicative Syllabus Design, means analysis seeks to investigate considerations that have previously been ignored. West (1994) suggested that these considerations include the cultural learning setting and the social context, which play a crucial role in the success of the ESP course. Additionally, Holliday and Cooke (1982) emphasised that means analysis is particularly important when designing a curriculum, rather than just a syllabus.

1.13.3.4   Learning Situation Analysis

ESP places a strong emphasis on recognising students as the central focus of the learning process, in order to meet their objective and subjective needs and expectations, and to enhance their engagement and motivation. It is advisable, as far as possible, to allow the student to contribute to the design of course, as Hutchinson and Waters (1987) advocated, "Learning is a process of negotiation between individuals and society" (p. 72).   In other words, the student's experience and personal development of positive attitudes are of paramount importance.

By adopting a learning-centred approach that prioritises psychological, cognitive, cultural and affective learning needs, the way learners perceive the language learning process can be seen from two perspectives: i) individual differences (introversion-extroversion, tolerance of ambiguity, risk-taking, cognitive style); and ii) learning style (psychological, cognitive, sensory differences).

In addition to the above variables, the theory of human intelligence, developed by psychologist Howard Gardner (1983), indicated that there are at least seven ways in which people make sense of the world i.e., a set of skills that enable individuals to solve the problems they face. These intelligences are verbal-linguistic, logical-mathematical, visual/spatial, bodily-kinesthetic, musical, interpersonal, intrapersonal, naturalistic and existential.

The multiple Intelligences approach challenges teachers to make learning relevant to the students' intelligence needs. Thus, it would be convenient to add assessment tools that help students to understand their own intelligences in order to reflect on their own learning. An effective teacher is someone capable of taking the challenge of training competent people while respecting their uniqueness.

Teacher training programmes should address individual differences in the classroom to facilitate learning for their students. Moreover, educational institutions should rely on psychologists to help the in-service teachers identify and work on these individual differences, as it is not easy to determine how these factors influence FLT. Teachers will be able to choose the teaching methods that relate to all the learning styles such as role-playing, cooperative learning, reflection, visualisation, storytelling, etc. This theory also favours instructional methods that promote independent learning and make students aware of the learning process.

1.13.4 Needs Analysis Procedures

After examining different approaches to needs analysis, it is important to consider fundamental questions when designing an appropriate ESP course to meet learners' needs. These questions may include determining the status of English in a particular context, identifying the target audience, selecting appropriate instruments for data collection, and using effective tools for data analysis. By answering these essential questions, course designers can gain a comprehensive understanding of learners' needs and provide a course that is tailored to their specific needs and objectives.

1.13.4.1   When to Conduct a Needs Analysis?

Conducting NA prior to the start of a course is a critical step in defining the course objectives and organising the content to meet the learning needs of the intended audience. However, the usefulness of the data collected during the initial NA phase may be limited

because it can be difficult to accurately articulate the evolving needs and preferences of learners in the early stages of a course (Richterich & Chancerel, 1980; Nunan, 1988b). Besides, the needs and priorities of both learners and instructors may shift over time, making it important to regularly assess learners' needs during and after the course implementation to keep pace with their changing expectations, needs, and motivation.

To elaborate further, it is essential to view NA as a dynamic and ongoing process (Hyland, 2006). It is never final or complete. Robinson (1991) stated that "repeated needs analysis can be built into the formative evaluation process" (p. 16). In many cases, an ongoing NA can be carried out later in a course to review the objectives of the course and modify the teaching materials (Dudley-Evans & St. John, 1998).

1.13.4.2 Sources for Needs Identification

The first thing to consider in the NA process is the sources of information. A distinction can be made between human sources of information and written sources of information. The former include the learners themselves, Master's students, teachers, administrators and academic or professional experts in the specific field to be analysed. Informants are the main source of information when conducting a NA, as they are the target population of the study with their direct or indirect participation. Information can be collected face-to-face or remotely, depending on the resources available and the purpose of the study (Long, 2005). Written sources include school records, enrolment figures, grades, test scores, student profiles and other documents.

Richterich and Chancerel's (1980) framework for identifying language needs highlighted the importance of considering the perspectives of different stakeholders in the language learning process. They identify four key elements for identifying language needs: the learner, the teaching establishment, the user institution, and the society. Firstly, consulting learners and understanding their perceptions of their own resources and objectives can help course designers to understand the perceived needs of the learners. Secondly, information obtained from the teaching establishment can provide valuable insights to adapt the resources and materials to better meet the expectations and needs of the learners. Thirdly, the user institution can provide important information about the expectations of the institution, as well as the facilities and resources available for the teaching process. Finally, the expectations and

demands of society play a significant role in identifying language needs, as society can influence the language learning objectives of the learners and the institutions.

1.13.4.3   Data Collection Methods for NA

In general, there are different methods of data collection used when conducting NA for an ESP course. In the context of the present study, Jordan (1997) identified fourteen methods of data collection for NA, which are listed as follows: student self-assessment, class progress tests, previous research, pre-documentation, language tests at home, language tests on entry, learner diaries, case studies, final tests, evaluation/feedback, follow-up, surveys, structured interviews and observation. In addition, Hutchinson and Waters (1987) suggested that questionnaires, classroom observation, interviews and the collection of student work samples can provide sufficient information. Brown (1995) also listed various methods for gathering needs data, including: existing information, tests, observation, interviews, meetings and questionnaires.

Berwick (1989) distinguishes between inductive and deductive methods. The former involve the use of expert intuition, participant and non-participant observation and unstructured interviews from which categories of needs are derived. The latter involve the use of structured interviews, questionnaires and criterion-referenced performance tests with pre-defined categories. However, Long (2005) pointed out that the majority of data collection methods rely solely on questionnaires and semi-structured interviews, and in many cases learners are the only source, without questioning the reliability and validity of the results. It should be noted that in NA it is crucial to use more than one method in order to analyse data from different perspectives.

1.13.4.4   Needs Assessment Phases

Needs Assessment offers valid and reliable information for designing effective courses in a given academic context. This analysis precedes any intervention since it provides the basis for setting goals and objectives of the programmes. There are numerous models proposed for conducting needs assessment. According to Witkin and Altschuld (1995, 2000), the needs assessment plan consists of three phases:

The first phase known as *pre-assessment* is exploratory in nature and aims to find general purpose of the needs assessment. During this phase, existing data sources and data

collection methods are organised and criteria for assessing needs are established. This stage sets the scene for the subsequent stages of the needs assessment.

The second phase, known as *assessment*, involves collecting data from various sources to identify high priority needs. This phase includes setting preliminary priorities, conducting causal analyses in relation to all three levels of the system, analysing and synthesising all the data collected, and defining the criteria for action based on the high priority needs.

The third phase, known as *post-assessment*, involves setting priorities and criteria to anticipate solutions to identified needs. During this phase, different alternatives are weighed and action plans, such as programme changes or other interventions, are developed to respond to the identified needs.

In a study conducted to investigate the language needs of non-English speaking students at a New Zealand university, Gravatt, Richards and Lewis (1997, as cited in Richards, 2001), suggested the following steps in the NA process:

1. Review the relevant literature

2. Review the instruments used in similar studies

3. Contacting people who have conducted similar studies

5. Interviews with relevant people for context analysis

6. Identifying the departments involved

7. Submit project proposal to participating departments and identify contact person in each department

8. Preparation of an experimental questionnaire for students and staff

9. Peer review of questionnaires

10. Pilot testing of questionnaires

11. Selection of teachers and students

12. Setting a timetable for data collection

13. Administering the questionnaires

14. Follow-up interviews with participants

15. Tabulation of responses

16. Analysis of responses

17. Reporting of results and extension of recommendations

In contrast to previous models, this particular approach places considerable emphasis on reviewing relevant literature and similar studies, as well as contacting individuals who have conducted comparable research and suggesting follow-up interviews. This approach recognises the value of learning from the experiences of others and building on existing knowledge to inform the needs assessment process.

1.13.5 NA Research studies in Algeria

The aim of NA research studies is to address the different needs of learners at different levels of language proficiency in order to help them fulfil specific roles. A well-executed NA process ensures that the syllabus is tailored to meet the specific needs of individual learners. Within the Algerian academic and professional context, each discipline presents unique challenges, needs, and practices. Although ESP courses are offered in various fields in Algerian educational institutions, NA has not been given sufficient attention, especially in the field of legal studies.

Recent studies on NA in the field of ESP conducted in various Algerian institutions and universities provide valuable insights into the importance of conducting a thorough needs analysis process. These studies highlight the need for a comprehensive and systematic approach to NA in order to effectively identify the language needs of learners, design relevant and effective ESP courses, and ultimately improve learners' language proficiency in their respective fields.

The following is an overview of NA studies conducted in the field of ESP in various Algerian institutions and universities in order to draw some implications for the study.

NA became popular in the 1970s and early 1980s with the work of Richterich and Chancerel (1980) and Munby (1978). Early Algerian research projects focused on NA and course design for students of Economics. For example, Miliani (1985) investigated the English language needs of first-year Economics students. The study concluded that students did not have an adequate level of English to study economics in English and that they needed to take a GE course within the first two years. Hamada (1990), on the other hand, developed a reading comprehension course focusing specifically on the cohesive aspects of economic discourse after conducting a placement test.

Remmache (1992) conducted a study in Algerian ESP centres to investigate the English language proficiency and communicative needs of postgraduate students. The aim of the study was to gather information about the teaching and learning challenges faced by both teachers and students. A questionnaire was used to analyse the students' communicative needs, and the results were used to design a more effective syllabus that could be implemented in all ESP centres. The study aimed to improve the quality of English language training for postgraduate students in Algeria by developing a course that better meets their specific needs and requirements.

In her study, Zaghar (2007) examined the teaching and learning process of ESP in the Department of Biology at the University of Oran, focusing on the attitudes of third year biology students. In order to gather information, the study used a case study methodology, which involved administering questionnaires to learners and conducting informal interviews with language teachers, subject specialist teachers, and the administrative staff. The results showed that although most learners had a positive attitude towards ESP, they attributed their poor performance to various factors such as inadequate preparation in secondary school, an inappropriate syllabus and a lack of materials. The study discussed the problems identified and offered tentative solutions, highlighting the importance of significant professional development for teachers, essential training for learners, and continued commitment from decision-makers to achieve good ESP outcomes.

Benhamlaoui (2011) investigated the situation of the teaching and learning of English in the department of Commerce in Constantine. The study population consisted of two groups of Master's students and another two groups of the third-year LMD students. A questionnaire was designed to collect data on the state of English in the concerned department as well as learners' attitudes and opinions about the teaching/learning process and their learning styles and strategies. A pre-test focused interview was designed to support the results of the questionnaire and to collect more reliable data based on the participants' personal experiences. The research also aimed to prove the effectiveness of the Scenario-Based methodology in enhancing learners' motivation and involvement in the learning process by using classroom observation, video recording, and post-test focused interviews for participants' personal evaluation of the experiment. The study concluded that the delivery of scenario-based lectures inspired by real-life professional situations in administration,

commerce, finance and management would increase learners' motivation and encourage them to undertake rather than undergo the process of learning English.

Lamri (2011) investigated the situation regarding the use of English in some Algerian institutional and official workplaces. He also conducted NA study to identify the language needs of law and administrative science students, in order to design an English language course that meets their needs. A survey was also conducted among managers and lawyers in the workplace. Questionnaires were distributed to both teachers and students.
In the academic context, the analysis of target needs showed that students are increasingly interested in learning English and that teachers support this. In terms of language skills, students indicated that they needed to develop their listening and reading skills, followed by speaking and writing. The results of this research led the researcher to suggest that students of law and public administration need to learn a mixture of general and specific English. He also proposed a syllabus and some language activities that would be appropriate for Law and Administrative Science students.

Krarzia (2013) conducted NA study in order to provide information for the design of an English syllabus for students of Commercial Sciences and Economics at the University of Constantine. Two questionnaires were distributed to students and teachers. The results revealed that the students who were in their second year of Master's studies were not satisfied with their performance and the performance of their teachers. This means that they did not gain much from the content offered to them in their first year. Language skills were not adequately covered in the English courses offered to students of Commercial Sciences and Economics. Therefore, the study attempted to propose a course that would meet the expectations of both learners and teachers.

Hadji (2013) conducted NA study to investigate the academic needs of the first-year economics students in the Faculty of Economics, Business, and Management Sciences (EBM), at Jijel University. The purpose of this study was to provide solutions to the teaching/learning situation of EAP, by proposing a syllabus for first-year economics students. Data collection tools included: a focus group discussion with 15 third-year economics students and three questionnaires with ESP teachers and first-year economics students. The findings unveiled that the teaching of EAP in the faculty of EBM at Jijel University is not adequate due to the absence of syllabi.

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Bouabdallah (2015) conducted NA study among first-year Master's students in biology at the University of Tlemcen. The study used a proficiency test, structured interviews, and a student questionnaire to identify the academic English language needs of these students. The findings indicated that the students considered listening, speaking, and translating texts from English into Arabic to be the most important skills. Participants emphasised the need to understand lectures in English, to read and translate scientific articles, and to participate in oral discussions. The study revealed that writing and speaking were considered among the most difficult skills for the students.

Two studies conducted by Djaileb (2012) and Benchennane (2018) examined the English language needs of Computer Science students at the universities of Oran and Mascara. Djaileb emphasised the importance of authentic materials in developing communicative competence, while Benchennane focused on factors such as motivation, self-directed learning, the use of ICT, and collaboration between language teachers and subject specialist teachers in syllabus design. Both studies provide valuable insights into the specific language learning needs of Computer Science students and suggest strategies for designing effective English language teaching programmes that meet these needs.

Smaihi (2019) conducted an NA study to explore the English language needs of Islamic studies at the University of Batna. NA questionnaire, semi-structured interviews with EAP and content teachers, and focus group discussions were used to gather information about students' needs. The results showed that students were largely dissatisfied with the English language courses because they were more related to GE than to EAP. The content did not seem to meet the students' language lacks, wants and interests. As a result, the majority of students seemed to have little motivation and were only interested in how they would pass the exams. There was a complete absence of any systematic and formal NA procedures; besides, teachers taught what was convenient for them without considering the students' language levels and preferences. Based on NA, a syllabus of the most needed English language skills and sub-skills for Islamic Studies in Algeria was proposed.

Bouguenous (2019) surveyed medical students and faculty members at the University of Sidi Bel-Abbes, in order to investigate students' perceived needs and attitudes towards learning English. One questionnaire was distributed to a group of medical students belonging to three medical departments namely: the department of Medicine, the department of Pharmacy, and the department of Dentistry. The second questionnaire was given to ESP

teachers working in Faculty of Medicine. The interview was held with the Dean of the faculty who represents the administrative authority in the university. The findings revealed that although the majority of the students lacked the required level of English, they were motivated to learn English. Technical terminology was the main problem in reading. Understanding oral reports and participating in meetings were some of the most necessary activities to succeed in their field. All the four language skills should be emphasised with more priority given to interactive skills as many studies tend to focus on medical terminology and grammar which lack a communicative purpose.

1.13.5.1   Literature Gap and Contribution of the Study

The literature demonstrates a growing recognition of the importance of needs analysis in Algerian ESP teaching, yet it remains underexplored in areas such as legal studies. While studies often emphasise the need for teacher training and syllabus development, they often overlook the impact of socio-cultural factors on language learning. Comprehensive NA research is urgently needed to address the specific linguistic and communicative needs of law students, as many existing studies focus on general English rather than ESP requirements, potentially leading to inadequate preparation for professional fields. In addition, the effectiveness of innovative pedagogical approaches, such as technology integration and interdisciplinary collaborations, has not been sufficiently explored. There is also a lack of studies assessing the long-term impact of tailored ESP programmes on students' language skills and career readiness, suggesting the need for ongoing adaptation of courses to meet evolving professional demands.

The contribution of our work lies in addressing several gaps in the development of ELP materials based on needs analysis. One key contribution is the creation of specialized materials tailored to specific legal domains, countering the current overgeneralization of resources that do not meet the diverse needs of law students and professionals. Additionally, we provide more effective needs analysis methods that better capture the unique linguistic demands of law students and subject specialist teachers. We also aim to bridge the gap between legal concepts and language skills by integrating authentic legal reasoning and case studies into the language learning process.

Another significant contribution is the proposal of new frameworks for assessing the effectiveness of ELP materials, enhancing feedback and evaluation. Our work addresses often overlooked cultural and pragmatic aspects of legal communication, such as legal negotiation

and consultation with clients, which are crucial for real-world legal interactions. Finally, by focusing on student-centred material design, we aim to offer resources that address the specific challenges faced by these learners.

1.14 Conclusion

In this chapter, an overview of ESP was presented, including its history, types, and definitions. The chapter also explored language skills required for ESP, different teaching approaches, syllabus design, and the roles of ESP teachers, with a particular focus on the unique features of legal English. The final section highlighted the significance of conducting a needs analysis to identify the specific content and requirements of an ESP course, and reviewed several methods and concepts for achieving this goal. Overall, this chapter provides a comprehensive introduction to the field of ESP and its key components, as well as emphasises the importance of needs analysis in designing effective ESP courses.

Chapter Two

Methodology and Data Collection

2. Introduction

This chapter outlines the methodology and theoretical foundations behind the approaches that were used in our research. After describing the situation of ELT and ESP in Algeria, particularly in the Department of Law at University of Oran 2, the chapter explains the research paradigm, the study sample, the methods used for data collection, and the main tools employed for data analysis. Finally, it endeavours to tackle the reliability of the study, the role of the researcher, and ethical issues.

2.1 The Historical Development of the Legal Language in Algeria

The Algerian legal system has unique features, some of which have been retained, some of which have been adapted, and some of which have been merged over time to meet the country's needs. The current Algerian legal system is based on civil law and Islamic legal traditions. French law has shaped many areas of law, including contract, commercial, and business law. The judicial system has been predominantly modelled on the French system, with the exception of the personal matters, which are still largely governed by Islamic law derived from the Holy Quran and the Sunnah (Prophetic sayings and practices). Together they form what is known in Arabic as Shari'a. These laws have been developed by the Islamic schools of jurisprudence: Maliki, Hanafi, Shafi'i and Hanbali. Although the constitution declares Islam to be the state's religion, Shari'a (Islamic law) is not fully incorporated into the state's legal system. It is worth noting that the majority of Muslim countries are governed by legal systems inspired by western legal ideas (Atighetchi, 2006). To gain a deeper understanding of the Algerian legal language, the following discussion will provide a brief analysis of the key stages in the development of its legal system.

2.1.1   The Pre-French Colonial Period

Primarily inhabited by Berbers, the Maghreb region was a crossroads for the rise and fall of some of the world's greatest empires. The natives had no written civil code, so they preserved the Roman law that governed the Mediterranean coast. Unlike the invasions of earlier religions and cultures, the spread of Islam by the Arabs had a lasting impact on the region. Ennaji (2005) argued that the indigenous population was assimilated into Arab culture through the influence of Islam, which introduced a highly developed system of administration and education, as well as a rich literary tradition and language.

It was not until the sixteenth century that Algeria emerged as a political entity, 'Eyalat al-Djaza'ir', official political power in that country is held by the Sultan in Istanbul, but is exercised locally by the 'administration' that represents him (Raymond, 2004). Under the Ottoman Empire, the dominant school of jurisprudence was the Hanafi tradition. Thus, the administrative system comprised the legislative and judicial functions of the government, the rituals of the court, and the code, called the Kanun, which included criminal law. Cases that fell outside the scope of the Shari'a were settled by judgement or by analogy (Johnson & Law Library of Congress, 2004). The law was promulgated by the Ottoman government. Thus, it can be said that law in Algeria was fundamentally developed elsewhere; a legal discipline of such an extent could be called Algerian Muslim law (Henry & Balique, 1979). However, the language of administration was not Arabic but Turkish. This has created tensions and led the Arabs to develop their own identity, emphasising Arabic as the core "ingredient that unites all the Arabic-speaking peoples regardless of their religious affiliation" (Suleiman, 2003, p.78).

2.1.2 The French Invasion

As soon as Algeria was annexed to France, the civil code was promulgated as article 7 of the law of 30 ventôse year XII stated that wherever the civil law becomes applicable, local laws disappear. The French administration established the absolute dominance and supremacy of French law in the fields of criminal, property, and commercial law (Ghabrial, 2014). French justice gradually replaced Islamic justice. One of its means was to gradually limit the jurisdiction of the local courts, and the jurisdiction of the cadi was maintained because the French authorities considered it closely linked to the Islamic faith which they had promised to respect in the Convention of 15 September 1830. The role of the cadi was maintained because the French courts were unable to deal with the civil and commercial affairs of the indigenous population and translation was compulsory for written acts in French or foreign languages (Larcher, 1923).

During the so-called assimilation period (1870-1962), the law of 30/08/1883 had completely assimilated the Algerian courts and tribunals to those of the metropolis. The aim of assimilation was primarily to establish the legitimacy of colonial rule by incorporating the natives and their characteristics into the dominant culture of the colonisers (Abi-Mershed, 2010). It was inclined to eliminate the local culture and institutions in favour of replacing them with French civilisation (Shepard, 2006). As result, "The judiciary became an instrument of colonial domination" (Halimi, 2001, as cited in Bouzeghrane, 2001). French

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Algeria was treated as an inseparable part of mainland France, and pro-colonialists shared a common belief in the superiority of the white man's superiority and that Europeans were charged with merging other non-French civilisations (Rebai Maamri, 2009).

Berbers were strongly encouraged to learn French, convert to Christianity through organised missionary campaigns, and work in the colonial system. The Kabyle population was seen as more amenable to assimilate than the Arabs, according to the notion of the 'Kabyle myth', which was a colonial policy mainly from 1870 to 1900. This policy was an attempt to assimilate the Kabyles into French culture by distinguishing them ethnically, linguistically, and politically from Arabs (Lorcin, 1999).

The Kabyles were also characterised by customary law ('urf), which historically regulated personal status, civil law, and inter-tribal relations. Although it was not only the Berbers who had local laws derived from local customs rather than the Qur'an, the choice of the Kabyles was justified by their settled agriculture, strategic geographical location, and interesting self-government. According to French ethnologists, the Kabyle political structure was considered to be democratic, as evidenced by the influential role of the "Thajma'th" or village council, which played an important role in the establishment of customary law. Today, Thajma'th remains an important source of justice. These laws were said to be "non-Coranic and often anti-Coranic" (Ageron, 1971, p.54). Lawrence Rosen argued that Islamic law leaves no room to custom as a source of judicial decision-making, but they are so intertwined that custom is part of the Shari'a (1995).

Berber customary law was considered more secular and less hostile to French-led reforms than other indigenous subjects (Norès, 1909). Nevertheless, several customary laws conflicted with the French notions of justice, particularly the right of women to inherit. Tribes in Kabylia chose to deprive women of their inheritance (Hacoun-Campredon, 1921; and Nait-Djoudi, 2001). In 1910, Marcel Morand argued that Islamic law was more compassionate than customary law, especially towards women. However, despite its potential to promote civilisation, it also hindered the prospects of assimilation and advancement. In short, the French were working to create an ethnic and religious divide in the country through divide-and-rule strategies.

The vast majority of academic studies consider the Berber myth as an imperial policy to be rejected and criticised (Lorcin, 1995). Algerian nationalists used Islam to overcome the

division the French wanted to create between Arabs and the Berbers. The Association of Algerian Muslim Ulemas, and secular Arab leaders sought to create an Arab nationalism that was proclaimed in the independence movement and played an important role in shaping Algeria's modern national identity.

2.1.3   The Post-Colonial Period

After independence in 1962, Algeria faced many problems in organising its judiciary following the departure of French judges, as most Algerian legal professionals were trained on the basis of French law teachings and were fluent in French. The government therefore promised to set up a new judicial system, since the French legislation was perceived as a betrayal and was combined with the arbitrary and discriminatory Code of the Indigenous. In June 1989, the Minister of Justice issued a de facto ban on the use of 'foreign languages' and called for the generalisation of the national language and the promotion of its use within the judiciary. Furthermore, the emphasis on Islamic values and the use of the Arabic in the independence movement played a major role in opposing French cultural and linguistic imperialism.

Law no. 91–05 of January 16, 1991, required the exclusive use of Arabic in all official domains:

> *Article 4*
>
> *The public administrations, institutions, businesses, and associations, regardless of their nature, are required to use the Arabic language exclusively in all of their activities such as communication, administrative, financial, technical, and artistic management.*

> *Article 5*
>
> *All official documents, reports, and minutes of public administrations, institutions, businesses, and associations are written in the Arabic language. The use of any foreign language in the deliberations and discussions of official meetings is prohibited.*

The process of Arabisation aimed to eliminate French from Algerian administrations; however, the absence of Arabophone experts has resulted in false translations when redrafting laws and texts in different language. For example, in the Constitution of 23 February 1989, one author found 20 errors in the translation of the text into standard Arabic (Ossoukine, 1989, as cited in Babadji, 1990). In addition, Algerian leaders had embraced pan-Arabism, which meant a strong political and ideological movement aimed at creating a single Arab political entity, born out of the need to defend themselves against imperialism and colonialism (Jankowski, 2002). It was France that inspired this motto, "One state, one nation, one language" (Judge, 2002, p.44). The creation of a collective identity depends on the use of language, as it ensures the preservation of social unity within a community (Charaudeau, 2001).

2.2 The Status of English in the Algerian Education System

The teaching of foreign languages has unfolded the last few decades as a result of multiple factors, including the evolution of the concepts of language, learning and culture. Its purpose has also changed and adapted to the needs of society, which itself has undergone political, social and cultural changes. It was not until the end of the nineteenth century that new pedagogical methods for teaching foreign languages began to emerge. These methods and approaches have different characteristics, as both the concept of language and the way of understanding how to teach it has changed considerably. Linguistically speaking, not all skills were taught in the same way and with the same intensity during this time.

Algeria is a country in which foreign language learning has traditionally suffered from a lack of knowledge, both in society and in the education system, despite the fact that the context of foreign language learning has changed substantially in recent years, particularly due to the phenomenon of globalisation, which has created new social, cultural and economic contexts in which knowledge of languages has gained a significant importance, forcing us to rethink the role of language teaching and learning.

For decades, Algerian schools and youth have been held hostage by failed ideologies and socio-political and socio-economic value choices. The research carried out shows that there is a mismatch between the socio-linguistic reality and the political interventions that affect language. As Miliani (1996) stated, "… education will always suffer from a primary monolithism of the decision-makers, which is the expression of the fear of the alien, the

other" (p. 9). In support of this argument, Berger (2002) asserted that it is "the most severe problem of Algeria in its present and troubled state" (p. 8). In her later work, Gal (1998) wrote that "scholars of multilingualism and language contact have understood that choice of a language has political implications exactly because of speakers' common sense convictions about what the use of a language is assumed to imply about political loyalty and identity" (p. 317). Indeed, language was not only a means of communication but also a sign of identity, culture and power. As a result, language played a crucial role in expressing and asserting the dominance of a particular ideology or political party, and the use of another language was seen as a threat to national unity and sovereignty.

The Algerian government implemented a massive policy of Arabisation in order to create a sense of national unity and resistance to the French colonial power (Benrabah, 2007, as cited in Rubdy & Ben Said, 2015) because language has long been used to symbolise nationalism (Haugen, 1966). However, the denial of the regional and minority identities by imposing a language on the entire population in order to meld a nation exposed a colonial policy in its most destructive aspect. According to Phillipson (1992), the ideology of monolingualism entails disregarding the value of other languages, resulting in the elimination of a child's most profound existential experiences. Those who did not speak the dominant language were excluded from education, employment, and political participation. Furthermore, the dominance of one language can lead to the suppression of minority languages and cultures.

Systemic Arabisation was rigid in renouncing French influence and fraught with inefficiency and incompetence. In fact, the process of Arabisation was quite complex and poorly planned due to a lack of qualified instructors, school equipment, and textbooks to replace French education system. Ahmed Taleb Ibrahimi, the first Algerian Minister of Education, went even further to admit that the process of Arabisation "will not work, but it must be done in any case" (Grandguillaume, 1995, p.20). Consequently, Algerian youth are unable to articulate their ideas and feelings because their ability to express themselves has been undermined by language policies (The Economist, 2017). Furthermore, the monolingual policy has predominantly dismissed the sociolinguistic reality of the country (Algerian Arabic dialect and Tamazight). Nevertheless, French remained the language of business and higher education, while Arabisation was increasingly challenged by movements promoting multilingualism and foreign language education. Khaoula Taleb Ibrahimi (2004) argued that

the elites are primarily responsible for the development of contradictory attitudes that create serious contradictions and ruptures in the symbolic and cultural field. This has prevented the emergence of a national intelligentsia, as seen in the anti-Arabism of some Berberists, the anathema against French speakers suspected of sympathising with the former colonial power, and the derogatory terms used for Arabophones. These attitudes reflect a mutual ignorance of the diversity of cultural formations and individual and collective cultural paths.

Although Algeria has implemented a strong policy of Arabisation, which has been abruptly imposed on its education system and public life in general, French has maintained a prominent position in higher education as the language of instruction in scientific disciplines (Allal, 2005). This explains the reason for the weakness of the French language for the majority of students enrolled in higher education. Unless they are studying a subject in which the language of instruction is Modern Standard Arabic such as philosophy, law, political science, history or Arabic language and literature. Mansouri (1991) pointed out that the rejection of western values and modernisation has contributed to the failure of the education system and language policies. While educational policies have favoured the mass education of students in Arabic, French continues to dominate the linguistic landscape of the labour market.

Due to the economic and political turmoil that followed the 1990s, Algeria witnessed momentous changes at the educational level. These reforms stemmed from the need to adapt to globalisation as it had an inevitable impact on new concepts of education in the world (Tawil, 2006). Algeria has introduced a series of changes with the aim of improving the structure of the education system by teaching students learn to seek access to knowledge and to understand the cultural aspects of globalisation.

In recent years, and especially with the emergence of social networking sites, French has lost its dominance in Algeria due to the compelling need to use English as the language of global communication. A number of reforms have been introduced to equip students with the necessary skills to participate in the demanding process of globalisation, including exposure to another language to enhance one's native language skills (Lambert & Weinrich, 1974, as cited in Miliani, 2000). In this context, the importance of foreign language education has been increasingly recognised in Algeria. The Ministry of National Education has supported multilingualism since the early 2000s in order to uphold an atmosphere of tolerance and inclusiveness in the realms of academia and the workplace. The Ministry of National

Education (2005a) summarised the general objectives of teaching English in secondary schools in these terms:

> *The learner will develop abilities and skills that will allow them to integrate into the society in which they live, to be aware of their existence in relation to others, to learn to share, to cooperate, and to be assertive without being aggressive... This participation, based on the sharing and exchange of scientific, cultural ideas and experiences, will enable them to know themselves and others through a continuous reflection on themselves and others... By mastering a powerful linguistic tool, each learner will have the opportunity to access universal science, technology, and culture while avoiding the pitfall of acculturation.* (p. 4)

[*Translated by the researcher*]

Although French is the main language of business and France is still looking for cultural authority in the country, English is an alternative to French as a language of access to modernity in underdeveloped areas of the country. It is supported by its growing popularity among young Algerians pursuing studies abroad and the increasing exposure to media as an international medium. English is also a necessary requirement for employment in Algeria's major oil and gas companies.

The English language is in direct rivalry with the old colonial language, and it has certainly benefited from the quarrel between the Francophone and Arabophone elites. The willingness to embrace the English language is intended to establish a contemporary foundation for the struggle of the Arabophones and to make up for the shortcomings of the Arabic in fulfilling certain communicative or functional needs. According to Miliani (2003), there is a belief that the introduction of English can solve a number of problems, such as economic, technological and educational.

The Algerian education system introduced English as the language of science and modernity and as an essential element for integration into the process of globalisation. According to Richards (2008), a country's population must acquire proficiency in English to

actively participate in the global economy and to access information and knowledge necessary for social and economic growth. Therefore, the goals of education frequently reflect the positive attitudes towards multilingualism in many societies worldwide, and efforts are made to promote linguistic and cultural diversity.

2.2.1 Methodological and Pedagogical Options for the New Reform

The need for reform stemmed from the idea of helping universities to cope with the international higher education system and to meet society's expectations. Education reform in Algeria brought a new spirit and philosophy, but it was implemented with some challenges such as resistance to change, inadequate funding, lack of teacher training, and limited access to educational resources.

After independence in 1962, the grammar-translation method was inherited from the French educational system. Framed in behaviorism, the Audio-lingual Method was soon adopted, relying on the principle of learning in response to a stimulus. In other words, the learners were conditioned to respond properly to the teacher's stimuli. Then, the communicative approach arose in the 1970s as a response to the shortcomings of earlier language teaching methods. The reform emphasised the importance of developing the learners' communicative competence, taking into account the social and cultural context in which the language is used. According to Hymes, the leader of this approach, communicative competence can have social, cultural and psychological dimensions. It is no longer the language structures and lexical collocations that determine the content of the teaching material but the language needs that influence the effectiveness of communication. In this approach, behaviorism is replaced by cognitivism as it places a strong emphasis on the development of learners' cognitive abilities, such as critical thinking, problem-solving, and creative expression. However, ELT Classrooms in Algeria have not been adequately prepared for the implementation of the communicative approach because according to Lakhal-Ayat-Benmati (2008), there are significant deficiencies in students' grasp of the English language when they begin their university education.

The reform also involved the introduction of the Competency-Based Language Teaching (CBLT), which is translated into new ways of learning expressed in terms of student performance. Among the many definitions of the concept of CBLT, we will quote that of the Ministry of National Education in the official programme for teaching English to 3rd year

pupils (2001) "The competence is a know-how that integrates and mobilizes a set of capacities, skills, and knowledge effectively used in problematic situations and various circumstances that may never have been encountered". To clarify, this approach prioritises the learner's effective use of the acquired knowledge both in and out of class.

This approach was first adopted in the field of vocational training and aimed at providing a set of skills that would allow students to concretely reinvest their learning in order to resolve problems both in class and in the workplace, and then CBLT was introduced in the field of education. From a pedagogical point of view, the implementation of such an approach means that the construction of skills acquired through an interaction between individuals engaged in the same situation and shares some principles with the socio-constructivist theory, which considers language learning as a social activity that requires learners to engage in communicative activities and interact with others in the target language.

CBLT was deemed to be the appropriate approach to place the learners at the heart of the learning process and to provide them with a set of language skills that will enable them to communicate effectively and make them acquire the strategies and tools they need to be effective in their lives. The result of this reform is that training is highly student-centred, creating authentic and real communication situations so that learners can convey their prerequisites adequately. This new approach to teaching has brought to the fore the notion of autonomy and teachers should ensure that students gradually develop their autonomy (the Ministry of National Education, 2017). In other words, learners are taught how to apply their classroom skills and knowledge in real-world situations. Nevertheless, due to the nature of the spoon-feeding style of teaching and the focus on completing tasks within a set timeframe rather than on learners' progress, learning of English has become detached from its communicative purpose (Benadla, 2013). English was taught only for purely instrumental motives, such as obtaining a passing grade to move on to the next level, without regard to other learning outcomes (Bouhadiba, 2006).

2.2.2 The LMD Reform

In order to keep up with the massive international changes, the Algerian higher education system implemented the LMD system in the 2000s in accordance with the Bologna Process/European Higher Education Area. The curriculum in this system is divided into three cycles: a three-year bachelor's degree (Licence), a two-year Master's degree, and a three-year

doctoral degree (Doctorat). The LMD system emphasises facilitating student mobility and promoting multilingualism in order to equip Algerians with the necessary problem-solving skills to meet global needs. According to Abdellatif (2013, p.913), the LMD system takes into account the needs of the learners and the labour market. It seeks to encourage student mobility and cooperation between universities. The fulfilment of this goal requires not only a pedagogical revolution in teaching methods, but also preparation for professional training through the English language. By the same token, one of the fundamental principles of the LMD system is the partnership between the university and different companies for social and economic growth. In broader sense, Idri (2005) summarised the major elements of the pedagogical management of the LMD System as follows:

1. The system has been organised on the basis of semesters instead of years for better organisation and flexibility.

2. The Fundamental Unit is where the rudimentary subjects are grouped, the Methodological Unit prepares students to acquire methodological skills, and the Discovery Unit allows students to explore new subjects and broaden their knowledge, making it easier for them to move between disciplines.

3. Each teaching unit corresponds to a certain number of credits that can be transferred. The total number of credits for each semester is 30, with 180 in the Licence programme and 120 in the Master's programme.

4. Domains cover different coherent disciplines, including subjects leading to other specialisations and specific options proposed to students.

5. After acquiring the identified competences, students will be oriented towards academic or professional functions according to their project, allowing them to navigate to other institutions and countries.

6. Tutoring is a new pedagogical activity in the LMD system that allows direct interaction between teachers and students outside academic sessions, making it easier for teachers to advise and guide students throughout the learning process.

7. There is a tendency to progressively orient students towards other specialities based on their results, with the student's competence determining their orientation during the training period.

Studies conducted in various Algerian universities have shown that the LMD system faces some challenges in terms of limited resources, relevance to the labour market needs, and

teacher training (Daghbouche, 2011; Bouhadiba, 2013). Some critics argue that there is a disparity between the theoretical approach promoted by the LMD reform and its practical implementation in reality.

2.2.3   ESP Teaching in Algeria

With the introduction of the LMD system in Algerian universities, ESP was incorporated as a compulsory module in almost all departments, in the hope of generating lifelong learning habits to keep up with the latest scientific studies and research. With the support of the British Council, three ESP centres were established in 1988 with the aim of achieving educational, economic and cultural objectives, including the acquisition of knowledge, access to technology and the development of cultural understanding (Bouabdallah & Bouyakoub, 2017).

The field of ESP gained momentum in Algeria in order to improve students' sense of meritocracy and know-how competencies necessary for their careers. However, as far as the ESP project is concerned, there have been no fruitful results to cope with the higher education experiences of the 21st century. ESP is still in its infancy in Algeria, where the time allotted to the English language course is no more than one hour and half per week. Moreover, the teachers in charge of this course are not trained in ESP and most of them are part-time teachers.

English language teachers are accustomed to using traditional methods based on teacher-centred learning, vocabulary memorisation and translation. These teachers find it quite hard to deal with the demands of their new job and this can lead to in their failure (Strevens, 1988). Similarly, Hutchinson and Waters (1987) argued that "teachers who have been trained for General English or for the teaching of literature find themselves having to teach with texts that they know little or nothing about" (p. 160). Unlike GE, which deals with general topics, the ESP course focuses on specific topics and skills within a particular subject area. In this regard, Robinson (1980) stated that in the ESP course "the topic and situations that the language is linked to will relate to the students' subject specialism" (p. 34).

Teaching ESP is seen as a challenge for those who do not have a proper training in this area. Furthermore, it is an unfortunate trend that ESP teachers are often marginalised without

any valid justification in today's context. Additionally, a large number of students come from backgrounds where their English language skills are often overlooked.

Undoubtedly, the recent increase in ESP publications (textbooks or articles), conference presentations, professional and academic meetings, and online workshops demonstrates that that ESP has earned a significant place in the academic community. However, Algerian scholars face a lack of material resources and linguistic difficulties when trying to publish in English, due to the absence of English in the social, intellectual, and economic environment. Indeed, ESP programmes in Algerian academia do not seem to adequately help the students acquire the kind of knowledge and skills they need to communicate with their foreign counterparts.

The oil and gas industry is one of the most predominant industries in Algeria, with people of different nationalities working for multinational corporations. Meetings and conferences are usually held in English and contracts are drafted in English, so a good command of English is highly valued. According to Brunton (2009), the growth of ESP is a result of market demand and a greater recognition in the academic and business communities of the importance of meeting learners' needs and preferences wherever possible. In particular, legal English is in high demand, as one of the primary goals is to harmonise laws and regulations across all countries.

2.2.4   Faculty of Law and Political Science

The University of Oran 2 was established on 22 September 2014 by Executive Decree No. 14-261, and emerged from the division of the University of Oran that was established in 1967. The Faculty of Law and Political Science was one of the first faculties to be established at the University of Oran, the first university to be established after independence. The Faculty of Law and Political Science is one of the five faculties of University of Oran 2. It has eight Master specialties and four undergraduate specialties. It currently has 155 teachers, 77 professional and technical staff, 3712 undergraduate students, 2023 graduate students, and 400 doctoral students with 6 laboratories. The tables below show the available specialties available to the students in the Faculty of Law and Political Science.

Under-graduate level (Licence)

Field	Major	Specialty
Law and Political Science	Law	Private Law
		Public Law
	Political Science	Administrative and Political Organisations
		International Relations

Table 2.1 Specialties for Undergraduate Students in the Faculty of Law and Political Science

Graduate level (Master)

Field	Major	Specialty
Law and Political Science	Law	Criminal Law and Criminal Sciences
		Administrative Law
		Private Law
		Medical Law
		Public Economic Law
		Business Law
	Political Science	General Administration
		International Relations

Table 2.2 Specialties for Master's Students in the Faculty of Law and Political Science

In this faculty, English is taught in both departments and is considered as a second foreign language after French. In order to obtain more information about the teaching situation of the English language teaching in the Faculty of Law and Political Science, the researcher chose the Department of Law as a sample for the study.

2.2.5 The Department of Law

As the second capital of Algeria, Oran had to create the Department of Law with competent and skilled professionals who had studied law in different universities in order to

develop legal sciences in terms of programmes, curricula, and methods. In this way, the department has piqued the interest of students in Algeria and abroad, and it has produced outstanding leaders.

The Department of Law has always worked to increase students' knowledge of Algerian and foreign law and to encourage them to undertake in-depth research and study in a variety of legal fields. It has adopted modern teaching methods based on legal and systematic research in the interpretation and resolution of conflicts.

The department introduces students to the Algerian and international legal principles and rules, which contribute to the refinement of the legal knowledge necessary to deal with issues and problems arising in the local and international arenas, in terms of legislation, comparative studies, or international law. The degree programme prepares students to enter legal professions in the following domains:

- Judiciary
- Law firms
- Notary public
- Public sector jobs (head departments in public services)
- Private sector jobs (institutions, companies and banks)

2.2.6   The Status of English in the Department of Law

English ranks the third language in the world in terms of the number of native speakers, after Mandarin Chinese and Spanish. It is the world's most widely spoken second language. English is the main language of communication in science. It is therefore necessary to have a good command of English in order to access research results, which are mostly published in this language, and to share one's own research findings. Otherwise, the exchange of information and training would be hampered.

In the Department of Law, the English module is officially introduced into the curriculum during the two years of the Master's programme, whereas French is taught as the only foreign language during the undergraduate programme. This module is only given a total of one and a half hours per week and classes are teacher-centred, with regular use of translation and little interaction in English. In addition, there is no set textbook for teaching

English and it is left to the language teacher to choose appropriate teaching materials. Unfortunately, decision-makers pay little attention to the teaching of English, let alone the preparation of materials for ESP. Consequently, the learners' needs are not analysed, which hinders the development of effective teaching materials that cater to their needs.

The aim of ESP is to equip students with the necessary language skills and strategies to access information available in English, which can have a significant impact on their academic and professional lives on an international scale.

2.3 Research Methodology

Education is a complex social system with multiple realities that needs to be approached from both subjective and objective point of view. The field of education requires research that offers an environment that is adapted to the varied challenges of our ever-changing world (Whitty, 2006) and a methodology that contributes to the best possible outcomes in educational research. As a result, one of the questions we have to ask when carrying out a research in an educational setting is the type of research methodology that should be used.

There are several factors to consider when choosing a research methodology. The research design is a framework of guidelines or strategies for collecting and analysing data. It facilitates a connection between the researcher and the researchee and lays out a plan for how the researcher will tackle the important questions at hand (Denzin & Lincoln, 2008). As suggested by Denzin and Lincoln (1994) and Sarantakos (1998), this study is based on three general elements: (1) selection of a research paradigm (2) selection of the methods employed to carry out the research (3) the selection of population and data gathering tools. All of these steps serve to better understand the situation of teaching English in the Department of Law at University of Oran 2 in order to develop a course that matches up with the needs and expectations of the target population.

2.3.1   Research Paradigm and Philosophical Assumptions

Every research study involves a particular approach, or paradigm, to understand reality and how knowledge is acquired. In the field of education, it's important to start with a philosophical orientation in order to determine the most appropriate research methods and interpret the results effectively. A paradigm guides a researcher's decision to use either

qualitative or quantitative methods (Weaver & Olson 2006) to address specific research questions. Therefore, a research paradigm is a model or approach that enables a researcher to conduct research within a particular framework. Once the research study is framed within a particular paradigm, the methodological implications become clear and allow the researcher to select the most appropriate methods for investigating the knowledge they are interested in.

In social research, the term 'paradigm' indicates the set of beliefs and values about reality and knowledge shared by a community of specialists (Kuhn, 1970) in order to direct research both in terms of formulating hypotheses and in preparing the necessary empirical research techniques. The paradigm is a way of perceiving and understanding the world that has been adopted by a group of scientists. For Guba and Lincoln (1994), a paradigm reflects the ontological, epistemological, and methodological aspects of the research (p. 108) that constitute the starting point for the investigation's purpose, the nature of knowledge, and the techniques for accumulating knowledge. Although these are distinct areas of analysis, they are interrelated. To clarify, the assumptions researchers make about the nature of reality (ontology) will influence the way knowledge about reality is obtained (epistemology), and this has an impact on how research is conducted (methodology). Burrell and Morgan (1979) added human nature as an integral element of the research process.

Burrell and Morgan (1979) explained the interrelationship of epistemology with ontology, human nature and methodology. Ontology is related to the way reality is understood, and whether reality is given 'out there' of an objective nature or the product of individual's knowledge. While, Epistemology is the nature of the relationship between the knower and the known, human nature is used to refer to the relationship between individuals and their environment. As result, the three sets of propositions mentioned above have direct implications for the methods (Burrell & Morgan, 1979) that refer to the way a researcher will attempt to understand reality. To clarify, different ontologies, epistemology and models of human nature are likely to lead researchers to different methodologies to investigate and obtain knowledge about the social world.

2.3.1.1 Types of Paradigms

There are three main paradigms that organise modern social work research (e.g., positivism, interpretivism/ constructivism, and pragmatism). Positivists believe that there is a single reality that can be discovered and measured and is not based on our individual

subjective perceptions. As Hutchinson (1988) stated, "positivists view the world as being 'out there', and available for study in a more or less static form" (as cited in Gall et al., 2003, p.14). Therefore, they use quantitative methods to measure this reality. In contrast, constructivists believe that there is no single reality and that reality must be created, not discovered, because it is socially constructed. As Flick (2004) stated, "perception is seen not as a passive-receptive process of representation but as an active constructive process of production" (p. 89). Interpretivism is based on the philosophy that reality is subjective, dependent on our perception of it, and that knowledge of reality is personal and contextual. Consequently, by adopting this paradigm, the researcher uses qualitative methods to understand these multiple realities. Finally, pragmatists believe that reality is constantly negotiated, debated, and interpreted, and that it is impossible to have 'complete objectivity' or 'complete subjectivity' to access the 'truth'. Pragmatism emphasises that theories can be both specific to a particular context and, through analysis, transferable to other situations (Creswell, 2009a). Accordingly, followers of this paradigm use both qualitative and quantitative methods (mixed methods research). The qualitative data are expected not only to confirm the quantitative data, but also to build on their strengths and weaknesses (Morgan, 2007).

In the course of this research, the researcher was motivated to blend quantitative and qualitative methodologies, leading to the adaptation of the pragmatic paradigm. This particular paradigm was developed to put an end to paradigm Wars (Gage, 1989) of positivism and interpretivism. The positivist paradigm, on one hand, has been the subject of criticism due to its limitations "explore the complexities and conundrums of the immensely complicated social world that we inhabit" (Richards, 2003, p.6). On the other hand, the interpretivist paradigm has also faced criticism for its generalisations and the involvement of the researcher with participants, leading to lack of objectivity (Grix, 2004).

By choosing the pragmatist paradigm, the researcher aimed to span the gap between these two models and to benefit from the strengths of both approaches in order to examine the phenomenon under study more thoroughly. Ultimately, the aim of this research is not to establish universal truths, but to derive meaning from what happens in a particular learning environment, as the meaning is an integral part of human experience and is context dependent. (Dillon et al., 2000). Accordingly, it was assumed that the nature of the current study required the implementation of quantitative information processing techniques and non-

quantifiable aspects (beliefs, intentions, interpretations, experiences, motivations, etc.) that are primarily associated with qualitative methods to investigate the English language needs in the Department of Law and collect the voices of the participants. The philosophy of pragmatism, therefore, framed the research approaches of this study to investigate the English language skills required for students in areas of law.

2.3.2 Differences between Qualitative and Quantitative Data Collection Methods

It is generally accepted that there are two types of data collection- qualitative and quantitative. Therefore, this section explores the advantages and disadvantages of using quantitative and qualitative research methods.

2.3.2.1 Quantitative Research

Quantitative research is defined by its focus on numerical data and the use of statistical analysis to address research queries. In this type of research, significant attention is given to numbers and figures, and data is collected and analysed in a structured manner (Bryman, 2008). Quantitative research employs investigative methods such as surveys and experiments (Creswell, 2003) and relies on probability theory to assess statistical hypotheses that align with the research questions (Harwell, 2011).

This type of research attempts to establish a "cause-and-effect relationship" (Johnson & Christensen, 2017, p.487). For example, an investigation aimed at exploring the effectiveness of specific teaching practices will be measured through statistical summaries. Dornyei (2007) lists some of the characteristics of quantitative research, which tends to be "systematic, rigorous, focused, and tightly controlled, involving precise measurement and producing reliable and replicable data that is generalizable to other contexts" (p. 34). This suggests that the aim of quantitative research is to make generalisations to assess the quality of a study (Kerlinger & Lee, 2000) as it is assumed that in quantitative research, 'facts' exist as entities that are separate from and not influenced by the observer or researcher (Nunan, 1992). Quantitative research primarily relies on a "positivist worldview, experimental strategy of enquiry, and pre-test measures of attitudes" (Creswell, 2009a, p.17). Hence, in the quantitative research method, the investigator examines the issue as an outsider in order "to ensure objectivity in the conduct of the study and the conclusions that are drawn" (Harwell, 2011, p.149).

In this study, the researcher used the quantitative research method to conduct a survey in the form of questionnaires, and then analysed the collected data by statistical methods.

2.3.2.2 Qualitative Research

Qualitative research refers to a methodological approach that aims to understand and interpret social phenomena through in-depth analysis of non-numerical data, such as interviews, observations, and written texts. The information is interpreted subjectively by the researcher with the aim of providing an "insider's perspective" (Dörnyei, 2007, p.38). Creswell (2003, p.182) suggests that when analysing data, the researcher must engage in several activities, including developing a description of individuals or settings, identifying themes or categories within the data, and finally making an interpretation based on these findings. The role of the researcher is also important in the qualitative method (Dörnyei, 2007) as they are responsible for collecting, analysing, and interpreting data in a rigorous and systematic way. However, there is a risk of drawing an overly narrow conclusion, which can lead to limited generalisability of the findings (Dörnyei, 2007). As stated by Heigham and Crocker (2009), some qualitative researchers consider the generalisability of their findings. Nonetheless, this approach recognises the unique context of each research setting, and many qualitative researchers leave it up to the reader to decide the relevance of the features of the research setting to their own context.

Qualitative approach is an exploratory research that "is concerned with subjective assessment of attitudes, opinions and behaviour" (Kothari, 2004, p.5), and is ultimately the product of the researcher's subjective interpretation of the data (Dörnyei, 2007). It is more flexible than quantitative research because "certain elements of symbolism, meaning, or understanding usually require a consideration of the individual's own perceptions and subjective apprehension" (Berg & Lune, 2012, p.15).

This research approach relies mainly on textual data, such as interview transcripts, focus group discussions, and content analysis. This textual data is then analysed through a process of coding and thematic analysis, which can then be used to generate rich, descriptive accounts of the experiences and perspectives of language teachers and learners in different educational contexts.

The qualitative research strategy adopted in this study was aimed at exploring and understanding the practices, experiences and perceptions of the participants. According to Denzin and Lincoln (2000), the qualitative research approach is a more appropriate approach when the nature of the characteristics of the research problem is complex. From a methodological point of view, qualitative research emphasises the study of everyday problems and is based on the actions and interactions of participant in different socio-cultural contexts.

2.4 The Approach of the Current Research

The findings from the literature review suggest the need for mixed methods research. It is the integration of different methods in a single study (Creswell, 2003) to avoid polarisation. Researchers have given different names to mixed methods research design such as multitrait-multimethod, triangulation, mixed methods research, mixed research, etc. Mixed methods research has emerged in academia as a promising design for combining the quantitative part, using numerical data, and the qualitative part, using textual forms of data. This design has been approved philosophically and methodologically as researchers assume that the two views (quantitative and qualitative) support each other "to examine that problem deductively and inductively so that findings will be explainable" (Hay, 2016, p.xii). Mixed methods research is considered to complement the strengths of quantitative and qualitative approaches in educational research.

Mixed methods research is often referred to as multi-strategy research for applying a number of different research strategies in relation to a complex set of research questions and a complex research design (Bryman, 2001). For Johnson, Onwuegbuzie, and Turner (2007), it is ''an approach to knowledge that attempts to consider multiple viewpoints, perspectives, positions, and standpoints" from "qualitative and quantitative research" (p. 113). Hence, this paradigm enables the researcher to take advantages of both the qualitative and quantitative paradigms. For example, Qualitative researchers are often critical of quantitative research, arguing that it can be overly simplistic, lacking in context, and unable to fully capture the rich and nuanced meanings that individuals attach to their lives and circumstances (Dörnyei, 2007). On the other hand, quantitative researchers consider qualitative research to be subjective, invalid, unreliable, context-specific, and too small in sample size (Denzin & Lincoln, 2018).

The position taken in the present study is against the 'paradigm war' stance, which is based on the belief that research paradigms are incompatible and inextricably linked to epistemological assumptions, values and methods (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). The researcher adopted a pragmatist stance towards the mixed methods paradigm in order to mitigate potential biases that could arise from relying on a single data collection method. In other words, triangulation facilitated the process of checking the credibility of the research instruments as well as the validity of the data collected (McNeill & Chapman, 2005). Furthermore, a mixed methods approach fits with needs analysis research as a range of data collection methods are relevant when conducting a needs analysis (Dudley-Evans & St. John, 1998).

The present study uses semi-structured interviews, focus group discussions, and document analysis (qualitative methods), as well as questionnaires (a quantitative method) to confirm and validate the reliability of the research instruments and the trustworthiness of the collected data. The next section looks at the sample which was studied within this framework.

2.5 Needs Analysis as the Central Research Method of the Study

With reference to what has been mentioned in the theoretical part, the needs analysis carried out in the context of the present research is based on the learning-centred approach to needs analysis by Hutchinson and Waters (1987) in order to gain insight into the needs of students and stakeholder in the context of ESP teaching and learning at the university. The authors' learning-centred approach to needs analysis puts 'target needs' and 'learning needs' in the foreground.

The target need refers to what the learner needs to do in the target situation whereas the learning need refers to what the learner needs to do in order to learn. Furthermore, the authors subdivided the "target needs" into "necessities", "lacks" and "wants".
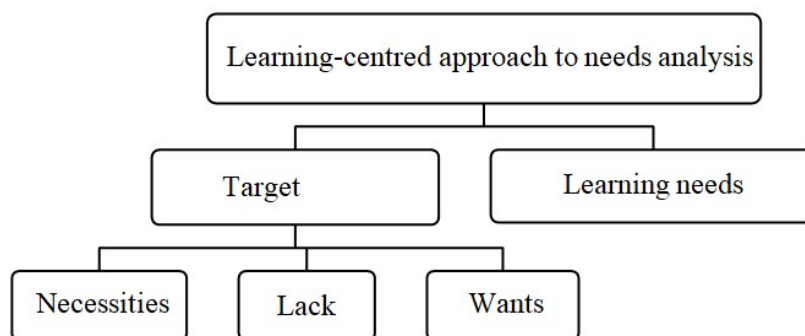
Figure 2.1 Learning-centred needs analysis (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987)

The analysis of the 'necessities', the 'lacks', and the 'wants' appears to be ideally suited to answer the research question in the context of this needs analysis, as it allows different perspectives to be taken into account and different types of needs to be identified. In this way, the research question can be examined from different perspectives in order to develop an appropriate and efficient funding approach.

The 'necessities' describe what the learner should know in order to be able to be effective in the target situation or in the context of use. In this needs-based study, the context in which the students use the academic language of English should be taken into account. In addition, the question of the specific academic language-related situations in which students will act should be investigated. The aim is to examine what academic materials the students will be dealing with or what requirements these materials should meet.

Besides the target situation, it is also necessary to determine what knowledge and skills the learners already have in order to identify the missing knowledge and skills, the so-called 'lacks'. Precisely, it is necessary to identify the difference between the target state and the actual state of the learner, i.e., "the gaps between what the learner knows and the necessities" (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987, p.55-56).

In addition to 'necessities' and the 'lacks', the personal preferences of the learner with regard to the content should also be taken into account when determining the needs. Learners themselves have their own ideas of what their needs are. Regarding motivation in the learning process, the needs perceived by the learners - the 'wants' - cannot be ignored. In the context of the present research, the 'wants' were identified on the basis of specific questions in the

interviews and questionnaires with the students. They were asked what aspects of language they would like to learn more about.

Last but not least, Dudley-Evans and St. John's means analysis (1998) was also used to clarify and better understand the context of the current work. This involved examining the classroom culture and the various factors that influence the learning process. In addition, the researcher looked at the profiles of language teachers and the institutional factors that shape and influence their teaching practices, such as policies and teaching conditions.

2.6 Case Study Approach

A case study approach was adopted for the present research in order to capture the complex real-life dimensions of teaching ELP at the University of Oran 2. By concentrating on a single case, the researcher was able to explore the factors that influence language learning and teaching, and to develop more effective teaching strategies and approaches that are tailored to the needs and experiences of the learners and teachers. Yin (2014) describes it as "a research method, the case study is used in many situations, to contribute to our knowledge of individual group, organisational, social, political, and related phenomena" (p. 4). In essence, it involves the use of various methods to collect data from a small number of individuals or entities (Goldstein & Mead, 1987).

In the field of second or foreign language education research, a 'case study' usually relates to "a person, either a learner or a teacher, or an entity, such as a school, a university, or a classroom; and in language policy research, the case may be a country" (Chapelle & Duff (2003, p. 164). In the present study, the case study refers to the ESP course in the Department of Law. Case studies are widely used in social sciences and represent a comprehensive method of creating and using knowledge in the field of second language learning (Duff, 2014). There is growing confidence in the case study method as "a rigorous research strategy in its own right" (Hartley, 1994, p.2008).

Yin (2014) offered three main types of case study research design: exploratory, explanatory, and descriptive. In brief, an exploratory case study seeks to answer questions typically framed by the 'what' question. An explanatory case study, on the other hand, seeks to answer 'how and why' questions. A descriptive case study is used to provide a full description of a phenomenon within its context, without presumption of generalisation to

other situations. An exploratory case study research design was used to both generate research topics for future explanatory research and to add to the current knowledge base of the phenomenon.

The research methodology employed in this study is based on the pragmatist paradigm and utilises an exploratory case study approach. To assess the English language needs of the subjects involved, the research instruments were derived from a commonly used needs analysis model by Dudley-Evan and St. John (1998). The aim of this approach is to gain in-depth understanding of the participants' language needs and to design a course that can effectively meet their requirements.

2.7 Population and Sampling Procedures

In research, sampling is the process of identifying, selecting, and accessing relevant data sources through specified procedures in order to generate data using a chosen methodology. The process of sampling and the selection of participants are critical determinants in sampling procedure and selecting the participants significantly affects the trustworthiness of the research results (Mason, 2002). In this particular research, the participants were selected in a non-random and purposeful method, which is particularly fit for qualitative studies (Merriam, 1998), as it ensure obtaining the necessary information or experience that is relevant to the research topic.

For the purposes of the study, three English language teachers from the Department of Law were selected for interviews based on a set of pre-determined list of criteria. The selection criteria included elements such as the level of experience and recommendations from the department staff. Additionally, the participants were purposefully selected according to their availability and willingness to take part in the study to assure that the participants were committed to the research process and could contribute valuable insights into the topic.

Regarding the group discussion, there were 20 students from the University of Oran 2 participated, all of whom were in their Master's years when the data were collected. The sample consisted of seven male and thirteen female students.

In the current research, two versions of a questionnaire were designed to address the needs analysis: graduate students and subject specialist teachers were the main sources of information.

The first group consisted of 80 first-year and second-year law students. Their ages ranged from 21 to 41 years. They were studying English as an academic subject at university for a total of three semesters only in their Master's years.

One of the primary reasons for the choice of ELP courses is the significant role that English language skills play in students' legal studies. As matter of fact, a good proficiency English is crucial for students to be able to communicate efficiently, discern legal texts, and articulate their thoughts and arguments clearly in English.

Besides the student participation, the subject specialist teachers were teaching law in the Department of Law, and some of them were also practising lawyers. These teachers were in a position to assess the language needs of the law students considering their involvement in the decision-making process. Their substantial experience in the legal profession and the understanding of the complexities of legal language qualified them to provide a critical insight into the language requirements, which was extremely helpful in devising effective strategies for improving the English courses.

The sample selected is intended to be representative of the population of interest and the results can be generalised to individuals with similar characteristics and circumstances. The size of the final sample was determined by three main factors: the cost of gathering data, the feasibility of the study, and the degree of statistical precision.

2.7.1 The Interview

One of the primary data collection tools for the current study was the interview, which is an essential technique for needs analysis (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987; Robinson, 1991; West, 1994; Jordan, 1997; Dudley-Evans & St John, 1998) in order to capture rich and complex details (Dörnyei, 2007). Additionally, as the aim of this study is to investigate how language teachers work with law students to reach the objectives of the English language course. Interviews are a valuable research method for accessing people's subjective opinions, experiences and feelings because interviews allow researchers to gather information about things that cannot be directly observed, and instead require asking participants questions (Patton, 2002). It is a form of interaction between an interviewer and an interviewee, as it moves away from manipulating data as something external to individuals, and towards knowledge generated by people through dialogue (Kvale, 1996). This means that this research

method "offers different ways of exploring people's experience and views' and allows the researcher to probe beneath the surface of issues in order to see them from each participant's perspective" (Richards, 2009, p.183).

As a data collection tool, interviews have a higher response rate than questionnaires because interviews allow the researcher to explain the aims and objectives of the interview (Oppenheim, 1992). In other words, interviews differ from quantitative methods in the sense of allowing interviewees to be more involved and therefore motivated to share their views and clarify potential ambiguities in the process.

2.7.1.1 Interview Schedule

After the English teachers at faculty of Law and Political Science had agreed to participate in the study, interview dates were arranged. The interview questions prepared by the researcher were reviewed by the supervisor to ensure that they were appropriately worded and aligned with the overall research questions. In addition, the questions were revised and piloted with an ESP teacher who was not part of the study, as suggested by Bryman (2015), in order to fine-tune the interview questions. A pilot study allows the proposed instruments and procedures to be tested and any necessary changes to be made before the actual study begins, to ensure that they are manageable to produce useful data (Dornyei, 2007). Moreover, an interview guide was used to carry out the interviews, but different and/or additional questions could be asked if this seemed necessary or interesting. Although semi-structured interviews involved planning, there was freedom to modify questions and follow up interesting answers in a way that a questionnaire cannot (Robson, 1993). For the preparation of this work, the semi-structured interview allowed a free-flowing dialogue between the researcher and the participants, based on a guide of topics and questions that the interviewer was free to modify according to the circumstances in order to obtain more information.

The Teacher interview was divided into rubrics in order to create a naturally developing line of inquiry (Richards, 2009). Additionally, with the permission of the participants, the interviews were audio recorded to facilitate the analysis and interpretation of the data collection.

2.7.1.2 Conducting the Interviews

As far as the interview procedures are concerned, the researcher arranged a meeting with each teacher, which took place in the Department of Law and lasted approximately 30 minutes. The purpose of the interview and the nature of the questions were explained to the interviewees, as the researcher was willing to provide clarity if needed. Moreover, the researcher ensured that the interaction was conducted in a respectful and non-threatening manner, as Johnson and Turner (2003) noted that in order to minimise bias during an interview, it is crucial for the interviewer to maintain a non-judgmental attitude towards the answers given by the interviewee. Therefore, the participants were reassured that what they would say would be confidential and that they would remain anonymous in order to create a friendly atmosphere. Respondents were given sufficient information about the research objectives.

In practice, this method targeted three English language teachers at the Faculty of Law and Political Science because they would provide detailed information about students' language competence and attitudes towards the ELP course. The interview was designed to give the researcher a clear view of the ESP course in terms of teaching materials, methods, and challenges faced by the language teachers. First of all, general questions were asked, mainly related to their specialty, their degree and their professional experience. This was followed by more specific questions about the actual topic of the research. The sequencing of questions and topics shifted from the general to the more specific.

2.7.2 The Questionnaires

The questionnaire has been used in social science research as a technique for gathering information about participants' social characteristics, present and past behaviour, attitudes of individuals and the underlying reasons that drive their actions and decisions in relation to the topic under investigation (Bulmer, 2004). It can be described as a written tool that presents respondents with a series of questions or statements to which they can respond either by writing out their answers or by selecting from pre-defined answer options. One of the notable utilities of the questionnaires is that they simplify the process of collecting information as participants can "fill out a questionnaire in their own time, at their own pace, and fit it into their schedule" (Brown, 2001, p.77). According to Munn and Drever (1990), surveys offer several benefits for researchers, including the ability to efficiently use time, provide anonymity for respondents, potentially achieve a high response rate, and standardise the questions being asked.

Researchers in field of needs analysis recognise the usefulness of a mixed methods approach (Brown, 2001; Brown and Rodgers, 2002; Dornyei, 2003; Lynch, 2003; Hadley, 2006), where the first stage of analysis involves interviews to explore issues and may be useful at the preliminary stages of designing a questionnaire since an understanding of the issues and concerns that can be emphasised in the questionnaire will help the designer (Richards, 2001, p.61). Witkin and Altschuld (1995) added that questionnaires are widely used in needs assessment. Furthermore, Long (2005) stated that questionnaire is the "most over-used and over-rated approach to needs analysis at present" (p. 64).

2.7.2.1 Developing the Questionnaires

The rationale for using of semi-structured interviews and document analysis was to improve the interpretation of data derived from the questionnaire. Quantitative data aims to explore attitudes towards the ESP course. The questionnaires were written in English and translated into Arabic to ensure the clarity of the statements.

First, the participants were presented with the background information, the purpose of the study and the promise of anonymity. The instructions were then explained. The questionnaires were divided into four parts:

Students Questionnaire	**Subject Specialists Questionnaire**
Section One: General Information	**Section One:** General Information
Section Two: Students' Levels of English Proficiency	**Section Two:** Subject Specialist Teachers' levels of English Proficiency
Section Three: Students' attitudes towards the ELP Course	**Section Three:** Subject Specialist Teachers' attitudes towards the ELP Course

Table 2.3 Parts of the Questionnaires

The first section asks for the respondents' general information, the second deals with their skills and proficiency levels in English, and the third explores their preferred learning styles and attitudes towards the ELP course. In the main parts of the questionnaires, the participants encountered closed questions to facilitate the subsequent process of managing and analysing the data (O'Leary, 2004). In addition, the survey included some open-ended questions to find out the reason for their answers. Dawson (2009) mentioned that open-ended questions can make respondents feel that what they have to say is important because they have to answer in their own words.

This study was first piloted to test the instruments to identify any potential issues that would affect the data collection process. Eleven students were asked to participate in piloting the questionnaire. This procedure was useful for modifying the research questions and the questionnaire items in some way to guarantee that respondents meet the research objectives. Through the process of piloting a questionnaire, researchers can identify potential problems with wording, ambiguous items or inappropriate questions. This allows the collection of sample data to clarify any problems with the proposed methods of analysis before the actual data is collected, ensuring a more effective and accurate research process (Weir & Roberts, 1994). Furthermore, the returned questionnaires from the pilot study helped to revise the wording of the questions and eliminate any questions that students were likely to ignore.

2.7.2.2 Administering the Questionnaires

The questionnaire was given to the language teachers who decided to distribute it to their students. As a result, the researcher did not know the identity of the participants. The questionnaire received 96 responses over a period of one week, but only 80 were used in this study.

In order to collect and compare the responses, an electronic survey for subject specialist teachers was created using Google Forms due to the unavailability of the teachers, so no paper-to-electronic data transcription was required. The questionnaire was created and administered using Google Forms questionnaire format which automatically saves data into a spreadsheets form as respondents submit their responses.

2.7.3 Documents Analysis

For many years, document analysis, also known as content analysis (Robson, 1993), has been one of the most widely used qualitative methods in various fields. Its importance lies in its ability to be used as a historical data for the study of certain social phenomena. Moreover, document analysis is defined as "a research technique for making replicable and valid inferences from data to their context" (Robson, 1993, p.272). Document analysis is described as a form of secondary data in which the researchers use artefacts such as public policy documents, films, newspapers and books as their data sources (Mason, 1996). Secondary data contains a lot of information, and can be reviewed repeatedly (Yin, 1994).

Despite criticism, document analysis has an established place in social research and offers many advantages. According to Cavanagh (1997), content analysis is a method of understanding of the meaning of communication in a simplistic description of the data. Thus, it is a content-sensitive method (Krippendorff, 1980) and flexible in terms of research design (Harwood & Garry, 2003). Document analysis is an important social research tool in most triangulation schemes. In this study it was used in combination with other qualitative research methods as a means of triangulation. However, the documents collected in this study were very limited due to the fact that there is no definite structure for the ESP course in the Department of Law. Three types of documents were collected and analysed in this study. The first two were the teachers' materials and lesson plans and the third was the students' notes. The content, teaching methods, assessment strategies, teaching aids, resources and time allocated to the course were also detailed. The documents available were helpful in making a comparison between what was expected and what happened in the real setting.

By reviewing the available documents, which were very limited, the researcher was able to describe the objectives and activities of the English course in the setting.

2.7.4   Focus Group

A focus group is a method of collecting data that relies on group dynamics and its use in education has grown tremendously in recent years (Gilflores & Alonso, 1995). In general terms, a focus group can be understood as an interview in which a group of people do not "reach consensus about or solutions to the issues being discussed, but to bring forth different viewpoints on the issue" (Kvale & Brinkmann, 2009, p.150). Unlike interviews, group interaction helps the participants to inspire each other to generate ideas from different perspectives, resulting in rich qualitative data (Shank, 2002). In other words, the focus group

is a qualitative technique whose purpose is to explore people's experiences, opinions, wishes, and concerns rather than to solve problems or make decisions (Krueger & Casey, 2000). Hence, focus groups are well suited to exploratory studies (Kvale & Brinkman, 2009).

Here, the researcher takes on the role of a 'facilitator' or a 'moderator'. In this setting, the researcher facilitates and moderates the group discussion between the participants. According to Morgan (2002), "most treatments of focus group methodology emphasise the need to keep the discussion on the topic while encouraging the group to interact freely." (p. 146) The group usually consists of six to twelve people who have experience or interest in the topic under study (Patton, 2002). Accordingly, the main objective of using focus group discussions was to obtain students' attitudes, beliefs and experiences that could not be obtained in depth using other instruments. A focus group is a "nondirective technique that results in the controlled production of a discussion of a group of people" (Gilflores & Alonso, 1995, p. 84). Compared to questionnaires and interviews, focus groups can provide richer information that may be more easily revealed through a collective interaction. The most important thing for the researchers is the experiences, opinions, feelings and knowledge; therefore, the focus group was used in order to know in depth how law students react to different classroom activities. Firstly, the technique of focus group stressed on understanding how students collectively and individually interpret their experiences within a context. Secondly, the questions addressed the participants' evaluation of the effectiveness of the activities in the ESP classroom. Finally, students were able to reflect on their foreign language comprehension and production.

2.7.4.1 Focus Group Procedure

Focus groups are an extended way of the interview method and comprised of twenty participants. Compared to questionnaires and interviews, focus groups can provide richer information which may be easier to be revealed through a collective interaction. The focus group was conducted after several classroom observations and direct contact with the stakeholders. The students were divided into two groups to conduct the focus group discussions for about thirty minutes.

Participants were given information about the purpose of the focus group and any relevant background material. The session included a series of open-ended questions to elicit a range of perspectives and opinions.

2.8 Rationale of Data Analysis

Broadly speaking, data analysis is seen as the most challenging task for researchers, often perceived as ambiguous and time-consuming. One of the key tasks has been to organise data so that it is manageable (Silverman, 2001). Schwandt (2007) described the process of data analysis as a combination of art and science, involving the interpretation and theorisation of data in order to make sense of it. He emphasised that if data were self-explanatory, there would be no need for analysis. According to Creswell (2007), qualitative data analysis involves preparing and organising text or image data, identifying themes through coding and condensing, and presenting the results in figures, tables or discussion (p. 148). In addition, the process of analysing qualitative data typically begins with coding (Dörnyei, 2005). Coding refers to the process of creating specific sections of transcribed data and assigning labels to them in a way that makes them easily identified, retrieved or grouped (Dörnyei, 2005). It is the process of categorising the data into relevant groups with the aim of enhancing the effectiveness of comparing different cases more effectively (Dey, 1993).

In analysing the qualitative interview transcripts, deductive and inductive logic to the research are applied; one is inductive from the raw data and the second is deductive from theory and prior research (Boyatzis, 1998). The findings from the interview transcripts and focus groups were categorised by themes in the evaluation framework and interpreted using the theoretical framework to provide specific answers to the research questions (Bryman & Bell, 2003).

The document review and material evaluation were carried out using the tools of genre analysis in order to get a deeper understanding of the nature of legal communication types and the potential implications for improving legal English proficiency. A genre analysis approach (Dudley Evans & St John, 1998) is used in this study to analyse documents collected from the Department of Law in University of Oran 2.

Quantitative analysis of the data was performed using both descriptive and inferential statistics. Descriptive statistical analysis was used to look at the percentage of agreement and disagreement between participants regarding their perceptions of ELP needs and attitudes towards the ELP course. Descriptive statistics are commonly used in research "to provide measure of central tendency, dispersion, and distribution shape" (O'Leary, 2004, p. 189). In the study, inferential statistics were employed to help the researcher determine whether the

patterns observed within the sample population were indicative of the larger population or simply the result of chance (O'Leary, 2004). Essentially, this means that the researcher can make generalisations about the larger population based on observations made in a smaller sample population. Inferential statistics allow the researcher to make more accurate and reliable predictions on a larger population.

2.9 Ethical Issues

Any research involving human subjects must consider ethical issues that could potentially affect the dignity and the welfare of the participants. Rose and Grosvenor (2001) stated that "ethics is a central principle of research practice" and ethics "are about being clear about the nature of the agreement the researcher establishes with research participants" (p.6). O'Leary (2004) emphasised power position of the researchers when conducting a research project. According to her, the power derived from conducting research is rooted in factors such as education, socio-economic status, control and authority. Researchers therefore need to recognise their responsibility to ensure the integrity of the project and to follow ethical guidelines.

A potential ethical concern is the need for informed consent, which is critical to ethical research (Patton, 2002). All participants were given a consent form outlining research procedures and participant confidentiality. Additionally, informed consent ensured that their participation was completely voluntary. All participants were provided with all necessary details about the study, its duration, and their roles. The researcher also explained to the English language teachers that they were free to delete any parts of confidential information that they did not want to reveal when they provided me with documents such as lessons, exam papers, and assignments.

2.10   The Role of the Researcher

The researcher's role in the present study is that of both an insider and an outsider. Rather than being a detached observer, the researcher was employed as an ELP teacher at the research site for the 2018/2019 academic year at the time of the pilot testing of data collection instruments. In fact, the piloting stages and feedback from participants on the instruments resulted in several adjustments to make the items more reflective of the academic settings being studied.

The researcher has an insider perspective on the dynamics of the pedagogical aspects of the ELP course as well as on the student population. Therefore, the researcher was able to build trust and a good relationship with the participants in order to collect accurate in-depth data and to better understand the subjective realities and perceptions of the teachers. According to the qualitative point of view, researchers engage with the informants they are studying by living with them, observing them over time, or working with them. The goal of this interaction is to reduce the distance between the researcher and those being studied in order to establish a closer relationship that can facilitate a deeper understanding of the situation (Creswell, 1994). Although the researcher is familiar with the challenges of learning English and teaching English to adult students, she had no insight into the students' future language needs. Hence, the role of the researcher as outsider allowed for an objective view and interpretation of the phenomena.

As different sources of data collection were used, both the insider and outsider roles contributed to making a reliable and valid interpretation, as an outsider's position offers a more objective view of the realities, while an insider's position may provide a better understanding of a group of people that is inaccessible to an outsider.

2.11   Validity and reliability

The process of triangulation applied to this study generated more reliable data. Triangulation is a way of ensuring trustworthiness by giving "corroborating evidence collected through multiple methods ... to locate major and minor themes" (Creswell & Miller, 2000, p.127), rather than relying on a single source of information when studying the same phenomenon. The current data was collected from three sources: law students, the language teachers and the subject specialist teachers in order to obtain different perceptions of legal English needs. During the data-collection phase, the researcher used semi-structured interviews, questionnaires, and documents analysis to collect data because triangulation is about confirming the extent to which the research has successfully measured the social phenomena being studied to reduce aspects of bias (MacNaughton et al., 2001).

Whenever we want to gather information in order to make decisions, we are faced with the problem of what type of instrument to use. For research instruments, both quantitative and qualitative, it is necessary to comply with the following tenets: validity and reliability. Validity and reliability are combined to assist the researcher in gathering and

analysing information, leading to the credibility of the data and the objectivity in describing the reality derived from a specific learning environment. However, the application of validity and reliability in the mixed methods paradigm is a complex process due to the different epistemological roots of quantitative and qualitative approaches.

Quantitative reliability refers to the consistency of data and quantitative validity refers to the generalisability of the results (Dörnyei, 2007). However, the essence of reliability for qualitative research lies in the concepts of confirmability, trustworthiness and dependency of the results, and similarly validity is understood to refer to correctness of evidence, credibility, and transferability (Ritchie & Lewis, 2003). Hence, in this thesis, validity and reliability are assessed separately for the two components prior to mixing (Nastasi et al., 2010). To avoid misunderstandings about the questions, we pre-tested the questionnaire after translating it into Arabic.

2.12   Conclusion

This chapter has explained in detail the approach taken to the research reported in this thesis. It argued that a mixed methods research approach was the most appropriate methodological framework by highlighting the importance of triangulation in data collection. Furthermore, the chapter outlined and clarified the research design that was implemented from the methods of data collection to the sampling used to identify participants, the pilot study, the research process and the analysis. Finally, ethical issues were addressed throughout the entire process as well as the role of the researcher in the study.

Chapter Three
Methodology and Data Collection

Chapter Three

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3. Introduction

This chapter seeks to explore the English language learning in the Department of Law at University of Oran 2. Therefore, this chapter presents data obtained through the use of different instruments, namely students questionnaire, Subject Specialist teachers questionnaire, language teachers interview, students focus groups, and document analysis. The chapter is divided into two parts that address the research questions. In the first part, the results of three types of qualitative data are presented separately: 1) the language teachers interviews, 2) the students' focus groups, and 3) existing teaching materials. The second part discusses the results of the quantitative data that deal with ELP students' language needs. The findings are presented separately in order to make the information clear to the reader. The last section of the chapter attempts to answer the research questions by triangulating both quantitative and qualitative findings from which implications for teaching can be drawn.

3.1 Qualitative Data Analysis

3.1.1 Analysis of Focus Group Discussions

A focus group discussion with law students was conducted to explore their attitudes towards the English course and their academic needs. Twenty students participated in these discussions. The answers to the questions are divided into the following themes:

- Students' background information
- Students' attitudes towards learning English
- Students' linguistic needs
- Students' opinions about the language teachers
- Students' opinions about language teachers' teaching methods
- Students' opinions on teaching materials
- Students' opinions on assessment
- Means analysis

Theme 1: Students' background information

The participants in the study were all second year Master's students. They were specialising in private law and public economic law. When asked about their proficiency in English, they reported satisfactory or acceptable levels of proficiency in reading, followed by writing and listening.

Chapter Three

Theme 2: Students' attitudes towards learning English

When the first question regarding attitudes towards learning English was answered by the respondents in this study, the following can be concluded:

The majority of students showed an interest in learning English. They unanimously agreed that learning English was very important for their studies, for the legal professions, and for travelling. For example one law student said, "*In the world that is highly interconnected, English has emerged as the prevailing language used in legal matters for accessing the international market and forming global agreements*". Law students seem to be aware of the importance of English in different areas, regardless of the country and the legal system. Therefore, they expect to learn some legal terms in English and to develop their translation abilities. For instance, one student expressed a desire to improve her intellectual abilities and broaden her knowledge, mentioning the need to study English in the face of increasing globalisation.

ESP courses made the English language more meaningful by providing a plausible context for its use. Thus, the course was motivating simply because it took into account the language of the legal discourse community. On the other hand, there were also negative views about learning English. When replies were related to the educational factors (teachers/ lessons/ marks), the students found English lessons complicated and boring, but did not overly dislike them.

Moreover, students with negative attitudes towards learning English argued that their motivation will never be very high because they feel they will never use English in their daily or professional life. Nevertheless, they still like English, although they felt that their teachers failed to spark their interest because of their passive role in the class. They believe that the most important factor in motivating them to learn English is having a competent teacher who makes the class enjoyable. For example, the same course can have either positive or negative impact on students if it is given by different teachers. This is due to their level of competence and the way they teach.

Theme 3: Students' linguistic needs

It was clear during the interviews with all the participants that students were not given the opportunity to voice their opinions in the course design process. All the participants mentioned that materials would be more efficient if they were related to students' interests.

In order to obtain information about the learners' needs from the course, all the sampled students were asked about their needs regarding the English language in the ESP course in the two group discussions. This section mainly focuses on exploring the significance of the main English language skills (speaking, listening, writing and reading) for law students. The group discussions unveiled that the most important skills for law students were reading and speaking. A student expressed the belief that reading handouts, legal dictionaries and exam questions was an essential part of her learning and academic success. Another student pointed out the importance of translation as a pedagogical tool for developing his comprehension skills in the following passage:

"*As for the reading skills, translation is not an easy task; I always get into trouble when I translate passages because of the many implicit meanings of cultural differences*"

In the academic context, the law students considered translation as one of the major problems in learning English due to the differences between Algerian culture and English culture. Therefore, they expect the ELP course to include translation as part of the class activities in order to be able to translate appropriately.

One student also gave a logical reason for not being able to develop his speaking skills saying that the English language teachers use Arabic to simplify their teaching and explain complex words. Some students viewed speaking as a life-changing skill. They needed speaking activities and tasks such as: legal English conversations, talking to foreigners, and giving presentations. It can be inferred from the groups' responses that the speaking and listening activities were found to be most in demand for professional situations and this includes having conversations on general topics in everyday life and at work (a lawyer-client interaction).

Vocabulary was also identified as a need in the group discussions with law students, including legal English and the vocabulary frequently used in English classes. According to one student, due to the increasing influence of globalisation, learning legal terminology in English is crucial for a legal career, regardless of the country. They also gave details and examples of vocabulary needs that they thought were more relevant to their field of study and work, such as English vocabulary for crime, court, and contracts.

Theme 4: Students' Opinions about the Language Teachers

The majority of students felt that the teachers were very supportive and looked after their interests by using suitable and clear introductions to the topics. Some of the comments were:

> *In general, the teachers are cooperative and their explanations of the lessons are good and clear… The teacher tries hard to explain the information as sometimes it shows that it is difficult to find the equivalent concept in Arabic due to the different legal systems and cultures between Algeria and English speaking countries.*

Therefore, some students suggested that having legal professionals teaching English rather than language teachers. For example, one of the students said, *"it is preferable to have teachers who are specialised in legal English. They are more familiar with opinions, attitudes, values, and expectations about law and legal institutions."* And *"sometimes teachers' explanations of legal culture are incomplete."* Moreover, some students explained that they thought teachers could bring more variety into their teaching or make their presentation more enjoyable. For example, one of the students said, *"Language learning should be more fun and enjoyable for students to learn. This could help in raising some interest in learning and studying English"*.

Theme 5: Students' opinions about language teacher' teaching methods

As far as the teaching methods are concerned, some participants said that the English language classes were dominated by translation exercises from and into Arabic. They also felt that the language teacher emphasised reading and learning technical vocabulary, while writing and speaking skills were completely neglected. One student gave an example of her learning experience, saying that her teacher made her memorise legal terms and read passages, which were then followed by translation exercises.

Based on the students' explanation, it was found that the language teachers emphasised memorisation over comprehension, and self-assessment activities were not introduced in the classroom. One student summed it up by stating: *"I just listen to the teacher's explanations and follow the instructions"*. Language teacher's lecture required a lot of talking to transmit knowledge while the students were passive listeners.

Theme 6: Students' Opinions on the Teaching Materials

Teaching materials were another factor influencing students' learning experience; hence, students were asked to comment on the materials that might affect their learning process. Although the materials included topics related to common law, they were not really related to the students' area of specialisation. A student commented, "*Some of the vocabulary and the content of the English course was not relevant to my field of study; for instance, how laws are made in the UK is uninteresting and less central*". Students suggested more work-related topics than general topics to be useful in the future after graduation. A similar view was stated by another student, "*putting more law related topics such as contract drafting will be very useful and motivating*". Another interesting comment was that the students would like to see areas of law that are taught in Arabic by the subject specialist teachers in the ELP class. Another suggestion from a student was to include other areas of law taught in Arabic in the English course, as these are more likely to be useful for exams and assignments.

Some students explained that the problem with the English course is that it is not practical and they are less likely to use it in everyday life. In addition, one of the students clarified, "*sometimes the topics are not interesting, even if they have legal themes because the teacher does not include practice exercises*". Some participants also argued that the materials used in the ELP courses were above their language level and did not cover their needs in the target language situation. Besides, they were not really sure about the usefulness of the content of the ELP course. Therefore, addressing learners' needs in the course design would have made learning English a more positive experience.

Theme 7: Students' opinions on assessment

Many students in the group discussions implied that the main purpose of them taking ESP courses was to pass the exam with a good mark. One student acknowledged that their grades affect their academic progress and their ability to take exams, suggesting that the assessment methods used in the course promote the idea that the sole purpose of academic success is to achieve high grades. In addition, another student noted that the assessment system places more emphasis on grades than on actual learning, which leads to a justification for cheating. This is a common practice in many Algerian universities, but it is important to remember that the assessment system must be designed to assess not only what students know but also how they apply that knowledge. Assessment that focuses solely on students' ability to

memorise information or perform well in exams can lead to unhealthy competition between students and high levels of stress and anxiety.

Theme 8: Means Analysis

Means analysis provides information about the environment in which the course takes place. In this research, the environmental situation was interpreted based on an adaptation of Holliday and Cook's (1982) definition as cited in Dudley-Evans and St John (1998, p.124). Means analysis involves information about the local situation (e.g., teachers, teaching methods, management, student facilities, etc.) in order to see how a language course can be delivered.

Since the first three themes are described elsewhere in this chapter, only the last two are covered in this section. Each of these will be explained and illustrated in detail in the following paragraphs.

The majority of the participants argued that some of the challenges of teaching ESP to students in the Department of Law were related to higher education policy. The university did not have any a policy to support teaching and learning in the ELP course. Moreover, students did not have opportunities to practise English outside the classroom. For example, one student argued that the time allocated to English was not enough. Therefore, the participants suggested that the university should offer an ELP course every semester so that students could study English more regularly and become more familiar with it. One student shared her experience of feeling disconnected from the English language as she had not studied any English subjects for a period of three years prior to enrolling in the ESP course as part of her Master's programme. This highlights the importance of having a basic background in English before studying ESP courses.

Many of the respondents believed that the time allocated studying English was insufficient, as there was an assumption that more practice would improve their performance. One student clarified that learning a specialised language in the limited time frame of 1-2 hours per week for 2-3 semesters is not feasible.

The majority of students proclaimed that more English resources for students are essential, as the unavailability of course textbooks was one of the biggest challenges for law students and ESP teachers. For example, one student pointed out that due to the unavailability

of textbooks they had to rely solely on teachers' notes as a primary source of information since the university does not provide English textbooks in the library.

Summary of the findings

The data from the discussion groups indicated that law students recognised the importance of English for their academic studies and their future careers in legal fields. Furthermore, all the participants considered reading and speaking English language skills to be very important for their academic studies. According to the participants, it is necessary to read handouts, legal dictionaries, and exam questions. Additionally, law students expect the ELP courses to include translation as part of the class activities due to the difficulty of legal English culture.

The results also unveiled that having negative attitudes towards learning English are related to pedagogical factors (teacher's incompetence/ irrelevance of the content/ complex terminology/ the time allocated to ESP courses).

In general, the results of the group discussions suggest that if learners' needs were taken into account in the course design that would be helpful in improving law students' language skills to prepare them for their desired careers. However, students' views were not integrated into the course design process.

3.1.2 Analysis of the Language Teachers Interviews

The results gathered from the interviews with the three language teachers working in the Department of Law at the University of Oran 2 describe the language teachers' preparation for lessons, classroom practices, and possible barriers to the integration of the ELP course. The aim of the interviews is also to investigate the students' needs in order to design a suitable ELP course for the target group. The responses to the questions are divided into the following themes:

- Background information
- ESP teacher training and development
- Goals and objectives of the ELP course
- ELP course materials
- ELP classroom practices
- Cultural awareness in the ELP classroom

- Assessment and evaluation
- Challenges of teaching ELP

Theme 1: Background information

The Law Department has three English language teachers, one of whom is a full-time teacher with a Magister degree in English literature, while the other two are part-time teachers with Master's degrees. Two of them have one year of teaching experience in the department, while the remaining teacher has two years of teaching experience and also has administrative duties at the Faculty of Law and Political Science.

Theme 2: ESP teacher training and development

Regarding ESP Teacher Training, the language teachers acknowledged the need for an ESP teacher training and development in their current job as they had not received any professional training to help them develop their competences as ESP practitioners. They indicated that they would like to take an in-service ESP teacher training in the form of seminars or workshops in the following areas:

- disciplinary exploration
- Textual analysis (genre and discourse analysis)
- ESP theory and methodology
- Assessment of learner needs
- Syllabus design
- Selecting and evaluating materials
- The use of technology in the classroom

Moreover, language teachers would like to have opportunities to work with subject specialist teachers to learn about the subject matter alongside language skills.

- ## *Theme 3: Goals and objectives of the ELP course*

When the teachers were asked to define the objectives of the English course, the results revealed that the majority of the teachers thought that "*helping students learn legal English to read academic papers on their field is the main objective*".

In terms of needs analysis, the language teachers believed that investigating the students' needs is very important before taking any step in designing teaching materials.

However, this statement did not seem to correspond to the actual teaching practice of the ESP programme in their department. One teacher said that she sometimes did it orally; but the rest affirmed that they did not do it. It seemed that the English language syllabus was designed and developed without any kind of needs assessment. Therefore, the responses of the English language teachers supported the view of the law student's on the issue of irrelevance of the content. Moreover, the irrelevance of the content to law students' needs could lead to a decrease in students' motivation to learn.

Despite the absence of an academic needs analysis prior to the development of the course for law students, the language teachers had a clear idea of the ELP learning aims and objectives. According to one teacher, the ESP course can be useful for law students to improve their reading skills and comprehension of legal texts in English.

Another language teacher pointed out the benefits of the English course for *"developing students' legal English vocabulary"* by focusing on reading comprehension and translation. It should be noted, however, that it is only in Master's programme that students are introduced to the English course for the first time since secondary school. Therefore, according to the teachers, the main objective is to enable law students to read legal English sources and translate them into their native language. According to the language teachers, the ELP course can help law students in their studies and in their future work in legal field. As one of the language teachers attested, *"ELP keeps legal professionals up to date and informed about research in legal education, conferences, and current global issues"*. One ESP teacher recognised the importance of reading for academic purposes and expressed it in the following words:

> *Law students absolutely need to read and understand handouts and exam questions, as well as to reference the most reliable sources available. If they can read in English, that will increase the number of potential sources they can access, which is a big advantage. It can be highly limiting to only read research written in Arabic.*

The language teachers also explained that there is no real practice in listening and speaking classes due to time and space constraints.

As far as assessment is concerned, some ELP teachers argued that they have no background in assessment. For instance, they lay great emphasis on teaching vocabulary because the exam contains questions that focus on vocabulary. Therefore, law students do not have the chance to practise different language skills. This means that they do not have a clear idea of the purpose of the assessment-related activities. Some respondents were on the belief that their assessment practice was limited due to lack of time and a large number of students in a class.

Theme 4: ELP course materials

Based on the information provided, it appears that the selection or design of the teaching materials was not based on a needs analysis of the students. Hence, the content of the course was not aligned with the students' interests or requirements. According to the English language teachers, they are free to choose the materials to be taught because there has never been an English course specifically designed for law students. Each language teacher adopts their own materials which are selected from the Internet. However, one language teacher insisted that the lack of prior knowledge of the content is a barrier to English reading comprehension.

Another problem faced by the language teachers is the lack of subject knowledge. Therefore, the interviewees expressed their willingness to collaborate with the subject specialist teachers in selecting the appropriate materials. Collaboration between the English language teacher and the subject specialist teacher can improve students' learning as they are close to the students and know their academic and professional needs.

Theme 5: ELP classroom practices

The majority of the teachers experience difficulties in dealing with the students in terms of their language competence. The English language teachers perceived the students as having inadequate language skills and rated their language levels between 'beginners' and 'pre-intermediate'. According to the teachers, most of these students joined Master's programme with limited English language skills and general vocabulary because they had not been exposed to English since secondary school. One teacher noted that the English language skills of her students were quite low, and they lacked interest and motivation to learn the language.

Based on the teachers' explanation, it can be said that the classroom was teacher-centred and lecturing was the most commonly used method due to some factors such as limited time. Moreover, the teaching materials focused on reading comprehension and translation, while student-centred activities and discussions were rarely included. For example, one language teacher clarified, "*I ask the students to read silently after giving them the handout in each class. I sometimes explain certain words in Arabic if necessary*".

It was also clear from the interviews with all the participants that teachers did not have any problems with classroom management because attendance is not compulsory and there were few students in the classroom. As a result, students were passive listeners and were not in favour of independent learning. Furthermore, one language teacher added, "*The most common type of interaction that occurs in the classroom is when I initiate questions and the students respond in both English and Arabic*". Teaching methods focused mainly on developing students' reading skill through techniques such as silent reading and skimming, with little or no attention paid to communicative activities.

Teachers have stated that they have not been able to use or fully explore the potential of technology in the delivery of the ESP course. In the department of Law, ELP teachers have identified a lack of resources and technological knowledge as hindrances to integrating technology into their teaching practice. Despite these obstacles, they recognise the usefulness of technology in enhancing their teaching methods and increasing student engagement.

Theme 6: Cultural awareness in ELP classroom

The cultural dimension of teaching Legal English is a significant challenge, as it involves teaching students legal language within the specific contexts of different legal systems. As legal systems, like cultures, vary from one country to another, this adds complexity to the teaching process.

By conducting interviews, we have made progress in our investigation into the impact of cultural perceptions on learning motivation. Language teachers showed a positive attitude towards intercultural education, believing that it improves their students' tolerance and motivation. For example, one teacher mentioned incorporating culture-related topics such as TV programmes, films, and news articles in her lessons to give students more opportunities to understand and experience different cultures. It is worth noting that legal English is increasingly used as a lingua franca internationally, which makes the challenge of translating

into English inevitable and special because it covers different legal systems and different types of jurisdictions (De Groot, 1996). All the teachers supported the use of culture as a means of increasing enthusiasm and active participation in language learning. Students could discuss different legal cultures and explore the parallels in Algeria.

Theme 7: Assessment and evaluation

During the interviews, the participants expressed their belief that the primary goal for students on taking ELP courses is to achieve a good score in the exam. One teacher mentioned that they did not have enough knowledge about assessment, suggesting that they did not incorporate any assessment-related activities. In response to this, another teacher pointed out that "*assessment practice is limited due to lack of time and large number of students in the class*". This implies that teachers may not have the opportunity to carry out detailed assessment due to time and class size constraints.

Overall, the interviewees recognise the importance of assessment, but they face significant challenges in implementing it effectively due to various practical constraints such as limited time and insufficient knowledge.

Theme 8: Challenges of teaching ELP

According to language teachers, most students lacked motivation to participate in class activities and did not seek clarification from their teachers. Only a few students showed motivation and were keen to participate in class. However, one of the language teachers suggested that the lack of motivation among the law students could be attributed to the complexity of the course material. Another language teacher believed that the students' difficulties stemmed from their lack of effort in learning.

It was suggested that the frequency of English classes should be increased to three times a week in order to provide students with consistent exposure to the language and to improve their proficiency. In addition, one teacher recommended that the ELP course should be made compulsory as "*many students believe that they need English neither in their studies nor in their works*". Participants noted that the allocated time of one and a half hours per week is insufficient to meet the academic needs of law students. This affects the quality of the teaching methods, as it is difficult to cater for different learning styles and to teach language skills effectively.

Chapter Three

Summary of the findings

The aim of the interviews was to obtain information from language teachers regarding their understanding of the present situation and the target needs for the ELP course. In terms of teacher competencies, it was found that language teachers lacked basic knowledge about ESP due to a lack of professional training in ESP-related issues. This explains the existence of some problems in teaching ESP effectively. To address this issue, in-service training for ESP teachers can help them to develop problem-solving skills, critical thinking skills and enhance their creativity in order to promote student engagement.

Participants agreed that students should have an intermediate level of all macro skills and some micro skills. However, law students have a low level of all English language skills which affects their ability to meet the needs of the target situation. In addition, it was found that the aims and objectives of this course were unclear due to the lack of collaboration with subject specialist teachers and the unavailability of a textbook.

In terms of teaching methodology, the teaching materials focused mainly on reading comprehension and translation, with minimal use of student-centred activities and discussions. Furthermore, the limited understanding of ESP among language teachers resulted in a focus on teaching for the exam, with a strong emphasis on vocabulary, as exam questions tend to focus on reading comprehension. Consequently, law students have limited opportunities to practise different language skills.

The interviews indicated that certain challenges were linked to time constraints in the classroom, resulting in issues such as ineffective teaching and the inability to carry out a comprehensive needs assessment.

In brief, English teachers encounter a number of difficulties that have a direct impact on teaching effectiveness, student engagement, and classroom management.

3.1.3 Document Analysis

In the methodology chapter it was stated that document analysis is one of the three methods of data collection for this NA study. In this section, an attempt is made to analyse a corpus consisting of representative and meaningful documents from the Department of Law. With such data tool, as suggested in the methodology chapter, the aim is to support and enrich the results of the interviews.

Chapter Three

The teaching of Legal English in the department of Law faces a significant challenge due to the unavailability of teaching materials. Teachers are burdened with the responsibility of developing courses that meet students' needs despite limited time, resources and support. Inadequate teaching materials are a major obstacle to the effective teaching of Legal English, as most existing materials are primarily designed for native English speakers and require translation and adaptation.

The course contents to be examined are those taught in the first and second semesters of Master's programmes with the following specialties:

-Public Economic Law

-Medical Law

-Criminal Law and Criminology

-Private Law

To ensure the trustworthiness of the document analysis, the researcher will provide samples of lecture handouts, students' notes, final exams and mid-term exams questions (see Appendix 7). Moreover, Breen and Candlin's (1987) framework has been adopted as an approach to the critical evaluation of materials, which involves a very detailed examination of the linguistic context, aims, design, methodology, and skills.

Phase one: Initial questions

1. What do the materials aim to do and what do they contain?

2. What do the materials make your learners do while they are learning?

3. How do the materials expect you to teach the learners in the classroom?

4. Are the materials the only resource in the classroom?

Phase two: Your learners and the materials

1. Do the materials appropriate meet the needs and interests of your learners?

2. Are the materials appropriate to your learners' own approaches to language learning?

3. Are the materials appropriate to the teaching/learning process in the classroom?

4. Seven design features of materials for classroom work

5. Discovering learners' criteria for good materials

Table 3.1 Breen and Candlin's (1987) framework

This section aims to discuss the content of the current ELP course offered to law students during their Master's studies. The results are organised and presented according to thematic categories.

Objectives of materials

Based on the observations, the course content and materials consist of handouts that do not clearly identify the objectives of the course due to the lack of a syllabus. However, the handouts appear to emphasise the development of reading comprehension skills and legal terminology. For example, students are asked to choose the correct word from a list to fill blanks in a sentence. Although these materials are useful to some extent, they do not seem to be fully authentic or relevant to the learners' needs, as no assessment of the learners' preferred strategies and styles for learning legal English has been carried out.

Chapter Three

Organisation of materials

Lessons begin with a short reading passage focusing on technical vocabulary with the sole aim of mastering the meaning of the words. On closer inspection, these materials appear to be poorly designed. For example, there are no follow-up exercises for reading passages and students are rarely given practical tasks.

Genre used in the teaching materials

Dudley-Evans and St John (1998) suggest that the role of an ESP teacher is to teach the language or 'real content', leaving the 'carrier content' to subject specialists. However, it is clear from data collected that not all English teaching materials focus on the language. While the texts may be useful for those studying legal translation, they may not be particularly useful for law students. Simply put, the materials used do not qualify as language materials because language skills are practised. The English courses do not reflect the tasks of language learning, but rather consist of content adapted from technical vocabulary of the target community.

Skills and activities

After a close analysis of the data, it was observed that more emphasis was placed on teaching receptive skills compared to productive skills. The materials provided show that skimming of the text is also required, with questions based on comprehension of words and phrases. Writing activities mostly involve students writing single words or short sentences. Listening and speaking skills were completely disregarded. In addition, the data indicates that nearly all English words and phrases are translated into Arabic, and no study unit is devoted to grammatical structures.

From the analysis of the situation and the documents, it can be concluded that the ELP courses focused primarily on reading comprehension, with the majority of the tasks centred on translation, which does not provide practical application of real-life language use. Moreover, the handouts seem to lack activities that focus on micro-skills such as word building exercises. This lack of focus discourages students from deducing the meaning of unknown lexis from context. Furthermore, little attention has been paid to the peculiarities of legal language such as archaic terms and phrases, Latinisms, doublets and triplets, euphemisms, and legal abbreviations, among others.

Teachers provided a corpus of exam papers (mid-term, final and make-up) which vary in form and layout. All exam sheets indicate the type of exam, the time of the exam and the duration of the exam. Eight examination papers were examined for this analysis.

3.2 Quantitative Data Analysis

3.2.1 Students' Needs Analysis Questionnaire

Many scholars agreed that NA is a necessary first step in the design of ESP courses in order to identify students' needs, which gives insights into course objectives, material selection, language skills, and assessment methods. There is a general agreement that students are the most important source of information, regardless of the method used to collect data in NA (Long 2005). Hence, the present NA is conducted with law students at the University of Oran 2 in an attempt to identify their learning needs and requirements of legal studies to integrate an ELP course.

The current NA is a questionnaire survey (see Appendix 3) that targets graduate law students with the aim of gathering information on a larger scale (Dudley-Evans & St John, 1998; Graves, 2000) about their present situation, target situation and learning analysis. This questionnaire consists of open and closed questions to gather information about learning techniques and activities, attitudes towards the different language skills, expectations of the course and more.

The answers given by the students for each item were calculated and a list of the percentages of responses was compiled using descriptive statistics. In addition, the majority of the results are presented in a form of tables.

Questionnaire findings

Section One: General Information

1. Sex

As shown in the table, 63.75% of the Master's students were female and 36.25% were male. As apparent, the majority of students who responded to the questionnaire were female.

Responses	Male	Female
Participants	36.25% (29)	63.75% (51)

Table 3.2 Distribution of Students by Sex

2. *Age*

The table shows that the age of the participants ranges from 20 to 43 years.

Responses	21-25	26-30	Over 30
Participants	75% (60)	10% (8)	15% (12)

Table 3.3 Distribution of Students by Age

3. **Students' Fields of Specialism**
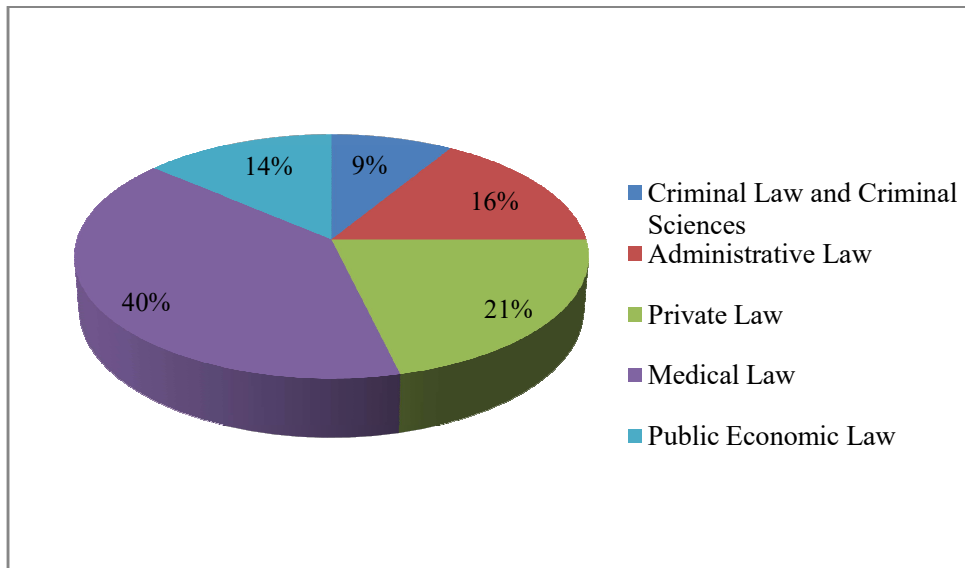
Figure 3.1 Field of Specialism

Question 3 allowed the researcher to gain an insight into the respondents' field of specialism. As indicated in figure 3.1, the majority of respondents (40 %) were from the field of medical law, 21% from private law, 16% from administrative law,

14% from public economic law, and 9% were studying criminal law and criminal sciences.

Section Two: Students' Levels of Proficiency

4. *Students' Level of English*
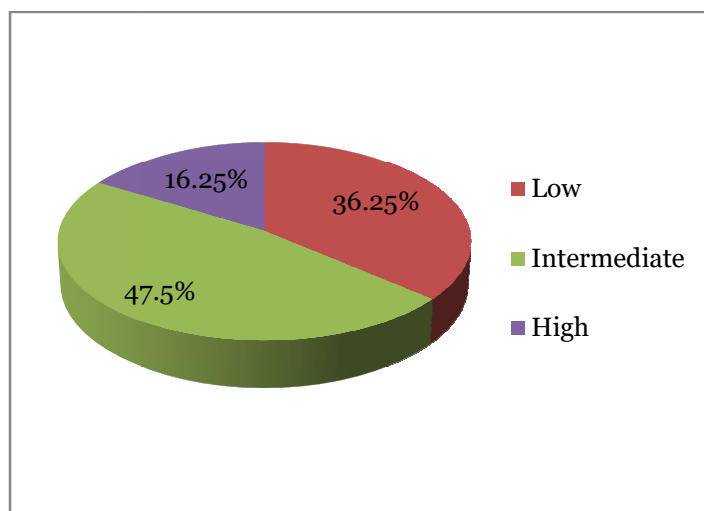
Figure 3.2 Students' Self-assessment of their Level of English at University

In order to enable the students to assess their English proficiency, they were requested to rate their language skills. Self-assessment is a powerful mechanism for promoting learner engagement and autonomy. As demonstrated in the table, a considerable percentage of students rated their proficiency as intermediate (47.5%) or low (36.25%). In addition, only a minority of students considered their level to be high (16.25%), which seems to be a common thing in several faculties in Algeria. This can be related to the curriculum in the Algerian higher education system, where undergraduate law students do not study English.

5. *Describe your proficiency level in language skills.*

Language skills	Very poor	Poor	Satisfactory	Good	Very good
Listening	7.5% (6)	26.25% (21)	33.75% (27)	28.75% (23)	3.75% (3)
Speaking	15%	32.5%	36.25%	16.25%	0%

	(12)	(26)	(29)	(13)	(0)
Reading	2.5%	16.25%	46.25%	32.5%	2.5%
	(2)	(13)	(37)	(26)	(2)
Writing	7.5%	17.5%	48.75%	25%	1.25%
	(6)	(14)	(39)	(20)	(1)

Table 3.4 Students' Description of their Level of Language Proficiency

Law students reported a satisfactory (acceptable) level of English proficiency in various language skills (46.25% in reading, 48.75% in writing, 36.25% in speaking, and 33.75% in listening). However, a significant percentage (47.5%) indicated having a weak proficiency level, especially in speaking (poor or very poor).

As expected, reading and writing skills are probably the only skills that law students perceive themselves to be good at, as opposed to speaking and listening due to the lack of practice during the lectures.

6. ***What language skills do you need to improve for your studies?***

Language areas	Very important	Quite important	Not very important	Not important at all
Listening	76.25%	22.5%	1.25%	0%
	(61)	(18)	(1)	(0)
Speaking	88.75%	11.25%	0%	0%
	(71)	(9)	(0)	(0)
Reading	75%	23.75%	0%	1.25%
	(60)	(19)	(0)	(1)
Writing	71.25%	26.25%	0%	2.5%

	(57)	(21)	(0)	(2)
Grammar	66.25%	28.75%	3.75%	1.25%
	(53)	(23)	(3)	(1)
Legal Terminology	70%	26.25%	3.75%	0%
	(56)	(21)	(3)	(0)
Translation	61.25%	32.5%	6.25%	0%
	(49)	(26)	(5)	(0)

Table 3.5 Students' Needs of Language Skills

This part of the questionnaire was designed to gather specific information on the significance and the required skills for law students. Generally, it is evident that law students considered all language skills to be important for their academic studies. Table 3.5 shows that all the participants prioritize speaking and listening as the most important skills, followed by reading and writing, while Grammar and translation are ranked among the least important skills in the course of English for law.

It is worth mentioning that the English courses only emphasise reading and translation, which leads students to think that speaking and listening are more important skills than other skills. Moreover, the students' learning priorities seemed to focus on improving the speaking skill, which allows learners to connect with the international community of legal institutions. These results indicate that law students consider speaking and listening of utmost importance for learning English, followed by reading. As previously mentioned, the results also show the direct correlation between the importance assigned by students to language skills, the level of emphasis given to them in class, and the difficulty they present to the students. In this regard, areas most emphasised in the English course (reading and translation) do not align with the language skills that pose the greatest difficulties for students or those that students consider most important.

7. *Describe your level of difficulty.*

Language skills	Very difficult	Quite difficult	Neither difficult nor easy	Fairly easy	Very easy
Listening	5% (4)	30% (24)	31.25% (25)	23.75% (19)	10% (8)
Speaking	12.5% (10)	40% (32)	30% (24)	12.5% (10)	5% (4)
Reading	3.75% (3)	22.5% (18)	31.25% (25)	33.75% (27)	8.75 (7)
Writing	7.5% (6)	20% (16)	40% (32)	25% (20)	7.5% (6)
Grammar	28.75% (23)	36.25% (29)	18.75% (15)	12.5% (10)	3.75% (3)
Legal terminology	32.5% (26)	35% (28)	16.25% (13)	12.5% (10)	3.75% (3)
Translation	27.5% (22)	37.5% (30)	20% (16)	10% (8)	5% (4)

Table 3.6 Ranking of Language Skills by Level of Difficulty

The provided table represents the challenges that law students face in terms of language skills, as this question aims to identify the areas in which students struggle in the ELP course. Legal terminology (67.5%), Translation (65%), and grammar (65%) are ranked as the most difficult areas. Besides, more than half of the students (52.5%) face difficulty when speaking. Furthermore, 35% have difficulties with listening, and 27.5% struggle with writing.

It is worth mentioning that in contrast to scientific fields, where concepts are universally understood and remain consistent across languages, when dealing with legal concepts, their relationship should be seen as equivalent rather than merely similar, as Tymoczko (2005) points out. Therefore, the criterion of equivalence becomes essential when deciding on translation strategies.

8. ***You attribute this difficulty to:***

Causes of Difficulty	Participants
Little knowledge of the English language and the insufficient exposure to the target language	55% (44)
The teaching methodology of the teacher and performance	27.5% (22)
The material chosen along with the teaching methodology of the teacher	12.5% (10)
The chosen material	5% (4)

Table 3.7 Causes of Students' Difficulties

Students were also requested to reveal the factors that contribute to the difficulties of language skills. As can be seen in the table, for the vast majority of the students (55%), the difficulties presented in language skills are attributed to their little knowledge of the English of language. 27.5% of the students attribute their difficulties to the teaching methodology and performance of the teacher. 12.5% of the students attribute their difficulties to the chosen materials along with the teaching methodology of the teacher, and 5% to the chosen material alone.

The findings suggest that law students mostly attribute their challenges in attaining a high level of English proficiency to their limited of exposure to the language.

9. ***What strategies do you use to find the meaning of new words?***
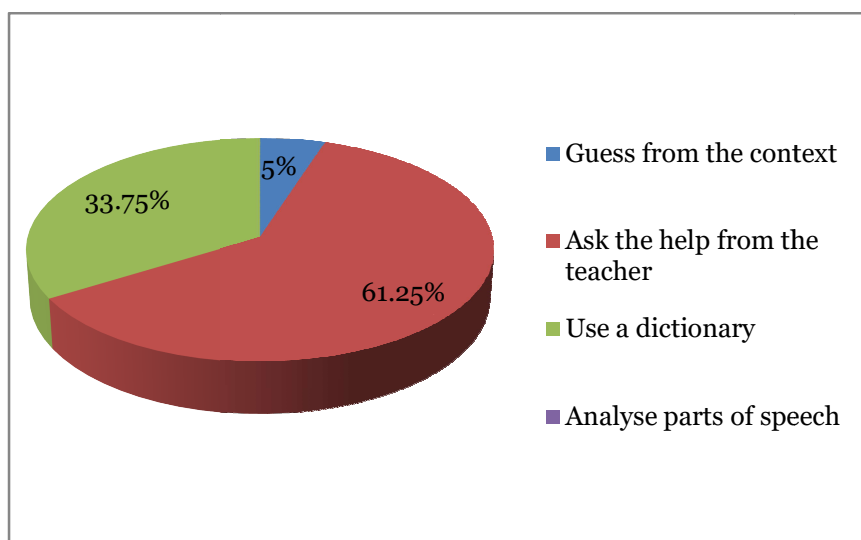
Figure 3.3 Strategies Used by Students to Understand New Terminology

It is important to know what strategies students use to comprehend new terminology. As the table shows, 49 out of 80 (61.25%) need help from the teacher, 33.75% use a dictionary, 5% guess it from the context, and none of the participants actually analyse parts of speech. This over-dependence on the teacher prevents the students from personalising their learning.

It is imperative that students are encouraged to use a variety of vocabulary strategies such as guessing the meaning from the text, synonyms and antonyms, dictionary definitions, and word association when reading new texts. Ultimately, this will help the students to become more autonomous and self-reliant.

Section Three: Students' Attitudes towards the ELP Course

10. Do you think that English is important for your academic studies?

Responses	Yes	No	To some extent
Participants	73.75% (59)	6.25% (5)	20% (16)

Table 3.8 Students' Attitudes towards the Importance of English

Although not a common thing in the field of law, the majority of the participants expressed an interest in learning English. Only 16 participants (20%) reported that English is to some extent important for their studies and 5 participants (6.2%) showed no interest for unknown reasons. The fact that the majority of the participants (73.8%) have positive attitudes towards learning English proves the learners' need to improve their English language proficiency.

The purpose of this question was to explore the attitude of law students' towards learning English, as motivation is key factor in language learning. The large number of informants who were interested in taking an ESP course indicates that students are highly motivated and recognise the importance of English in their academic pursuits.

11. Does the content of the English course meet your learning needs?

Responses	Participants
Completely	48.75% (39)
Partly	35% (28)
Not at all	16.25% (13)

Table 3.9 Students' opinions about the course

Based on the table, almost half of the students (48.75%) responded that the content of the ELP course met their learning needs, while 35% of the students stated that it partially met their expectations from the English class, and 16.25% of the respondents answered that the course did not meet their needs. This raises concerns about the inadequacy of the ELP course to meet the language needs of law students at the University of Oran 2. Therefore, it is pivotal to carry out a needs assessment to analyse language needs, preferred learning styles, study habits, and expectations of the course, etc.

12. What skills are most emphasised in the English course?

Language skills	Always	often	Sometimes	Rarely	Never

Listening	0%	13.75%	22.5%	35%	28.75%
	(0)	(11)	(18)	(28)	(23)
Speaking	3.75%	10%	15%	37.5%	33.75%
	(3)	(8)	(12)	(30)	(27)
Reading	43.75%	25%	31.25%	0%	0%
	(35)	(20)	(25)	(0)	(0)
Writing	7.5%	10%	32.5%	37.5%	12.5%
	(6)	(8)	(26)	(30)	(10)
Grammar	3.75%	3.75%	28.75%	48.75%	15%
	(3)	(3)	(23)	(39)	(12)
Translation	28.75%	38.75%	25%	7.5%	0%
	(23)	(31)	(20)	(6)	(0)

Table 3.10 Most Emphasised Skills in the English Course

The table indicates that the English language course placed the most emphasis on certain language skills, according to the respondents. 43.75% of the students considered reading to be highly emphasised, followed by translation for 28.75% of the students, writing for 7.5% of the students, and speaking for only 3.75% of the students.

The course seemed to focus on language skills that are not difficult for the students. The emphasis was mainly on reading comprehension skills.

13. What genre of legal text do you prefer to read?

a. Laws, regulations, codes, contracts, treaties, and conventions

b. Judicial decisions, actions, pleadings, briefs, appeals, requests, petitions

c. Legal opinions, law textbooks and articles

Responses	Participants
a	37.5 (30)
b	28.75 (23)
c	33.75 (27)

Table 3.11 Students' Genre Preference

In the next question, students were asked to choose one answer to the question of which genre of legal text they prefer to read. As Šarčevic (2000) explains, legal texts have three different functions: prescriptive, descriptive and prescriptive, and purely descriptive. For example, laws, regulations, codes, contracts, treaties, and conventions fall into the first category; judicial decisions, actions, pleadings, briefs, appeals, requests, petitions belong to the second category; while Legal opinions, legal textbooks and articles written by legal scholars are characterised by their purely descriptive nature. The results revealed that 37.5% of the respondents preferred to read the first category, whereas 33.75% of the students preferred the third category and 28.75% students chose the second category.

14. Do you think students should be given homework?

Responses	Participants
Yes	36.25 (29)
No	46.25 (37)
Only when evaluated	17.5 (14)

Table 3.12 Students' opinions on Homework

In addition to examining the students' needs and study habits, it is crucial to consider their attitudes towards homework. As shown in the table, 46.25 % of the students felt that homework should never be given. 17.5% of the students thought homework should be given only when evaluated, while 36.25 % of the students are in support of being assigned homework.

By giving homework to students, language teachers can foster learner autonomy, critical thinking, and problem-solving instead of relying on the teacher.

15. What is your preferred way(s) of learning English?

Learning preferences were classified according to visual, auditory and kinesthetic learning styles. In auditory learning environments, there is enjoyment in bouncing ideas off others during group discussions, and lessons are remembered by listening to the teacher. For visual learning, resonance is found in the use of audio-visual aids and engagement with reading and writing materials. While details of the language, such as grammatical rules, can be linked to kinesthetic learning as hands-on activities are often used to reinforce these concepts. Together these styles provide a comprehensive approach to language learning.

Learning Styles	Participants
I prefer to bounce ideas off others (group discussions) and take risks with the language.	55% (44)
I prefer to learn by using audio-visual aids	20% (16)
I enjoy reading and writing.	17.5% (14)
I like to concentrate on the details of the language, such as grammatical rules.	2.5% (2)
I can remember more of a lesson by listening to the teacher.	5% (4)

Table 3.13 Students' Preferred Learning Styles

The data on the respondents' preferred styles of learning English indicates that 55% of the students prefer group discussions and taking risks with the language, while 20% of the students favour learning through audio-visual resources, followed by reading and writing activities (17.5%) to take control of their learning. Only 5% of the students prefer lectures to

listen to the teacher and take notes, and only 2.5% like to concentrate on the details of the language, such as grammatical rules.

These results suggest that law students do not require any form of teacher authority or dependency in their classroom learning styles. They want to be active participants in their learning rather than passive recipients of information from their teacher.

16. What do you expect from the English course?

Expectations	Participants
To pass the exam	1.25% (1)
To be able to read books, dissertations, legal reports and services, etc.	11.25% (9)
To understand teacher's instructions/ lectures and taking notes	5% (4)
To be able to express ideas correctly and use English when travelling abroad	27.5% (22)
To be able to work in collaboration with foreigners and develop cultural competence	41.25% (33)
I have no expectations	13.75% (11)

Table 3.14 Students' Expectations of the Course

In this section, the collected data from the multiple-choice questions help in determining the current and the desired language needs. Even though law students are in an academic environment, some of them believe that they need EOP. However, the present study took into consideration their language use as students.

Table 3.14 shows that the majority of the informants (41.25%) consider being able to work in collaboration with foreigners and build a cultural competence as their reasons for studying English, followed by 27.5% for the ability to express ideas correctly and use English abroad. While having no expectations (13.75%) and reading (11.25%) come in third and

fourth position. Only 5% of the students are learning English to understand teacher's instructions/lectures and to take notes. Finally, only one student is motivated to study English to pass exams.

Further Suggestions

The final part of this questionnaire explored further suggestions from the students for improving the English language course in the Department of Law. The majority of the participants suggested an increase in the number of hours per week. According to the law students, English should be taught from the beginning at all levels of education, not only during the Master's programme, in order to provide more practice. This supports the views expressed in the interviews.

Some students who participated in the study believed that instructors should make the teaching materials useful and more motivating. This is because they want to be taught everything at university without having to go to a private centre to prepare for a certificate and pay for tuition. Therefore, they recommended the introduction of proficiency-based instruction, as in private schools, where students focus on improving their language skills rather than their grades.

Interestingly, some students mentioned the usefulness of integrating technology into the learning process to enhance their engagement. The use of ICT leads to a better understanding of the subject and encourages active participation by the learners.

It is noteworthy that most of the participants also expressed a preference for oral expression and pronunciation activities, as graduate students are limited to translation activities. They also suggested that ELP lectures should be mandatory so that students can benefit more on an ongoing basis, as they want the lessons to be meaningful and relevant to their lives.

Summary of the findings

Based on the results of the current NA questionnaire, law students are well aware of the crucial role that English can play in their present and future lives. However, their dissatisfaction with the courses stems from the absence of clear objectives to address their needs.

The teacher-centred approach and traditional methods reinforced passiveness and silence in the classroom. This, in turn, stifled students' enthusiasm and made the learning experience unpleasant. Moreover, the materials and activities used in class seemed irrelevant to the students' field of study, which could have a negative impact on learning outcomes. It is therefore essential to involve learners in the course design process to ensure that their needs are met and that the learning experience is relevant and stimulating.

The results of the questionnaire show that students are not very competent in their productive skills such as writing and speaking and that they may require considerable practice to improve their English language skills.

English is a highly valued language and law students have a favourable outlook towards the target culture despite limited interaction with native speakers. Students are motivated primarily by the positive perceptions of the language's speakers and culture.

3.2.2   Analysis of the Subject Specialist Teachers Questionnaire

As discussed in chapter two, a questionnaire was administered to subject specialist teachers to investigate their attitudes towards the English course and the language needs of their students. Eight law teachers at the University of Oran 2 participated in this study.

Section One: General Information

1. *What are your credentials?*

Six law teachers who responded to this questionnaire are full-time teachers (some of them are also lawyers), while the other two are part-time teachers. All law teachers who answered this questionnaire have a doctorate degree.

2. *How long have you been teaching?*

Response	1-5 years	6-10 years	More than 10 years
Participants	25% (2)	62.5% (5)	12.5% (1)

Table 3.15 Law Teachers' Years of Teaching

Table 3.15 shows that the number of years of teaching experience ranges from two to more than ten years, with more participants having 6 to 10 years of teaching experience.

3. What subjects do you teach?

The subject specialist teachers teach Administrative law, Commercial law, Private Law, Criminal Law and Criminal Procedure, Public Economic Law.

Section two: Subject Specialist Teachers' Level of English Proficiency

4. What is your level of English?

Response	Beginner	Intermediate	Advanced
Participants	62.5% (5)	37.5% (3)	0% (0)

Table 3.16 Law Teachers' Description of their level of English

Despite its widespread use in academia, not all participants have an intermediate or advanced level in English. Only three participants reported that they had an intermediate level of English and another five participants had the most basic beginner level of English.

5. Describe your proficiency level.

Language skills	Very poor	Poor	Satisfactory	Good	Very good
Listening	0% (0)	62.5% (5)	37.5% (3)	0% (0)	0% (0)
Speaking	0% (0)	75% (6)	25% (2)	0% (0)	0% (0)
Reading	0%	37.5%	50%	12.5%	0%

	(0)	(3)	(4)	(1)	(0)
Writing	0%	75%	25%	0%	0%
	(0)	(6)	(2)	(0)	(0)

Table 3.17 Law Teachers' Description of their Level of Language Proficiency

Regarding teacher's knowledge of English, law teachers reported satisfactory (acceptable) levels in reading (50%), listening (37.5%), writing (25%), and then speaking (25%). However, the top three language areas in which law teachers had weak (poor or very poor) proficiency were speaking (75%), writing (75%), and listening (62.5%). Only one participant reported good proficiency in reading.

The immediate interpretation of the results suggests that law teachers have difficulties in the productive skills, which require knowledge of grammar rules and a good command of vocabulary.

6. *Are you currently studying English? If so, what type of English course are you taking?*

Despite reporting low levels of proficiency and dissatisfaction with their English language skills, none of the participants are enrolled in English language courses to improve their proficiency. This may be due to the unfamiliarity with the ELP courses and lack of interest in improving their English language skills.

7. *Do you use English in your work?*

All the participants stated that they do not use English in their work, as Arabic is the medium of instruction in law classes, in addition to French, which is used in certain modules and instructions.

8. *How often do you practise the following tasks in English?*

As part of the study on subject specialist teachers' English proficiency, the researcher adapted a question from Meddour's (2015) thesis to assess participants' language practice habits. Meddour's questionnaire included the question, *"How often do you practise the following tasks in English?"* The researcher modified this question for the study, asking

participants to rate their frequency of practice for specific language tasks, such as reading, writing, speaking, listening, and translating. By incorporating Meddour's question into the study, the researcher gained insights into the language practice habits of law teachers and was able to build upon their findings.

a. Writing skills

Tasks	Always	often	Sometimes	Rarely	Never
Writing emails and messages	0% (0)	0% (0)	12.5% (1)	50% (4)	37.5% (3)
Writing letters and CVs	0% (0)	0% (0)	12.5% (1)	37.5% (3)	50% (4)
Writing academic articles for publication	0% (0)	0% (0)	50% (4)	50% (4)	0% (0)

Table 3.18 Frequency of Writing in English

Most respondents revealed that they rarely or never write emails, letters and resumes in English. This could be attributed to the dominance of Arabic and French in the writings of law teachers. Writing in English is an important component of publishing academic articles; however, these teachers rarely engage in writing in English. This is an issue of concern not only for law students, but also for law teachers who are not trained in English writing.

In general, the responses reflect a lack of practice, interest, and experience in academic writing tasks.

b. Reading skills

Tasks	Always	often	Sometimes	Rarely	Never
Reading legal articles	0%	25%	50%	25%	0%

	(0)	(2)	(4)	(2)	(0)
Reading websites and internet material	0% (0)	37.5% (3)	37.5% (3)	25% (2)	0% (0)
Reading books and dissertations	0% (0)	0% (0)	50% (4)	37.5% (3)	12.5% (1)

Table 3.19 Frequency of Reading in English

Table 3.19 indicates that the majority of participants often/ sometimes read law-related materials (books, articles, websites, etc.) in English. However, others reported that they rarely read books and dissertations in English.

c. Speaking skills

Tasks	Always	often	Sometimes	Rarely	Never
Speaking at conferences and seminars	0% (0)	0% (0)	12.5% (1)	62.5% (5)	25% (2)
Speaking to foreigners	0% (0)	12.5% (1)	12.5% (1)	62.5% (5)	12.5% (1)
Making phone calls and chatting online	0% (0)	0% (0)	25% (2)	62.5% (5)	12.5% (1)

Table 3.20 Frequency of Speaking in English

Regarding speaking ability, table 3.20 shows that two participants have never spoken in English at conferences and seminars. Additionally, five participants rarely engage in such activities, while only one participant sometimes does so. Two law teachers sometimes make phone calls and chat online in English.

The lack of communication with native English speakers among the participants explains the poor speaking skills observed in the Department of Law at the University of Oran 2.

d. Listening skills

Tasks	Always	often	Sometimes	Rarely	Never
Listening to webinars	0% (0)	0% (0)	50% (4)	37.5% (3)	12.5% (1)
Listening to TV and radio broadcasts	12.5% (1)	0% (0)	62.5% (5)	25% (2)	0% (0)
Listening to conferences and seminars	0% (0)	0% (0)	50% (4)	37.5% (3)	12.5% (1)

Table 3.21 Frequency of Listening in English

As expected, law teachers prioritise listening comprehension practice over other skills due to the accessibility and the popularity of social and interactive websites. According to the participants, they mainly listen to TV/radio programmes, conferences and seminars in English.

e. Translation

Task	Always	often	Sometimes	Rarely	Never
Translating texts	0% (0)	50% (4)	37.5% (3)	12.5% (1)	0% (0)

Table 3.22 Frequency of Translating Texts in English

Table 3.22 indicates that four participants often translate texts from and into English, while three participants sometimes do so due to the limited availability of learning materials

(both printed and online) in the field of law, which are often only available in Arabic or French.

Section Three: Subject Specialist Teachers' Attitudes towards the ELP Course

9. Do you think that your students need to learn English?

    a- Yes

    b- No

    c- I do not know

Every law teacher responded with a positive attitude towards the teaching of English in the Department of Law and demonstrated their willingness to contribute to the improvement of their students' language proficiency. Their support for the teaching of English may enhance the teaching and learning experience in the Department of Law, resulting in improved academic outcomes for students.

10. When do you think the English language module should be introduced?

    a- Undergraduate level (Licence)

    b- Graduate level (Master)

    c- Postgraduate level (Doctorate)

Five law teachers expressed the view that law students need legal English courses, particularly at the Master level. In contrast, three teachers believed that ELP courses hold equal importance to other subjects and should be included in undergraduate curriculum. The varying opinions of law teachers indicate the need for additional discussion and analysis. This could potentially lead to a more comprehensive and effective approach to the teaching of English in the department of law.

11. In your opinion, what are the skills that students need to improve in English?

Language areas	Very important	Quite important	Not very important	Not important at all
Listening	62.5%	37.5%	0%	0%

	(5)	(3)	(0)	(0)
Speaking	62.5%	37.5%	0%	0%
	(5)	(3)	(0)	(0)
Reading	62.5%	37.5%	0%	0%
	(5)	(3)	(0)	(0)
Writing	62.5%	37.5%	0%	0%
	(5)	(3)	(0)	(0)
Grammar	62.5%	37.5%	0%	0%
	(5)	(3)	(0)	(0)
Legal Terminology	62.5%	37.5%	0%	0%
	(5)	(3)	(0)	(0)
Translation	75%	25%	0%	0%
	(6)	(2)	(0)	(0)

Table 3.23 Language Needs of Students according to the Law Teachers

In order to obtain information about the students' needs from the course, the eight participating teachers were asked about the language areas in the ELP course. This section primarily focuses on exploring the significance of the fundamental English language skills (speaking, listening, writing and reading) for law students.

These findings unveiled that law teachers deem all the language skills listed in the table to be very important for their students' English language learning. It is clear that the teachers want their students to attain a higher level of English, as the majority of them have not had the opportunity to develop their English language skills. Interestingly, law teachers have much higher expectations than language teachers and expect law students to master all the skills listed in the table. This could be attributed to their unawareness of the challenges involved in teaching ELP in the department.

12. Do you think that collaboration between an English language teacher and a subject specialist teacher can improve students' learning?

a- Yes

b- No

c- I do not know

The majority of participants are not sure about the collaboration between language teachers and subject specialist teachers. Consequently, the English language teacher does not meet to the expected level of performance. Dudley-Evans & St. John (2013) suggest that for subject-specific work we suggest there are three levels of cooperation: Cooperation, Collaborative, and Team-Teaching. It is recommended that this concept of three levels of teaching between language and law teachers to be incorporated and emphasised during the ELP teaching process, as it can have a positive impact on both parties. Therefore, three subject specialist teachers acknowledged that collaboration between an English language teacher and a subject specialist teacher can improve students' learning.

13. Do you have any other suggestions for improvement?

Law teacher 1 suggested replacing legal French with legal English since English has dominated French internationally, and academically, as scientific articles and dissertations are required in English. Law teacher 2 advised English language teachers to move away from the traditional lecturing style of teaching and to create an environment that involves cognitive enhancement and interactive tasks. He added that English language instruction should begin in primary school, in order to prepare a generation that is capable of conducting scientific research in English without simply relying on translation. According to him, it is unfair for the Francophone students to be asked to publish academic articles in English when they are preparing to defend their dissertations.

For law teachers, English will allow Algerian researchers to use updated textbooks and other related materials, as they tend to consult limited materials in Arabic or French. Therefore, law teachers emphasise the importance of the English classes to provide their students with training in writing academic articles and to give their research a unique flair to stand out. Some law teachers also stated that when their students write academic papers, they rely on translating certain sources and act as if they were made from scratch.

Law teacher 3 recognised the status of the English language as the most widely spoken language in the world, but thought that law students rarely use it in their future professions.

As has been discussed in chapter two, the Algerian legal system is mainly based on a civil code and Sharia law, rather than common law. This is probably the reason why some law teachers believe that English should only be studied by students majoring in International Law.

Summary of the findings

Prior to the analysis, it was assumed that the law teachers would have a negative attitude towards the ELP course. Interestingly, the responses elicited a slightly different picture from the initial expectations. It is worth noting that despite the fact that the university's policy mandates the use of Arabic language and that law teachers rarely use English in their professional lives, they are in favour of integrating English lessons in the Department of Law. The subject specialist teachers were asked to rate their level of proficiency in each English language skill, using the same ratings as in the students questionnaire. The results showed that most of the law teachers rated themselves as having poor English language skills. Moreover, law teachers generally choose "reading skills" as their preferred objective, but in the context of an ELP course they seemed to believe that all four main English language skills were very important for students' academic studies and intended careers.

Insights gained from the data on the needs of the subject specialist teachers can serve as recommendations for ELP teachers to set achievable objectives and redesign the course more effectively. Overall, the results of this questionnaire highlight the importance of conducting research on the needs of different stakeholder groups in order to improve the effectiveness of language teaching programmes.

3.3 Discussion of the Results

This study used a mixed methods approach to explore the legal English language needs of Master's students at the University of Oran 2. The collection of data from different participants using multiple methods was necessary to comprehensively address the research questions and fully understand the students' needs and the expectations of the participants in the study.

Chapter Three

Participants included eighty Master's students who were enrolled in the ELP course during the research period. Twenty students were also purposively selected for focus group discussions. In addition, three English language teachers and eight subject specialist teachers were involved in the study.

In order to examine the research findings from different perspectives, the study employed a triangulation approach that included both quantitative and qualitative data in an attempt to answer the research questions related to the Present Situation Analysis (PSA) and the Target Situation Analysis (TSA). The study was able to produce a well-informed set of findings for the development of effective language teaching programmes for law students.

Present Situation Analysis (PSA)

The Present Situation Analysis (PSA) is divided into the following six categories:

a. Law students' knowledge of the English language
b. Law students' attitudes towards the English language course
c. Law students' preferred learning styles
d. English teachers' knowledge and perceptions of the English course
e. ELP classroom
f. ELP course materials

a. Law Students' Knowledge of the English Language

The qualitative and quantitative data collected during the study indicate that the students' language experience is not homogeneous. However, the majority of the students have insufficient knowledge of the target language and rate their level of English as beginner. There are a number of reasons for this.

One potential factor is the continued emphasis on traditional teacher-centred teaching in ELP classrooms. Law students struggle to adapt to a learner-centred approach as they are accustomed to being spoon-fed and receiving information directly from their teachers. It is important to note that ESP is a learner-centred approach that promotes active language learning by prioritising the learner (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987).

It was also reported that the students' reading comprehension was much better than other skills. This may be due to the fact that language teaching largely focuses on the

receptive skills such as reading and memorising technical words of legal texts. As result, students encounter serious communication problems and they are not well prepared to engage in classroom discussions. This lack of proficiency is almost certainly related to the university policy that compromises the effectiveness of ESP courses due to administrative practices. Bouroumi (2018) asserted that ESP courses are being weakened and rendered ineffective due to bureaucratic practices and decisions made by administrators at various levels, from universities to departments. As a result, ESP teachers are often left to deal with these issues on their own and have to overcome significant challenges to ensure the effectiveness of their courses. Many recent studies in the context of ESP have suggested that the ESP course is often viewed as useless because of its "isolation from any other curriculum components and from the specialism's curricula" (Bouroumi, 2018, p.1). Thus, the study context shows that a lack of relevance to the specific needs of the students undermines the value of the course. The current ELP course does not take into account the characteristics of the target students (e.g., attitudes towards language, interests, objectives, learning styles, age, etc.), which leads to difficulties in obtaining the benefits that law students need from such courses.

b. Students' Attitudes towards the ELP Course

The results of the study show that students acknowledge the importance of English for their academic and career aspirations. The findings also indicate that learning legal terminology is necessary for law students to excel in their studies and careers, as English is considered an indispensable means of communication in the world. To succeed in their respective fields, legal professionals such as lawyers, judges, and solicitors are expected to have technical knowledge of legalese.

In the age of globalisation, the emergence of legal English as a universal language has made it important for legal professionals to communicate well with others, regardless of country and legal system. For example, lawyers encounter different clients and must adapt to their legal language. It is therefore imperative to comprehend the meaning of the myriad of English legal vocabulary and expressions.

By improving their English language skills, students will be equipped with the necessary tools to pursue higher education, including doctoral studies. The study shows that law students are aware that English can broaden their horizons to engage in new social interactions and explore different cultures. They are motivated to use English for personal and

professional growth. According to law teachers, English enables Algerian researchers to access updated textbooks and other relevant resources that may not be available in Arabic or French. Subject specialist teachers emphasised the importance of the English language education in providing their students with opportunities to improve their writing and research skills. However, it should be noted that law students expressed their dissatisfaction with the predominance of teacher in the classroom and the complex nature of legal English. The current ELP classes are very traditional and teacher-centred, where attendance is not compulsory, leading to a lack of active participation by students.

c. Law students' Preferred Learning Styles

Identifying students' learning styles, which appear to differ from one another, through the subjective needs of the students enables the teacher to provide students with learning materials and activities that match their preferred ways of learning. Over the years, several definitions have been proposed, with scholars agreeing that learning strategies are the efforts learners make to select, organise and integrate incoming information effectively in order to store, retrieve, and apply it successfully (Psaltou-Joycey, 2010).

When faced with practical situations, law students tend to be spontaneous and creative, and they have a natural curiosity that drives their learning. According to the study findings, students prefer to learn the target language through oral activities rather than the traditional teacher-centred approach. This shift towards a more learner-centred approach allows students to direct their learning through self-access facilities for autonomous learning (Sheerin, 1989).

Even though these students are teacher-dependant learners, work individually, work in silence, copy what they study and have a limited communication skills, they are willing to take risks. They prefer to participate in debates or discussions because they do not like traditional learning where the class is entirely under the responsibility of the teacher. This also indicates a high level of student autonomy in learning a foreign language. Consequently, their own communicative autonomy, intellectual maturity and capacity for critical-linguistic analysis contribute to the development of communicative competence and promote learning of a foreign language. In addition to these learning styles, the results found that a large number of students are interested in the integration of technology in their ESP classes.

d. English language teachers' knowledge and perceptions of the English course

Chapter Three

As discussed earlier, although the language teachers often deal with setbacks due to insufficient training in ESP-related issues, they are eager to help their students and provide dynamic support. Savas (2009) argued that language teachers are typically trained to teach linguistic concepts, rather than content-specific subjects. As a result, teachers of ESP often have less knowledge about the subject matter they are expected to teach than their students, who have typically been studying the subject throughout their studies. The study revealed that language teachers in the Department of Law are trying to navigate difficult situations such as: undetermined aims, lack of suitable materials, lack of discipline-specific knowledge, lack of cooperation with the subject lecturer, learners' low level of general English, etc.

The English teacher's role varies depending on factors such as the type of course, the learners' needs, and the location of the learning process. For this reason, Dudley-Evans and St. John (1998) use the term 'practitioner' rather than 'teacher' to refer to the functions of the ESP teacher, because according to these authors, their functions go beyond teaching. The teacher's role is that of a facilitator (Jordan, 1997), who is responsible for designing the course and selecting appropriate materials to facilitate learning.

While the students are experts in their fields, they require English language proficiency as a means to express their knowledge. Conversely, the ESP teacher is not entirely familiar with content, despite having extensive knowledge on legal English. The transition from a GE teacher to an ESP teacher can be very problematic as GE teachers often lack the necessary background knowledge of the subject matter content. Legal English, in particular, is described as being a highly complex and challenging area. These opinions suggest that the current ELP course may not be adequately prepared to meet the specific needs of the students. For example, when it comes to translating texts from different legal systems, the conceptual inconsistencies that the teachers may encounter between the two legal systems pose a particular challenge. It is worth noting that legal English is increasingly being used internationally as a lingua franca which makes the challenge of translating into English inevitable and special, as it covers different legal systems and different types of jurisdictions (De Groot, 1996).

e. ELP classroom

Implementing a learner-centred approach in ELP classes can be complicated because teachers must provide individual attention to all students while also incorporating a variety of

teaching methods within a limited time frame. Moreover, both teachers and students argued that the allocated time for ELP courses may not be sufficient to develop the language skills efficiently. These hurdles highlight the need for a more specific approach to language instruction, with a focus on the individual needs of learners.

In terms of classroom activities, skimming methods and translation were the only activities used to develop reading comprehension, while other skills were neglected. In addition, law students often relied heavily on the teacher, who provides them with handouts and does most of the talking. As a result, law students seemed to be bored with the same activities, and exhibited positive attitude towards oral activities, with a preference for listening and speaking activities.

Students' low language proficiency is also a major challenge for English teachers in the Department of Law. Teachers have expressed concern that the time allocated for the English course is insufficient, and that law students require more time to learn English effectively in order to meet the demands of their studies.

f. ELP course materials

The current ELP course lacks clearly defined objectives and relies heavily on the personal experience and qualifications of the language teacher. The language teacher has complete control over all aspects of the learning experience, including setting the learning objectives, designing the syllabus, preparing the exams and evaluating the students' performance. Potentially, the success of the ELP course is highly dependent on the skills and expertise of the language teacher, highlighting the importance of effective training and support to ensure optimal learning outcomes for students.

It could be argued that the materials used in ELP courses may not be entirely authentic or relevant to law students, as the course goals and objectives are not set according to the characteristics of the learners. As Richards (2001) noted, the effectiveness of a programme is largely dependent on the clarity of its goals. Hence, focusing on relevant and specific goals that align with students' individual learning needs is critical.

The current research validates the conclusions of previous studies conducted in Algeria that have examined the challenges of teaching ESP, particularly in terms of an unsuitable syllabus and a lack of appropriate materials. These investigations, which include

the works of Zaghar (2007), Mebitil (2011), Dakhmouche (2008), Boudersa (2018), Bouabdallah & Bouyacoub (2017), Bouroumi (2018), and Saraa (2021), have contributed to the understanding of the obstacles that hinder effective ESP teaching in Algeria.

In addition, the lessons seemed to lack the necessary communicative elements of real-life situations, as the teachers were dissatisfied with the language proficiency level of their students, which reflected the strong emphasis on the student's receptive skills. This hindered the students' ability to communicate effectively in English. The teaching material appeared to prioritise reading comprehension and vocabulary-building skills. Concerning the productive skills, only short sentences were required to answer comprehension questions and there were insufficient opportunities to practise speaking and listening.

Target Situation Analysis (TSA)

The second section focuses on the Target Situation Analysis (TSA), which aims to identify the needs of law students.

Despite the fact that English is not introduced at the undergraduate level in the Department of Law and that Arabic dominates the curriculum, the participants perceived English as a useful global language for achieving their study and career aspirations. According to the students' needs analysis, there is a strong preference for improving their listening and speaking skills, which they find to be both challenging and motivating. These skills are particularly important for their future careers as legal professionals, where listening and speaking are the most common practises, especially for lawyers. However, the study emphasises the importance of reading at the study level, as law students are required to read handouts, take notes, and understand exam questions. Furthermore, some subject specialist teachers in the Department of Law stress the significance of English writing skills in academic publishing. While subject specialist teachers regarded all language skills as very important, students and language teachers were more selective in their preferences.

In addition, the cultural aspect of the English language is highly valued by law students, who need competence in the socio-political context of legal English as well as cross-cultural communication tools for their Master's studies. All the participants recognise the significance of English for international travel and exhibit a high level of integrative motivation for the language. Despite having little contact with native English speakers, the

students have a positive attitude towards the target culture, which is prompted by positive perceptions of its speakers and culture.

It is also indispensable to consider the linguistic background of these students, where Arabic is the exclusive language of instruction and most students have studied French since primary school. This highlights the need for effective language teaching that takes into account the diverse linguistic backgrounds and cultural perspectives of the students.

Finally, the absence of clearly defined goals and achievable objectives that respond to the rapidly changing needs of 21st century higher education has resulted in the provision of vague ESP courses that yield no real outcomes.

3.4 Conclusion

This chapter represents a detailed analysis of the data collected from both teachers and students in the Department of Law. The study's research questions were thoroughly examined, and the responses were presented in tables to facilitate analysis. The results of this study will serve as a basis for the following chapter, which focuses on the development of ELP teaching materials for law students.

The final chapter will apply the insights gained from the needs analysis to create effective teaching materials. In addition, the study's findings provide recommendations for the proposed course, which aims to ensure that students receive a comprehensive and well-rounded language education that aligns with their specific needs and requirements.

Chapter four

Teaching Materials Development and Evaluation

Chapter Four

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4. Introduction

Legalese is difficult to teach due to its specialised text structures, extreme formality, highly specialised vocabulary and legal concepts. However, teaching legalese can be rewarding as it can help learners to communicate complex ideas and concepts effectively. ELP teachers can use authentic legal documents, provide clear and concise explanations, use a variety of teaching methods, and provide opportunities for practice.

After determining the teaching objectives, methods, and materials of the course based on the learners' academic and professional requirements, this chapter delves into the selection and organisation of educational materials and content according to the learners' abilities. As emphasised in the theoretical section, evaluation and assessment are fundamental components of an effective course design, as they ensure the achievement of programme objectives and enable necessary adjustments to be made to the programme.

This chapter focuses on the assessment of students' learning progress through the use of achievement tests and the collection of student evaluations to measure the effectiveness of the course. Furthermore, the chapter makes recommendations to improve the learning and teaching of ELP at the Department of Law based on the findings of the study.

4.1 Instructional Materials Development

In many cases, course materials may be the only exposure that students have with the target language. These materials can provide students with accurate perspectives on the peoples and cultures associated with the target language. ESP teachers who are engaged in designing or adapting materials are required to review and select from existing learning materials or develop materials from scratch, according to specific criteria (Brown, 1995). This process involves creating a dynamic and engaging learning environment that enables students to acquire the skills and knowledge they need to achieve their academic and professional goals. Hutchinson and Waters (1987) uncovered the collection of factors that would affect the development of an ESP course as follows:

- Materials should provide a stimulus to learning by containing "interesting texts; enjoyable activities that engage the learners' thinking capacities; opportunities for learners to use their existing knowledge and skills" (p. 107).

- Materials should not only offer a clear and coherent unit structure for a sense of progression, but should also be flexible to allow for variety and creativity.
- Materials should reflect the author's view of language and language learning.
- Materials should be able to introduce teachers to new teaching techniques and extend teacher training.
- Materials should be models of correct and appropriate language use, because "it is all too often taken as the only purpose, with the result that materials become simply a statement of language use rather than a vehicle for language learning" (p. 108).

By the same token, Tomlinson (1998) identified a number of principles that need to be followed when developing and/or adapting teaching materials for language teaching:

- Materials must have an impact on the learners by capturing their attention, curiosity and interest. This can be achieved through novelty, illustrations, and activities that break up monotony and include different sources. Materials should also be attractively presented, using colours, images and topics that interest learners.
- Materials should make the learner feel comfortable. There are specific ways that can be used to achieve this goal:
    - Students feel more comfortable if the material has more white space than if many activities are presented on the same page.
    - Students feel more comfortable with texts and illustrations that represent their culture rather than those that are culturally bound.
    - Students feel more comfortable with materials that include examples.
- Students should also find the material as relevant and useful, with a clear link to their academic or career goals. Students need to feel that they are learning the foreign language for something useful. A clear example of this is an ESP course where teachers select materials that are relevant to what the learners are also learning in their field of study.
- Materials should help learners to develop self-confidence. Providing learners with materials that allow them to complete tasks using simple language may underestimate their potential. Many learners feel confident when the material is challenging. Students think critically when they have to experiment with language in a creative and analytical way.

- Students should be encouraged to put effort into activities. Projects are a clear example of this. Students need to explore supplementary materials that complement the objectives and units covered in the course book. This task requires dedication, commitment, and autonomy on the part of the students.

- Learners should be ready to receive the content being taught by providing background information and related topics that build on existing knowledge. Excessive input can only cause confusion and hinder the learning process.

- Materials should expose learners to the language in authentic use through activity instructions and accompanying texts or recordings.

- Learners' attention should be drawn to the linguistic features of the input by encouraging critical thinking rather than reverting to the old-fashioned grammar-focused teaching methods. Consciously or subconsciously, the students can compare and contrast linguistic rules in their mother tongue and in the foreign language.

- Materials should provide learners with opportunities to use the target language for communicative purposes; communication needs to be practiced in real-life situation not just in the classroom and controlled by the teacher.

- Materials should be designed taking into account that learners may have different learning styles. This means that the activities must be varied so that everyone benefit from them, taking into account their respective learning styles. In this sense, the materials must include visual, auditory, kinaesthetic, analytical, dependent activities (based on the teacher's instructions and a guide book) and independent activities (students discover by their own means).

- Materials should consider the affective attitudes of the learners in order to create a positive and effective learning environment. As a result, the following practises should also be considered:

- Allowing learners to choose different types of texts and activities.

- Providing extra material for the more motivated students.

- Incorporate variety into the materials.

- Including activities that relate to students' attitudes towards the course and the materials.

- Taking into account the students' cultural sensitivity.

-   Giving general advice and support on how to deal with difficult students (e.g., do not force them to be part of a work group, provide them with homework that makes them interested in group work, etc.)

•   Materials should maximise the potential for learning through intellectual, aesthetic and emotional engagement.

•   Materials should not rely too heavily on controlled practice activities. Although there is little research on the effects of controlled practice, Ellis (1990) argues that controlled practice appears to have little long-term effect on accuracy and fluency. However, controlled grammar practice activities are still considered useful by many teachers and by many learners.

•   Materials should provide opportunities for feedback on results. This means that materials should have clear objectives and expected outcomes beyond language practice.

4.2 Models of Instructional Materials Design

Instructional Materials Design Models are guides that instructors use in the teaching-learning process, based on behaviourist, cognitive and constructivist learning theories. These models have a structure or sequence for the design of programmes that form the procedural framework within which the instruction is systematically produced. There is a large number of adaptations of the teaching models designed by different authors to systematise the educational processes. In this research the basic models from which these adaptations have been generated are mentioned as follows:

4.2.1   Dick and Carey Model

Walter Dick and Lou Carey developed a model for designing instructional systems in 1978, based on the idea that there is a relationship between a stimulus (teaching materials) and the response of a student (learning the material). It is a behavioural model that consists of identifying the objectives in relation to the behaviour desired by the student. The designer has to identify the competences and skills that the learner must have and then select the teaching strategy for their presentation. The steps of the model are:

1.   **Identify the learning objectives**

Be clear about the learning expectations of students from the course or training.

2. Conduct instructional analysis

Identify the current level of skills and knowledge that the students will have at the end of the programme. This may be done through interviews, questionnaires, observation, or different forms of testing, depending on the nature of the skills.

3. Analyse learners and contexts

Analyse the characteristics of the learners; their skills, their knowledge, their motivation, etc.

4. Write performance objectives

Be specific about the skills you want your students to develop, building on those they already have, identifying their strengths and working on their weaknesses.

5. Develop assessment tools

Develop criterion-referenced tests to check both progress and effectiveness of teaching.

6. Prepare teaching strategies

Select a methodology that reflects your analysis and use appropriate learning theories.

7. Develop and select teaching materials

Select the tools that will support the instructor so that the students have a greater understanding. This may include face-to-face, group-based, facilitated or online learning materials.

8. Design and conduct formative evaluation

Conduct a review and progress test of both the tools and the teaching process.

9. Design and conduct summative evaluation

Verify the effectiveness of the programme delivered.

10. Revise the instruction

It is important to continually review and seek feedback during the instructional design and development phase.

4.2.2 Jolly and Bolitho Model

Jolly and Bolitho (1998) pondered on the quality of the materials used in ELT and proposed the following landmarks:

1. Identification of needs for materials

This stage consists of carrying out a needs analysis in order to identify language problems that can be solved by the development of a material. In this research, the needs identification stage will be based on the evaluation of materials as well as the analysis of a series of interviews and questionnaires in order to determine the pedagogical and institutional principles for developing the material.

2. Exploration of needs

Taking into account the aspects mentioned in the stage of identification of needs, this stage refers to the exploration of the theoretical and practical literature concerning the field of study. For instance, in this research we have tried to find some previous studies that are related to the field of materials development in ESP and language teaching.

3. Contextual realisation of materials

At this stage, it is necessary for teachers to choose the context that is related to their students in order to write their own materials in a way that a course book cannot. In other words, the aim of the contextual realisation is to find suitable ideas or texts that will be included in the final product and that will reflect the guidelines of the chosen principles for developing a material.

4. Pedagogical realisation of materials

This phase consists of adapting the material or activities to meet the needs identified in the first step. This stage also involves a careful progression of the content, which allows strengthening the learning process at the cognitive, affective and cultural levels.

5. Production of materials

At this stage, the appearance of the materials that will attract and motivate the student is considered. The size, fonts, colours, images, texts, among other characteristics, must be taken into account in the elaboration of the final product.

6. Student use of materials

In this stage, the product is tried out to know its quality, whether to add, delete, or correct it, through direct observation and feedback from the students. The main objective of this stage is to concretise the learning and to engage the students.

7. Evaluation of materials

This phase is considered important throughout the model as it allows the quality of the products and the teaching and learning processes involved to be assessed before and after implementation. A formative evaluation of this phase can also lead to the modification or rethinking of other phases of the model.
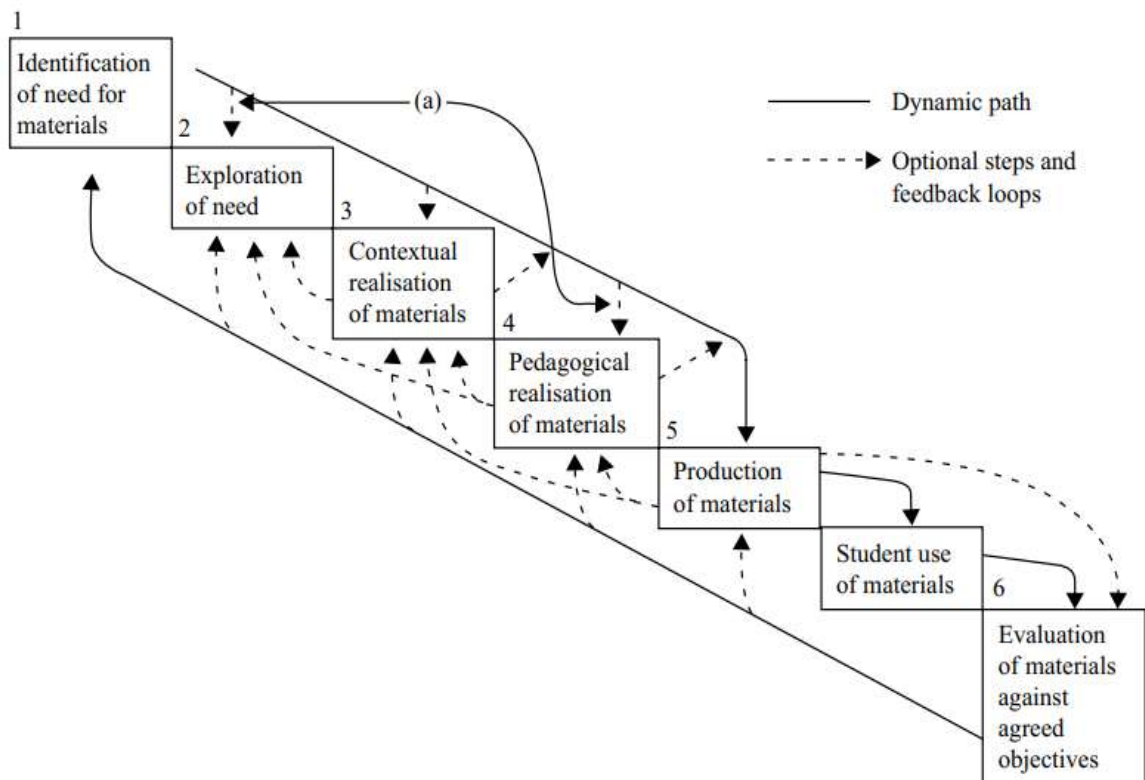
Figure 4.1 A teacher's path through the production of new or adapted materials
(Jolly & Bolitho, 1998, p.113)

4.2.3   Bocanegra-Valle Model

From Bocanegra-Valle's perspective, the process of ESP materials development involves reviewing, evaluating and selecting available materials according to different criteria and with reference to a particular ESP course. On the other hand, practitioners may be required to develop materials from scratch or to adapt the available materials for a particular group of learners.

As demonstrated in figure 4.2, the author considers materials development to be an ongoing process in which stakeholders are encouraged to pilot test and evaluate. This will allow materials to be adapted over time in response to implementation outcomes, current trends in the field or new research.
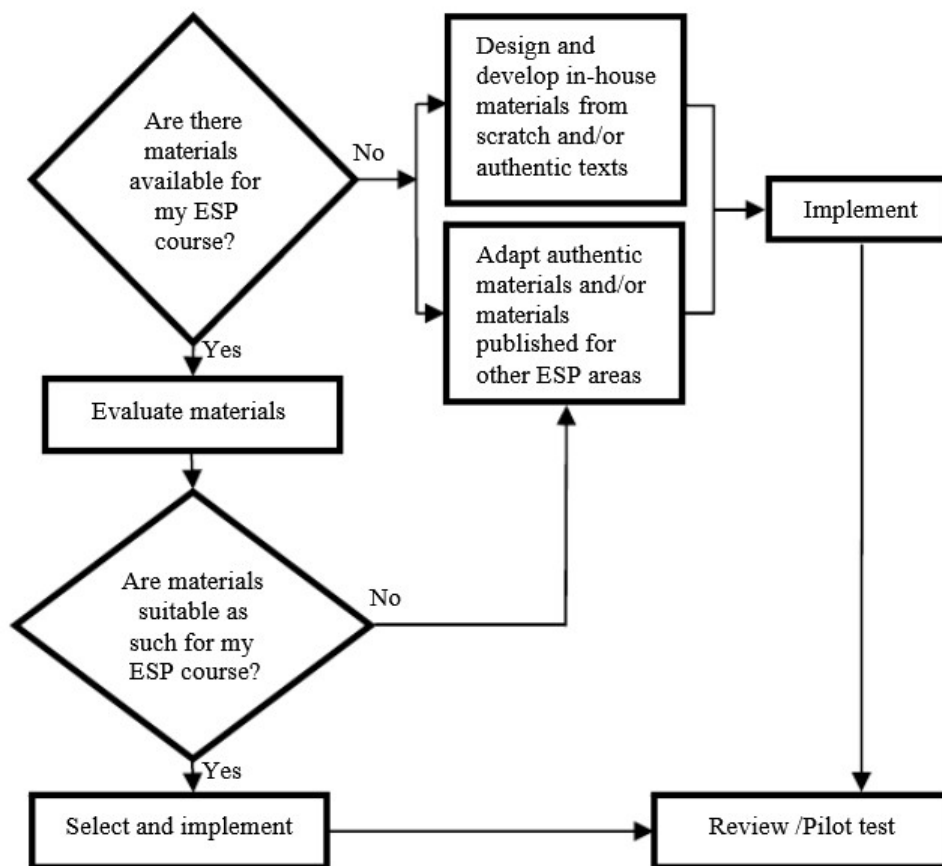
Figure 4.2 Flowchart on the Process of Materials Development (Bocanegra-Valle, 2010, p. 145)

What is remarkable about Bocanegra-Valle's model is the importance of trial and error in selecting or developing language teaching materials for an ESP classroom. This means that a trial-and-error approach to materials selection and development recognises that language learning is a dynamic and ever-evolving process, and that materials that work well for one group of learners may not be effective for another.

4.3 Authenticity of Materials

Teaching materials are usually divided into two types: authentic teaching materials and non-authentic teaching materials. Among the non-authentic materials, textbooks are the predominant ones. However, many teachers now use various authentic materials, which are items that have been designed to achieve some social purpose in a speech community, as opposed to non-authentic materials that are specifically designed for language teaching purposes (Peacock, 1997).

Authentic materials are teaching resources that have not been designed for educational purposes, but are often used in teaching a language because they are real examples of what language is in its most natural form. Nunan and Miller (1995) pointed out that those materials are not designed or modified with the specific purposes of helping language learners. The authors emphasised that authentic materials illustrate how English is used naturally by native speakers. These materials are used in everyday life of a native speaker; for example, videos, films, pictures, songs, newspapers, magazines, etc. As Basturkmen (2010) explained, authentic materials are "written for purposes other than language teaching and learning" (p. 62). The key to understanding what makes materials authentic important is to think of them as texts produced by native speakers and for native speakers to fulfil a social purpose within a linguistic community, without any pedagogical intent or concern. In addition, Rogers and Medley (1988) contended that authentic materials are instances of language, whether oral or written, that reflect the cultural and situational context that might be found in the language used by a native speaker.

Since the main objective of ESP classes is to familiarise the students with the English language in its real context, it is necessary for teachers to use authentic materials. As Robinson (1991) asserted, "A key concept ...felt to be particularly relevant for ESP, is that of authenticity" (p. 54). According to Tomlinson (2012), authentic materials can provide learners with valuable exposure to the language in its authentic use, motivate them to develop various

communicative competencies and foster positive attitudes towards the language learning process. In this context, the authentic materials selected could closely connect between the classroom language and the outside world; thus, students will be offered a valuable source of language input. However, Richards (2001) pointed out that these authentic materials often contain complicated language, unnecessary vocabulary and complex language structures, which can cause disturbances for beginners. In other words, difficulties may arise if the material provider does not take into consideration the necessary measures to meet the characteristics and level of the potential audience, as well as the requirements and goals of the curriculum. Hence, students should be allowed to participate in the selection of materials through a preliminary analysis of their needs, and the intended objectives and skills to be practiced should be clearly defined.

We can safely conclude that authentic materials have several advantages for teachers and learners in the educational setting. Among these, it is worth mentioning that they prepare students for communication in a real situation and guide them towards the specialised vocabulary they need for a specific context. Similarly, the great flexibility of authentic materials allows the teacher to find the resources that best suited to the syllabus content. Nevertheless, this is a procedure that needs to be carefully treated, as preparation can be time consuming and these materials usually contain advanced vocabulary and a cultural content that is unfamiliar to ESP students.

4.4 The Procedures for the Development of the Proposed Materials

When starting to develop the teaching materials, the material writer had to consider a number of important factors. The first and most important factor to consider was meeting the needs. The purpose of NA in an educational context is to optimise the teaching and learning process and to create the best possible conditions for achieving objectives in time. For the planning of courses and the development of the teaching materials, NA can be a first, fundamental step. The needs analysis conducted in this research took into consideration the needs of the students, the language teachers, and subject specialist teachers in the Department of Law at the University of Oran 2. The needs are included in the formulation of aims and objectives, which then serve as the basis for the further development of teaching materials, learning activities, tests, and evaluation measures, etc.

In addition to personal factors, language learning awareness, and time management, the curriculum and context, as well as resources and facilities, play a decisive role and should be taken into account when developing teaching-learning materials (Howard & Major, 2004).

The needs analysis study proposes an ELP course for second-year Master's students in the Department of Law at the University of Oran 2. The course is designed to improve learners' academic and professional performance in the target language.

To develop the teaching materials, the researcher adapted components from Jolly and Bolitho's (1998) model for materials development. The following description outlines the procedures used to design the innovative ELP course.

Phase 1

The most effective materials are those which are based on a thorough understanding of the learners' needs i.e., their language difficulties, their learning objectives, their learning styles, their stage of their conceptual development and so on. At this phase, needs analysis (teachers and students questionnaire, teachers interview and content evaluation) was carried out to gather information on the requirement of the suggested course in which the materials will be used.

List of needs identified in phase 1		
LEARNERS' NEEDS	Personal needs	To be able to express ideas correctly and use English when I travel abroad
	Learning needs	To pass the exam
		To be able to read books, dissertations, legal reports and services, etc.
		To understand and take notes from teacher's instructions/lectures
	Professional needs	To be able to work in collaboration with foreigners and build a cultural competence

TEACHERS' NEEDS	Personal needs	The ELP course should be compulsory
		More time should be allocated to the English module
		The English module should be integrated throughout all levels of university education
	Professional needs	To take an in-service ESP teacher training in the following areas:
		-Knowledge of the subject matter and disciplinary culture
		-Text analysis (genre and discourse analysis)
		-Theory and methodology of ESP
		-Assessment of learner needs
		- Syllabus design
		-Selection and evaluation of materials
		-The use of technology in the classroom
SUBJECT SPECIALISTS AND ADMINISTRATORS' NEEDS	Institutional needs	Students need English for both academic and professional purposes
		Students need to read and write papers.
		Students need to read books, reports related to their field of study.

Table 4.1 an Overview of the Needs Analysis

Phase 2

Once the data has been collected during the analysis phase, it can be used to implement a suitable model for the teaching materials. The second phase of the process

involves selecting the approach, content, sequencing structure, duration, delivery methods, evaluation, and feedback. The results of this design phase will then form the basis for the development phase of the materials.

Exploration of Language	Mixed approach to teaching ESP (Task-Based Language Teaching, Content-Based Approach, Genre-Based Approach)
Contextual Realisation	Large collection of written texts and video material
Pedagogical Realisation	Familiarity with frameworks for materials development (rules or principles that govern language use) Professional English in Use Law (textbooks) Supplementary materials, legal articles, podcasts Websites and online videos
Physical Production	Pens / pencils / luminous text markers / computer Access to a photocopier / Whiteboard and chalk/ PowerPoint presentations

Table 4.2 The Process of Materials Production

The mixed approach to teaching was adopted as a framework for sequencing the content in order to cover different topics, tasks, and concepts. Moreover, based on the needs of the students, the material writer wanted to provide authentic texts with examples of language skills in order to provide an engaging content that would encourage students to make cultural and personal comparisons. The British context was used as a resource for language and as a basis for speaking and writing, although the material writer was constrained by cultural sensitivities such as references to sex, drugs, death, politics and religion. It goes without saying that exposure to real and unscripted language at this level was important to motivate students and help them get off the learning plateau.

A great emphasis was placed on an analytical approach to grammar, as students were familiar with grammar but needed to work on the difference between past perfect and past simple, and past continuous, for example. In addition, the material writer felt the need to include many tasks that would be performed in the target language to convey meaning rather than forms.

Phase 3

The third phase is built upon the analysis and design phases. The purpose of this phase is to create lesson plans and resources. In this phase, the material writer works on developing instructions and selecting an appropriate teaching methodology for each lesson, as well as preparing any supporting documentation.

To assess the suitability of technology for material design purposes, the *ACTIONS* model developed by Bates (1995) was used as a framework. This model helped to evaluate the potential value of a technology before its implementation. Bates (1995, as cited in Tomlinson, 1998) suggested seven characteristics listed as follows:

Access	How accessible is a particular technology for learners? How flexible is it for a particular target group?
Costs	What is the cost structure of each technology? What is the unit cost per student?
Teaching and learning	What kinds of learning are needed? What instructional approaches will best meet these needs? What are the best technologies for supporting this teaching and learning?
Interactivity and user-friendliness	What kind of interaction does this technology enable? How easy is it to use?
Organisational issues	What are the organisational requirements, and the barriers to be removed, before this technology can be used successfully? What changes in organisation need to be made?
Novelty	How new is this technology?
Speed	How quickly can courses be mounted with this technology? How quickly can materials be changed?

Table 4.3 Bates's ACTIONS model (1995)

This model was used to analyse whether an activity is worthy of time and effort in materials development:

- Access: Students were able to easily access materials that were available on the web.

- Costs: The costs required only basic equipment such as projectors, printers, and computers. In some cases, students used their own devices at home.

- Teaching and learning: The activities were adjusted to meet the specific needs of the learners and to encourage engagement with the material.

- Interactivity: The technologies used in the activities were user-friendly and allowed for interaction.

- Organisational issues: In addition to video projectors in classroom, students were able to access assignments from home.

- Novelty: These technologies were readily available and easy to use.

- Speed: Developing the materials for these activities required a significant amount of time.

4.5 Course Overview

According to Pauline Robinson (1991), ESP is "goal oriented language learning" (p. 3), so the aim of this course is to improve the practical English skills, i.e., to learn how to use English to deal with legislative, judicial, litigation and non-litigation legal matters, as well as to engage in legal research, such as dealing with foreign-related laws in English documents, foreign-related legal consultation and negotiation, as well as the ability to read English textbooks.

The course is designed after the analysis of the data obtained from the research tools so that the learners can decide independently to set their priorities for the course. The course was introduced to second-year Master of law students.

4.5.1 Learning Objectives and Learner Outcomes

The classification of objectives, adapted from Basturkmn (2006), is as follows:

- ➢ Showing learners how English is used in the target setting or environment (legal topics in lectures, presentations, interviews, discussions, etc.);
- ➢ Developing target performance competences (drafting contracts; letters; legal summaries);
- ➢ Promoting learners' knowledge in areas of study or work other than language skills.
- ➢ Developing strategic competence by promoting successful and effective interactive communication (legal vocabulary and grammar);
- ➢ Fostering critical awareness to enable learners to be culturally aware of the target situation (UK legal system and law journal articles);
- ➢ To work in a group and successfully plan and deliver presentations;
- ➢ To assess their learning progress and evaluate the course.

4.5.2 Course Expectations

This course is structured into three units and delivered overruns for 15 weeks, starting in October 2018 and ending in February 2019.

4.5.3 Grading and assessment

Students' grades are based on their participation in all required activities. This includes frequent presentations and a final exam at the end of the semester.

4.5.4 Teaching Methods

After determining the characteristics of the students, establishing the aims and learning objectives of the course, defining assessment methods, and structuring sequence of the topics, the course designer can identify the most appropriate teaching methods for the course.

Legal English has the basic components of ordinary English (Matilla, 2016), and at the same time it is integrated with subject content, which causes problems in discussing and planning the programme of specialised foreign language courses (Mačianskienė & Bijeikienė, 2012, as cited in Stepanovienė, 2015). Therefore, when designing the teaching methods, we considered combining the characteristics and methods of several disciplines.

The ESP learner-centred teaching approach requires prioritising communicative language teaching (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987). This means that ESP practitioners cannot stick to a particular teaching method and instead aim to foster an interactive classroom environment by encouraging student participation in class activities. A number of teaching methods were used in the ELP course to facilitate student learning and engagement with the subject matter.

- **Lecturing**

Although this thesis has repeatedly advocated for the teacher to be the guide at the side rather than the sage on the stage, a lecture may be the right choice for a particular lesson. There are strong arguments for the value of the lecture as an efficient method of delivering substantial amounts of information to large numbers of students (Charlton, 2006). Lecturing is useful for transmitting cognitive or factual data from a teacher to a group of students (Ganyaupfu, 2013). The lecture method is effective in the early stages of legal English

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courses when the content is confusing to the students and the material needs to be covered quickly. Legalese is very difficult, even for native English speakers, and requires a very accurate understanding and use of technical terms and complex sentence patterns.

Adopting a student-centred approach in the beginning can be intimidating for the students, as it involves a great deal of self-study and collaboration with the instructor. There is a substantial value in a carefully planned and well-executed lecture, as reading and translation in lectures can help students to rapidly grasp the nuances of legal English and develop basic legal English vocabulary.

- **Group work**

Group work or cooperative learning is a teaching method that focuses on peer interaction in authentic contexts (Rance-Roney, 2010). The learning outcomes are based on the joint efforts of all team members to complete a task which suggests the integration of different learning styles from which everyone can benefit. As demonstrated by Millis and Cottell (1998), students who learnt through cooperative learning remembered the content longer, developed critical thinking skills, and felt more confident and accepted by themselves and others than those who were exposed to traditional teaching-learning methods. The choice of this method was inspired by the work of psychologists Jean Piaget and Lev Vygotsky, who stressed on the essential role of social interaction in learning. The objectives of cooperative learning that have been established for language teaching are:

a) To provide opportunities for naturalistic acquisition of the target language.
b) To prepare students for other type of activities such as moots, debates, and role plays.
c) To make students pay attention to specific communicative functions through interactive tasks.
d) To promotes learner responsibility and autonomy (Brown, 2001) by giving students opportunities for collective problem-solving.
e) To increase student motivation.

Simply put, group work encourages active learning by making students move away from passive learning where grammatical explanation, memorisation and repetition are more dominant.

- **Brainstorming**

Brainstorming is a teaching method that allows all participants to exchange views on a chosen topic, usually in small groups to encourage participation. In this research, brainstorming is employed to teach writing skills. By using the brainstorming method, students can come up with a wide range of ideas in different areas. In ELT, brainstorming is often used at the pre-writing stage as a part of teaching writing (Richards, 1990). Group brainstorming is necessary to activate the prior knowledge of the students through mapping. Therefore, brainstorming strategies should be introduced in the writing process for English language learners to improve their writing performance (Rao, 2007).

- **Interculturality to Enhance Motivation**

The current trend in ELT emphasises that in order to achieve authentic communicative competence, students need to learn about the socio-cultural reality of the target language, as language and culture are closely intertwined. When talking about the relationship between motivation and foreign language learning, it is inevitable to cite Gardner's Socio-educational Model (1985), which identifies motivation as a key factor in second language learning and distinguishes between integrative motivation (desire to learn a language because of positive feelings about a linguistic community) and instrumental motivation (desire to learn a language for professional reasons).

Along the same lines, recent developments in social psychology and sociolinguistics have placed the social dimension at the heart of teaching by emphasising its influence on a learner's motivation to learn a foreign language. The influence of international attitude as a prominent variable is directly confirmed by the inclination to identify with the global community rather than with a particular L2 group (Yashima 2009).

Achir and Sebane (2022) conducted a study in the Department of Law at the University of Oran 2 to investigate the role of cultural perceptions in motivation and learning. The study found that law students highly valued the cultural aspect of the English language, as too much emphasis on grammatical aspects led to a lower degree of motivation in ELP classes. The students' main motivation was to succeed professionally, travel, and function in an international environment.

4.5.5 Course Content

Chapter Four

Units	Topics	Resources	Tasks and Assignments	Language focus
Unit 1 **ADMINISTRATIVE LAW**	• English legal system • Separation of Powers and the Administrative Law	• Slides • Pictures and flow charts	• Read a variety of texts • Share your background information (optional) • Read legal documents and textbooks • Write a short text on symbols of your country • Describe the process of making new law in your country	• The use of past simple, past perfect, and past continuous • The use of Adjectives • Use dictionaries to learn new structures and vocabulary • Relative pronouns
	• Explore the situation of Civil Law	• Flow charts	• Listen and get key words • Write a text	• Use and practice the language to develop skills and strategies

			explaining regulation of Civil Law in your country	
Unit 2 **Civil Law**	• Understanding the procedures of renting (signing a contract and moving out)	• Videos	• Fill in the gaps • Listen to the clips, take notes and then answer questions	• Negatives • Write correct grammar and simple wording
	• Understanding the procedures of buying and selling a property.	• Contract template	• Complete drafting a property contract and identify the promises and conditions of a contract	• Personal pronouns
	• Understanding the procedures of marriage, divorce, and inheritance in England and Wales.	• Images,	• Answer text questions • Explain the process of divorce in your country and compare it with the	• False words pairs

		tabular charts, flow charts	UK. • Write a report • Conduct a consultation with a client in English	
Unit 3 **COMMERCIAL**	• Procedures of entrepreneurship • Exploring the steps to start a trading business. • Understanding different types of business contracts (supply contract, transport contract)	• Slides •Authentic materials	• Write a paragraph explaining in your own words the steps to become a self-employed individual • The equivalents of English company forms and taxes • Listen to the dialogue • Speak with	• Active vs. passive voice • Shall and May • Standard phrases for opening and closing letters and emails • Use a dictionary

LAW		• Contract template	clients on the phone • Negotiate on legal issues • Draft business contracts in English • Use the appropriate legal register • Define in your own words what is bankruptcy	
	• Understanding bankruptcy			
Final Examination and Grading				

Table 4.4 the Units of the Suggested Course

4.6 ESP Course Assessment and Evaluation

The quality of teaching in higher education is one that engages students in learning while promoting their meta-cognition and self-regulation. To achieve this, two major factors need to be considered: the teachers' interaction with students in different teaching methods, and the structural or curricular aspects of teaching (Biggs & Tang, 2011). D'Apollonia and Abrami (1997) defined the characteristics of effective teaching in aspects of the teaching process, such as preparing of course materials, giving feedback and assessing students' progress in developing competencies, problem-solving skills, and attitudes toward learning. Biggs and Tang (2011) asserted that effective teaching involves encouraging the majority of students to engage in the cognitive processes required to attain the desired outcomes.

Effective teaching also involves the ability to make what is being taught comprehensible and to encourage students to engage in a full range of desired learning activities, including memorising terminology and formulae (Biggs & Tang, 2011). In addition, good teaching requires an appropriate environment that includes a content-related and well-structured syllabus, as well as favourable institutional and social conditions. To this end, evaluation and assessment have become beneficial and essential processes for assessing teacher performance, course delivery, and student outcomes.

In any ESP course, it is essential to evaluate students' satisfaction because of the flexible nature of the field. ESP teachers must remain open to continuous refinement and improvement to meet the changing needs of diverse educational settings and environments.

Evaluation and assessment are necessary final steps to follow after conducting a needs analysis, designing the course, and selecting appropriate materials. Dudley Evans and St John (1998) argued that these stages should not be viewed as a linear sequence, but rather as interdependent and overlapping activities that form a cyclical process, as shown in the following figure:
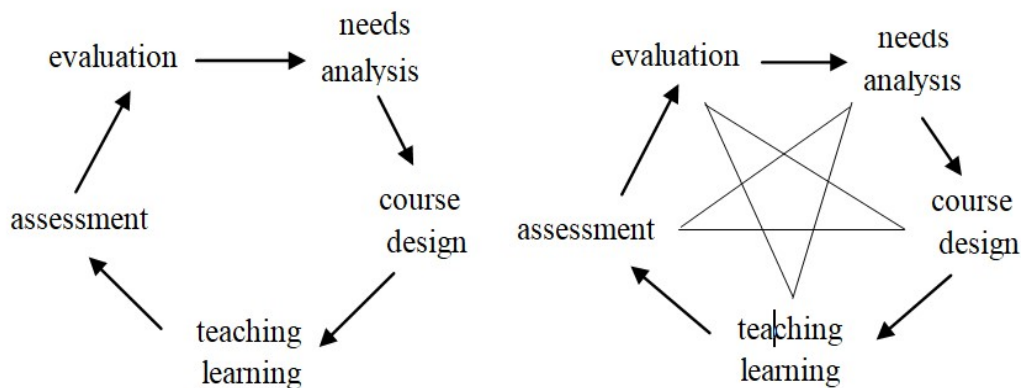
Figure 4.3 Linear vs. cyclical processes of needs analysis (Dudley-Evans & St John, 1998, p. 121).

Evaluation is the means by which the information needed to make decisions about students' programmes, activities, teaching materials, or educational experiences is gathered. According to Nunan (1988), evaluation involves not only gathering information, but also making decisions based on that information. Evaluation is defined as the systematic collection and analysis of all the information necessary to "promote the improvement of a curriculum, and evaluate its effectiveness and efficiency, as well as the participants' attitudes within a

given institutional context" (Brown, 1989, p.223). Every element of the curriculum is subject to evaluation and can have a direct impact on the effectiveness and duration of learning.

Evaluation includes assessment and other processes, such as a final examination that indicates what learners will know by the end of the course, and the analysis of their feedback. Skilbeck (1984) distinguished between assessment and evaluation as follows: assessment refers to the process of making judgments about a student's learning potential and performance, whereas evaluation involves gathering evidence and making judgments about the curriculum itself, including its planning, design and implementation (cited in Hedge, 2000). This means that Assessment entails the processes of judging students' learning (Nunan, 1998), while evaluation involves the use of checklists to guide the development of lesson plans and to determine learning outcomes or student satisfaction (Kiely & Rea-Dickins, 2005). Dudley-Evans and St John (1998) described evaluation as a means of assessing the effectiveness and efficiency of learning. Therefore, assessment and evaluation are the final stages in the development of an ESP course.

4.6.1 Types of Evaluation

Evaluation, as the final stage of the process, is here directly related to the other elements, intervening and modifying them where necessary on the basis of ongoing assessment and decisions that the teacher has to make during the course. Evaluation should be seen as an integral part of various sources in order to analyse the extent to which students' language learning needs are being met. Thus, the evaluation not only measures whether the students have fulfilled the objectives set in the programme, but also determines the extent to which the programme responds to the needs and expectations of the students, i.e., the extent to which the course needs to be modified. According to Hutchinson and Waters (1987), it is necessary to track the student's learning at different times during the course in order to determine the capacity of students' performance in a particular task. Consequently, students are given feedback to reflect on their learning process, the difficulties they face and their achievements. Brown (1989) identified three dimensions, defined in terms of dichotomies, which complement each other:

- *Formative vs. Summative*

Formative evaluation informs teachers about the level of learning achieved by their students, identifies areas that require improvement, and ensures that the course meets their needs. Formative evaluation's immediate feedback allows the teacher to "retain effective aspects of the course and to change ineffective aspects while teaching it" (Graves, 2010, p.215), whereas summative evaluation is carried out at the end of the learning process to assess the overall competences and skills acquired by the students. Brown (1995) suggested that summative evaluation can be used to assess the level of success, efficiency, and effectiveness of the programme. Course evaluation is conducted in parallel with the assessment of student learning to obtain information on the quality and adequacy of the course. Therefore, Jordan (1997) recommends the use of a questionnaire as a summative evaluation tool that students can complete anonymously.

- *Product vs. process*

The purpose of product evaluation is to determine the extent to which the objectives of the programme have been achieved "such as examination results" (Robinson, 1991, p.65), whereas process evaluation seeks to examine the extent to which the teaching methods, materials, and activities used in the development of the course contribute to the achievement of the intended objectives. Murphy (1985) asserted that evaluation should be seen as a large-scale study of the curriculum, not just of the performance of those who follow it. Both product evaluation and process evaluation are important in making judgments about the fulfilment of the objectives and the effectiveness of teaching.

- *Quantitative vs. Qualitative*

Quantitative evaluation employs techniques that measure the responses and provide a numerical form of results. According to Dudley-Evans and St. John (2000), they can be obtained through the use of tests and objective questionnaires. In contrast, qualitative evaluation involves data that can be obtained through observation, interviews, and open-ended questionnaires that explore people's attitudes and opinions.

4.6.2   Evaluation of Teaching

Assessing teaching performance is one of the most widespread practices in higher education (Richardson, 2005). The evaluation of teaching began in the mid-twenties at Purdue University in the United States with the creation of the first rating scale for students by

Herman Remmers (Centra, 1993; Marsh, 1987). In fact, the evaluation of teaching by students was a novelty in US higher education, in keeping with the country's policy of consumerism: if students are the users of the service, they are the ones who should evaluate it (Abrami et al., 1990). Thus, the use of teacher evaluation questionnaires began to become popular in American universities in the late 1960s. Initially, it was voluntary and the teacher was responsible for applying it (Centra, 1993). However, it peaked in the 1970s and intensified in the 1980s (Greenwald, 1997).

Students are considered to be the best sources of information in the teaching-learning process. The evaluation of teaching by students is multidimensional, reliable, relatively valid in relation to various indicators of effective teaching, useful for improving of teaching, and relatively little affected by factors associated with biases, such as class size, grades, and workload (Marsh & Roche, 2000; Marsh et al., 2011). Similarly, many scholars have concluded that the reliability (Centra, 1993) and validity (Abrami et al., 1990; Marsh, 1987) in student evaluation of teaching is often the only method of providing objective evidence for summative evaluations of teaching.

Student evaluation of teaching is widely used and accepted in higher education, especially in North America, Europe and Asia (Seldin, 1993). However, there is still scepticism about its validity as an indicator of teaching effectiveness as many factors can influence student evaluations, such as academic discipline, class size, quality of grading, and teacher personality (Marsh & Roche, 2000; Harrison et al., 2004; Badri et al., 2006). However, a correlation between students' evaluation of teaching and other variables does not necessarily imply bias or a threat to validity (Martin, 1998). The bias that affects students' evaluation of teaching is not related to the criteria of good teaching (Centra & Gaubatz, 2000). It is no secret that these evaluations continue to be the subject of controversy and debate because, in North America, students' evaluation of teaching influence faculty decisions regarding conditions of employment, salary increases, or contract renewals (Johnson, 2000; Ngware, 2005; Roberts et al., 2005). Despite these limitations, student evaluations remain an important tool for assessing teaching in universities (Campbell & Bozeman, 2007).

4.6.3   Framework of ESP Evaluation by Hutchinson and Waters

Hutchinson and Waters (1987) identified two levels of evaluation: learner assessment and course evaluation. To begin with, the learner assessment is carried out at the beginning

and at the end of the course. It involves tests such as placement test, achievement test, and proficiency test. The results of these tests enable teachers to decide what adjustments, if any, are needed for the course.

Another level to evaluating an ESP course is to evaluate the course itself. This type of evaluation aims to determine whether the course has achieved its objectives and is meeting the intended purpose. If the course falls short of its objectives, it may indicate a design flaw such as overly ambitious objectives given limited resources, inaccurate initial student competence analysis, or a methodology that does not align with theoretical principles. Hence, conducting a course evaluation can help figuring out the root cause of any deficiencies in the course.

In ESP, fundamental types of student assessment are used. The placement test is performed at the beginning of the course to determine which programme best suits the students' needs. The achievement test is carried during the course to check how the student is responding to the syllabus. Lastly, the proficiency test is used to determine whether the student possess the necessary skills to cope with specific situations, such as studying at a university or reading legal documents. According to Hutchinson and Waters (1987) there are four main aspects of ESP course evaluation:

- What should be evaluated?

All aspects that have a clear meaning must be evaluated, with the aim of meeting the language needs as language learners and language users.

- How can ESP courses be evaluated?

Different ways can be employed to evaluate an ESP course, such as tests, questionnaires, discussions, interviews and informal comments.

- Who should be involved in the evaluation?

The evaluation must align with the interests and expectations of the ESP teaching institution, teachers, learners, and sponsors.

- How often and how should evaluations be conducted?

Evaluation should be conducted at multiple points throughout the course: the beginning, the middle, and at the end to track the progress made by the teachers and students.

4.6.4 Framework of ESP Evaluation by Tsou and Chen

Tsou and Chen (2014) presented a revised ESP framework that integrates Hutchinson and Waters' (1987) model with Watanabe, Norris, and Gonzalez-Lloret's (2009) comprehensive framework for evaluating foreign language programmes. Tsou and Chen's (2014) Framework has been successfully piloted in an ESP programme at a Taiwanese national university. The ESP programme evaluation framework is presented in the figure below:
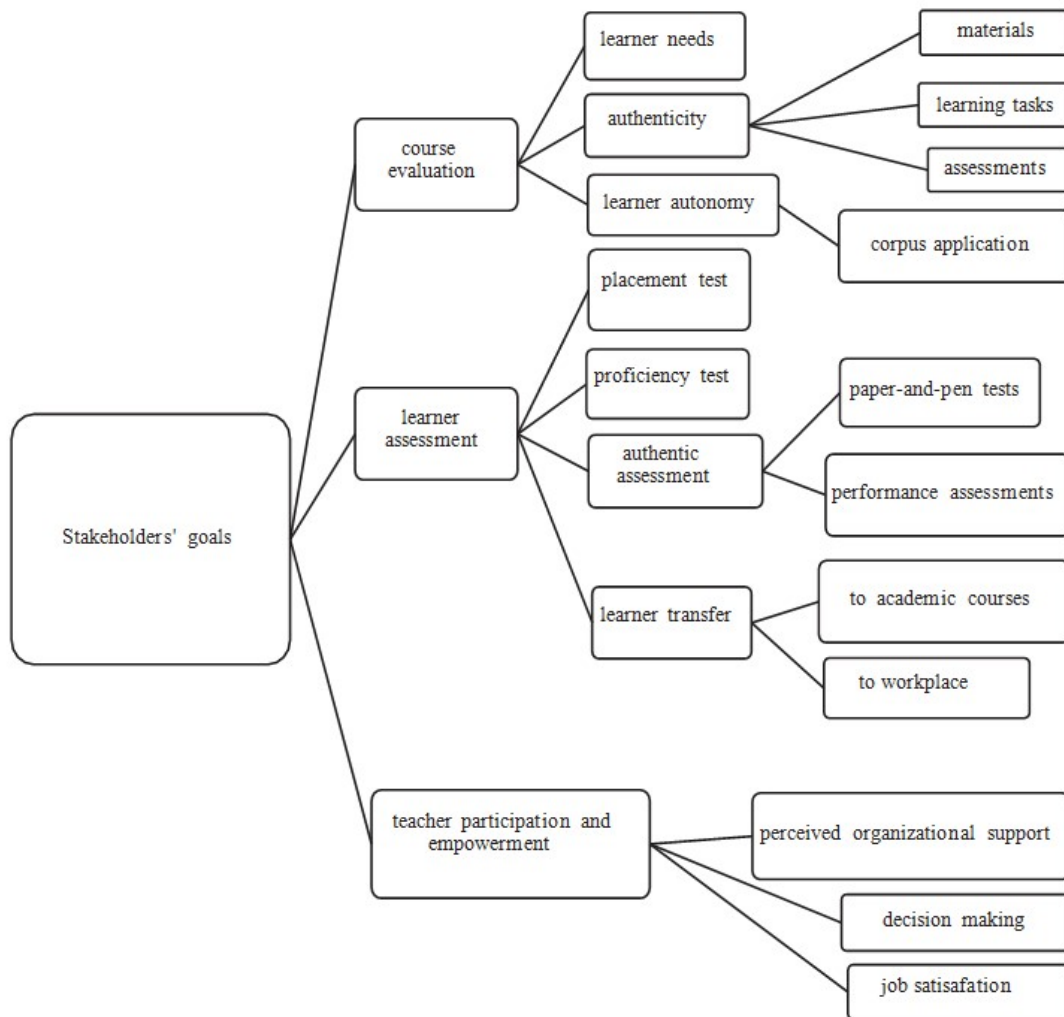
Figure 4.4 The ESP Programme Evaluation Framework

In this framework, the evaluation process starts with the identification of stakeholders' needs and objectives to understand their concerns and to identify areas of adjustments or improvements needed in syllabus design and instruction. The stakeholders of an ESP

programme may include sponsors, university senior management, syllabus developers, teachers, and students. Course evaluation aims to answer three key questions: whether learner needs have been met, whether the materials and tasks are authentic, and whether the course has successfully promoted learner autonomy. Moreover, learner assessment includes the three types of assessment: placement, proficiency, and achievement tests as already have been discussed in detail by Hutchinson and Waters (1987). Besides, Tsou and Chen (2014) recommend using the FL framework in order to assess teacher participation and empowerment, which can be examined from three perspectives: perceived organisational support, decision making, and job satisfaction.

4.6.5 Layout of the Course Evaluation Checklist

Evaluating teaching effectiveness through student opinion questionnaires is a widespread practice in universities worldwide. Each university creates its own questionnaires and obtains different results. According to Harvey (2003), opinion questionnaires are the most common method of evaluating students' perceptions, whereby students score different teaching activities on an opinion scale. The most direct way to find the hallmarks of good teaching is to ask students to rate different aspects of teaching, such as course content, classroom practices and teacher behaviour (Little et el., 2009) as they experience good or bad teaching on a regular basis.

In an attempt to investigate the effectiveness of the ELP course for law students, the researcher used the evaluative framework proposed by Tsou and Chen (2014). A summative evaluation checklist was given to the students who had taken the course at the end of the first semester in 2018/2019 academic year. A total of 34 students voluntarily and anonymously filled out the questionnaire. They were asked to provide feedback on the course under investigation before the final exam at the end of the course.

The questionnaire did not include dimensions, but instead presented a series of isolated items that participants rated on a five-point likert scale including Strongly Disagree (1), Disagree (2), Agree (3), Strongly Agree (4), and No Comment (5).

The summative evaluation checklist was translated into Arabic before being administered to the participants in order to enhance the questionnaire's credibility.

4.6.6 Analysis and Interpretation of the Results

The first part of the questionnaire contained six statements to which the students had to express their agreement or disagreement. These statements aimed to explore the students' perceptions on characteristics of effective English language instructors, such as their subject knowledge, time management skills, giving appropriate assignments, encouraging discussion in class, answering students' questions, and creating a positive atmosphere. The results are summarised in table 4.5.

Statements	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree	No Comment
1) The teacher is knowledgeable about the subject and she frequently collects relevant teaching resources.	0% (0)	0% (0)	64.70% (22)	35.29% (12)	0% (0)
2) The teacher provides clear, concrete and systematic explanations on the course content.	0% (0)	0% (0)	44.11% (15)	50% (17)	5.88% (2)
3) The teacher creates a positive learning atmosphere to motivate English learning in class.	0% (0)	0% (0)	67.64% (23)	32.35% (11)	0% (0)
4) The teacher frequently uses methods of discussion and Q&As.	0% (0)	0% (0)	41.17% (14)	58.82% (20)	0% (0)
5) The teacher gives appropriate assignments and assessments.	2.94% (1)	11.76% (4)	47.05% (16)	32.35% (11)	5.88% (2)
6) The teacher manages the class time effectively.	0% (0)	8.82% (3)	41.17% (14)	44.11% (15)	5.88% (2)

Table 4.5 Students' Evaluation of the Teacher

1) According to the data presented in Table 4.5, the majority of students (64.70%) agreed and 35.29% strongly agreed that the teacher had satisfactory knowledge of the subject and was able to gather relevant resources.

Teaching ESP requires an understanding of the students' area of expertise and "taking an interest in the disciplines and professional activities the students are involved in" (Dudley-Evans and St John, 1998, p.14).

2) The next component of students' evaluation is the teacher providing clear, concrete and systematic explanations on the course content. Table 4.5 shows that that 50% of the students strongly agree and 44.11% agree with the statement, while 5.88% did not comment. The high percentage of positive evaluations suggests that the teacher was well-prepared and passionate about the subject, which helped to stimulate the students' interest in the course. This high percentage of positive evaluation reflects the extent of the teacher's preparation and passion for the subject.

3) The teacher's energy and enthusiasm was highly valued by all participants in the next questionnaire item. According to Fried (2001), students are more likely to be motivated when they have a passionate teacher who is curious about updating their knowledge and eager to explore new ideas related to the practical world. This phenomenon of emotional contagion can have a positive impact on students' achievement (Serin, 2017). Student-centred approach emphasises the importance of creating a positive learning environment in the classroom to achieve the objectives of producing knowledge rather than simply transferring it (Freire, 1998). Motivation is an internal drive that encourages someone to pursue a course of action (Harmer, 1991); therefore, teachers should strive to awaken students' curiosity and motivation by asking questions that generate controversy and stir debate. A skilled teacher can tap into this powerful motivational engine to help students enjoy learning new things. In addition, the teacher involvement is necessary with regard to enhancing the intrinsic motivation of the student through the use of positive reinforcement. This type of reinforcement is a powerful motivational strategy. Turney (1983) described positive reinforcement as a person's positive response to another person's behaviour that increases the likelihood of that behaviour occurring again. This suggests that the teacher is increasing the students' self-esteem and confidence in their ability to learn. Examples of positive reinforcement in the ESP classroom can take the form of: praise, a smile, a nod, extra marks, or special merits.

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4) Regarding the encouragement of interaction in the classroom, Table 4.5 shows that 58.82% of the students strongly agreed that their ESP teacher frequently uses methods of discussion and Q&As. Additionally, 41.17% of the informants agreed with the statement, while 9.52% did not comment. All participants exert a mutual influence on each other during the learning process. Alexander (2000) defined classroom interaction as a complete sequence consisting of initiation, response, and feedback. Classroom participation is crucial for improving students' communication with both the teacher and their peers. According to Turner and Patrick (2004), it allows teachers to identify learning challenges or assess student progress, while also providing opportunities to provide cognitive and affective support to students to enhance their understanding. In this view, the most significant part of language learning occurs when language learners engage in meaningful communication in a second language and negotiate meaning while producing language.

5) Given the increased demands, it is essential that law students are willing to devote time to completing assignments and studying. The purpose of the statement was to gain a better understanding of attitudes towards assignments and assessment.

Table 4.5 demonstrates that the majority of participants agreed that the teacher gives appropriate assignments. However, five students disagreed with this statement, and two students did not respond. The ELP teacher used a variety of tasks to assess students' language use. In-class and take-home assignments were designed to assess students' content knowledge at the end of each unit and to allow them to practise the necessary skills. This approach was based on the idea that each course has its own specific content knowledge to measure the real outcomes of the teaching materials used in the course. Similarly, as noted by Dudley-Evans and St John (1998), "every item type used in a test should also be used in teaching, although they would be handled differently" (p. 225). Consequently, the content of the tests corresponds to what is taught in order to assess students' ability to apply what they have learnt in real-life situations.

6) 44.11% of the students strongly agreed and 41.17% agreed that the teacher manages class time effectively. Nonetheless, three students (8.82%) disagreed with the statement, and two students (5.88%) made no comment. This suggests that the majority of informants (85.28%) believe that the teacher is able to reach desired goals and objectives despite the limited time allocated to the ELP course.

Chapter Four

The relationship between school time and learning is one of the concerns raised by educational research. Studies show that teachers face challenges related to scheduling, setting goals, prioritising tasks, managing paperwork, etc. Allocating more time can improve learning outcomes as long as teachers understand students' rhythms, previous knowledge, motivations, and use active teaching methodologies in the classroom (Karampelas, 2005).

Effective time management involves advanced planning, organisation, and execution to complete assignments within the required time frame. Sharma and Chandra (2003) suggested that "while preparing a lesson plan, the teacher should have time sense. He should know how much time it will take to present the lesson" (p. 510). This explains the importance of lesson plans in structuring the courses according to the time allotted and respecting the sequence of the content. Time management is an important classroom management tool for productivity and achievement.

Evaluating the ELP Course

In this part of the evaluation, students were requested to express their agreement with statements about the course objectives, classroom activities, the effectiveness of the course content and the course material. The results of this section will help the decision makers to determine whether the course objectives are consisted with the syllabus topics and whether classroom activities are well designed and promote a positive classroom atmosphere. The following table displays the opinions of the law students on the ELP course.

Statements	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree	No comment
1) The course objectives match the themes of the syllabus.	0% (0)	0% (0)	73.52% (25)	20.58% (7)	5.88% (2)
2) The course content is well-prepared and can effectively train students' critical thinking, presentation, and Q&A skills.	0% (0)	0% (0)	70.58% (24)	23.52% (8)	5.88% (2)

3) The course material is level-appropriate and value students' affective learning.	0% (0)	5.88% (2)	61.76% (21)	20.58% (7)	11.76% (4)
4) In-class activities are well-designed and promote positive classroom atmosphere.	0% (0)	5.88% (2)	50% (17)	38.23% (13)	5.88% (2)

Table 4.6 Students' Evaluation of the Course

1) According to the data in Table 4.6, it appears that the students are quite satisfied with the level of clarity provided by the course objectives. In fact, 94.1% of the students strongly agreed/agreed that the course objectives aligned with the syllabus themes. This indicates that these students have a clear idea of the objectives set by the teacher at the beginning of the course.

Clearly stated course objectives outline what the students are expected to learn. Setting clear course objectives can help students to answer key questions such as "What is the reason for learning this?" and "How will I learn it?" In essence, designing a course around specific objectives can help guide students' learning.

2) It is worth noting that the majority of the students (70.58%) agreed that the course content was effective in training critical thinking, presentation, and Q&As skills. This is probably due to the use of appropriate teaching materials that meet the learners' needs. In the field of ESP, the course content is conceptualised based on the students' areas of knowledge in the English class, i.e., the content is carefully selected to meet the academic needs of the students. Moreover, the content integrated into the English class is not only known by the students, but also interesting and relevant to them. Therefore, conducting NA is crucial in determining the appropriate content for each English course. As Hutchinson and Waters (1987) stated, course design is a process that involves interpreting the data obtained to make decisions that will ensure student learning. In the case of designing ESP teaching materials, course designers need to combine the specific and technical content of the subject (carrier content) with relevant linguistic content, and then create activities that will help students learn effectively.

3) In the context of ESP, teaching materials play a critical role. These materials must meet the needs of students and respond to their linguistic and cultural expectations by providing real-life experiences. Therefore, authentic materials are excellent resources for teaching the language in its true form, as they generate a high level of interest among students. It is the responsibility of ESP teachers to design and adapt these materials in the classroom to align with the course objectives.

In the case of the course being evaluated, 82.34% of the students found the course materials satisfactory, with only 5.88% disagreeing that they were appropriate for their level and for promoting affective learning, and 11.76% of the students were neutral in their comments. Evidently, the use of these materials can give students a sense of achievement and increase their motivation to learn the language. It is important to reflect on the use of authentic materials in the ESP classroom, as they can have the opposite effect and demotivate students if they contain cultural aspects that are difficult to understand (Peacock, 1997; Freeman & Holden, 1986; Morrison, 1989).

4) The vast majority of students (88.23%) stated that their classroom activities were interesting and promoted a positive atmosphere in the classroom, except for four students (11.76%) who were less motivated to carry out these activities, and four students had no comment about it.

In teaching ESP, it is commonly believed that creating tasks and activities that reflect the students' area of specialisation is crucial. This involves teaching registers, genres, and vocabulary in a context rather than in isolation. In this course, the teacher selected a number of activities to support the integration of various skills that resonate with real-world situations. Through these activities, students were able to immerse themselves in the language and develop all language skills while discussing topics related to their area of studies.

Students' evaluation of their progress in language skills

In this section of the questionnaire, we present the third dimension of evaluation, which focuses on students' perceptions of their progress in the language skills. The results are a valuable tool to help students assess their own performance. Specifically, the analysis deals with the students' assessment of their skills and abilities in reading, writing, speaking, and listening during class activities.

The Statement	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree	No comment
1) Overall, my English listening skill has improved from taking the course this semester.	0% (0)	0% (0)	50% (17)	41.17% (14)	8.82% (3)
2) Overall, my English speaking skill has improved from taking the course this semester.	0% (0)	0% (0)	55.88% (19)	38.23% (13)	5.88% (2)
3) Overall, my English reading skill has improved from taking the course this semester.	0% (0)	0% (0)	52.94% (18)	47.05% (16)	0% (0)
4) Overall, my English writing skill has improved from taking the course this semester.	0% (0)	0% (0)	58.82% (20)	35.29% (12)	5.88% (2)

Table 4.7 Students' Perception of their progress in Language Skills

At a first glance, we can see that the course was effective for law students' reading skills, and 94.11% of them reporting improvement in their writing skills throughout the semester. Table 4.7 also illustrates that a large percentage of students (94.11%) reported an improvement in their English speaking skills, while 91.17% were content with their progress in listening.

After going through the self-evaluation results of language learning progress by law students, it is clear that a vast majority of the students rated their skills positively, although some of them were passive learners who focused solely on passing the exam without any interest in language proficiency.

Students' self-assessment is a practical tool that can encourage students' autonomy and independent learning skills. By evaluating their own performance, reflecting on their learning, and devising strategies for further development, students can become more effective learners.

4.6.7   Learner Assessment

Learner assessment helps language teachers to gauge the proficiency level of the students and to identify their areas of strength and weakness. More importantly, language testing can serve as reference to improve syllabus, teaching methods and learning objectives. Different English language tests are used to examine learners' performance, such as diagnostic test, placement test, proficiency test and the achievement test.

As far as the study is concerned, two forms of achievement test were used - an oral presentation and a written test as the final examination in order to assess students' grasp of knowledge directly related to classroom lessons and to assess their learning progress at the end of the course. According to Brindley (2001) an achievement test should focus on learners' progress rather than weakness, as it is used to assess the extent to which students have achieved the instructional objectives.

In the ELP course, achievement is measured by the scores obtained at the end of the semester exam, which is a summative test based on the teaching syllabus and designed to examine the students' command of knowledge. The final achievement test of the current ELP course comprised four sections: vocabulary, grammar, writing, and reading comprehension.

Results

The Oral Presentation

Students were asked to give an oral presentation in front of their peers and the teacher. The assessment of this presentation was based on some aspects, namely content, organisation, language, and delivery.

Content

The majority of students were unable to produce an introduction that was engaging, presents the problem, and sets the framework for the rest of the presentation. In addition, the presentations lacked accurate information and relevant material to the overall message and purpose. Students also failed to demonstrate the ability to integrate a clear conclusion that summarises the presentation.

Organisation

Most students did not follow an appropriate sequence during their presentation, and they struggled to use connectives and discourse markers, which was counterproductive as the audience had difficulty capturing the intended message and they could not focus on the main points of the presentation.

Language

The majority of the students during their presentations struggled to speak entirely in English due to their limited command of the language and carelessness. Based on the observations, most of the students fell into the moderate to weak range. Their main issue was a lack of knowledge of grammar and vocabulary specific to the subject they were discussing. Besides, law students need to improve their pronunciation when communicating in English, as they did not enunciate and articulate the words during the presentations, which affected the listener's understanding.

Delivery

In terms delivery skills, the students were nervous during their presentations, and this negatively affected their performance. Most of them were unfamiliar with giving oral presentations in a foreign language as they were rarely encouraged to do so in the classroom. Few students were able to articulate their words clearly.

It is noteworthy that the vast majority of students did not accompany their presentations with visual aids to make their presentations more dynamic and clear for the audience. They could not also leave a strong impression on the audience due to a lack of verbal and non-verbal communication skills.

The Final Examination

The results of the final examination, which was held at the end of the semester, demonstrated that most of the students obtained fair or good score. This can be seen in the table below:

Students	Score	Category
11.90% (5)	17-20	Very Good
42.85% (18)	13-16	Good
38.09%	10-12	Fair

(16)		
7.14% (3)	6-9	Poor
0% (0)	1-5	Very Poor

Table 4.8 Students' Exam Grades

Looking at table 4.8, it can be seen that 11.90% of the students are in the very good category, 42.85% of the students fall in the good category, 38.09% of the students are in the fair category, and 7.14% of the students are in the poor category. Also no student is classified in the very poor category.
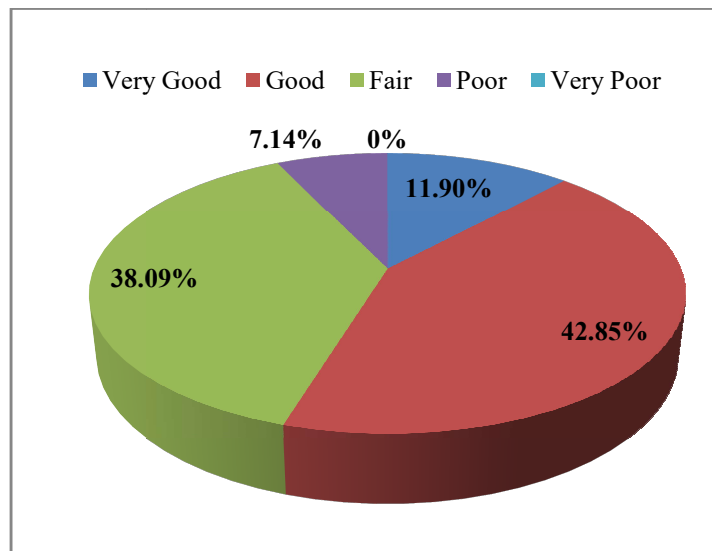
Figure 4.5 Achievement Test Grade Percentages

The scores obtained from the final examination were satisfactory, reflecting the remarkable progress made by the law students in achieving all the learning objectives for the semester.

This written exam was part of the achievement test held at the end of the semester. Its purpose was to measure and monitor the development of the students' English language proficiency as a summative assessment. The integration of these standards into ESP instruction guarantees that students receive a high-quality programme that enables them to develop the skills necessary for academic success.

Regarding the formative assessment, several alternative types of assessment were implemented, including observation, peer assessment, and summaries. These alternative methods of assessment allowed the teacher to get a comprehensive picture of the students' language performance as the ultimate aim was to provide opportunities for students to track their progress and reflect on their own learning process.

4.6.8 Discussion

Considering the ESP materials development, the evaluation of the ESP course and the students' progress is a valuable procedure for teachers to improve their teaching practices. Additionally, course evaluation can provide constructive feedback to educational institutions and help them to make curriculum changes, record events, measure cost-effectiveness, identify intended and unintended outcomes, and clarify objectives (Momeni & Rasekh, 2012).

The results of the course evaluation checklist revealed that the teacher's enthusiasm and preparation for the subject-matter content had a positive impact on the students' motivation and engagement. The teacher created a positive learning atmosphere in the classroom to enhance the intrinsic motivation of the students through positive reinforcement. In addition, the teacher gave various assignments that were appropriate to the students' level and aligned with the course content. Despite the challenge of limited time, the ESP teacher managed the class time effectively, which was recognised by the majority of the students.

Concerning the evaluation of the ELP course, most students expressed satisfaction with the clarity of the course objectives and the effectiveness of the content and materials in training their critical thinking for presentation and Q&As skills. The data also revealed considerable improvement in language skills among law students, although some students were reluctant due to limited English proficiency. Furthermore, the results of the achievement test (oral presentation and final exam) indicated progress in the four skills, despite the insufficient time of the English course.

To sum up, course evaluation should not be seen as a one-off event, but rather as a continuous learning process. Evaluation methods such as administering tests and collecting student feedback should be ongoing and informative. Careful consideration of feedback and evaluation is crucial, as the future and quality of ESP teaching depends on it.

4.7 Recommendations for Future Pedagogical Endeavours

Chapter Four

This research aimed to contribute substantively to the understanding of English language needs of Master's degree students in law, an area that has not been extensively explored in Algeria. The main objective of the needs analysis was to redefine the course objectives, develop a course teaching approach, select appropriate materials, and modify the assessment procedures in order to achieve the desired learning outcomes. Decision makers are urged to implement well-designed ESP syllabi that are supported by clear policies and expectations.

The research findings have led to several suggestions and recommendations for improving pedagogical practices in ESP, outlined as follows:

Dynamic Practical Syllabus

Designing an ESP course is a matter of understanding the educational needs of a particular group of learners and the duration of the course. Clear communication of the course objectives to the learners is important for them to track their progress. As a result, learners will have a better understanding of the intended outcomes of the course and will play an active role in their learning journey.

After conducting a needs analysis, the course designer has to define the goals and objectives of the course. This helps the teacher to focus on the priorities of the course content and language skills that need to be emphasised.

Before developing the course plan, Fink (2013) recommended reflecting on the specific context of the teaching-learning situation that the teacher will encounter, including the number of students, the duration of the course, the mode of delivery in a section called Situational Factors, which consists of the learning expectations in relation to the curriculum's goals and societal demands, and the nature of the subject (content area, instructional approaches, application of skills and cognitive complexity). Similarly, the author considers the characteristics of the learners, their previous knowledge, experiences, attitudes, expectations, and preferred learning styles.

Teachers also need to reflect on their teaching experience, their attitude towards the subject matter and the art of teaching. It may also include challenges in course design and delivery. The analysis of situational factors was an important recommendation that was incorporated in the course design and teacher training.

Interactive Activities

The current study unveiled that the ESP course offered at the Department of Law included a limited activities that focuses on the communicative approach to encourage learning autonomy. It is worth noting that the communicative approach is a student-centred teaching method that places more emphasis on students' communication needs when designing the syllabus. The activities in this approach promote active participation of learners and cooperative learning in the target language. In this sense, the purpose of this approach is to increase interaction and interest in learning the language. The activities provide opportunities for the development of personal relationships between students and create a supportive environment for learning. Students take part in activities that revolve around cooperation, rather than individualism, in order to learn. They are comfortable listening to their peers, working in pairs or groups, rather than listening to the teacher spoon-feeding them the answer. Activities that promote communicative situations in ELP classes are:

- Case studies

The case method is the most suitable teaching method for legal English courses because it gives teachers the opportunity to introduce the real problems of the legal profession into the classroom. The primary aim of using the case study method in ELP courses is not only to present legal ideas or principles that are generally accepted in the legal community, but also to enable learners to develop their English communicative skills and improve their comprehension of legal English.

- Simulation

The simulation scenario is essentially the same as the moot court used in legal education. The difference is that simulation scenario involves a wider range of scenarios, including contract negotiation, legal consultation, court debate, etc.

In ELP, this teaching activity encourages students to actively explore and simulate real-life situations in order to practice their communicative skills in legal English. However, it is an activity that requires a good command of the language as participants take on the role of characters and attempt to solve problems through discussion. Therefore, it is suitable for later stages of the ELP course to give students sufficient time to prepare.

- Classroom debates

Classroom debates are an effective way of encouraging organised discussion among students. They provide a useful opportunity for students to develop their argumentation skills. To ensure engagement, the topics chosen for debate should be interesting and relevant to the students.

Moderators are appointed to guide and direct the discussion, and this role should be rotated among students to develop their leadership abilities. Additionally, the discussions should take place in a safe and respectful manner so that students can express their opinions freely without fear of shame or criticism.

ICT in Teaching ELP

The fast growth of Information and Communication Technology (ICT) has created countless opportunities for teaching and learning. In English for Specific Purposes, ICT can be used to expose students to the target language by using authentic materials to make the lessons more relevant and engaging (Felix, 2011). ICT is rapidly evolving with various sophisticated devices that are easily available to researchers, teachers, and students. However, teachers need to be aware of controversial issues in integrating technology into teaching and learning programmes, such as technical difficulties, lack of familiarity with new technologies, age, time constraints, and other concerns (Felix, 2004). The use of technological tools and ICT choices for L2 learning and teaching allows learners to acquire knowledge at any time or place, facilitating personalised learning and promoting communication between students and institutions (Wagner, 2005).

ESP Teacher Training

There is no shadow of doubt that being a good ESP teacher requires a broad range of skills and knowledge to navigate professional challenges in areas such as subject-matter content, discourse, genre, needs analysis, course design and materials development. However, ESP teacher training has received little attention because "most teachers serving as ESP teachers are language teachers who trained themselves to teach a specific ESP course" (Master, 1997, p.22). Therefore, Algerian policy makers need to prioritise pre-service and in-service training programmes to give ESP the recognition it deserves in Algeria. Hutchinson and Waters (1987) and Robinson (1991) agree on the need to include specific subjects in ESP teacher training programmes. These subjects are:

1. Needs analysis: a process of gathering information about the situations in which the language will be used, the objectives and purposes, the types of communication (written, spoken), and the required level of language proficiency.

2. Text/ discourse analysis: the study of the forms and functions of language in specific contexts of interaction.

3. Lexical analysis: ESP vocabulary is generally divided into three major groups according to the degree of semantic ambiguity. The first group contains technical terms that are used for specific fields (business, politics, tourism, medicine, etc.). The second group consists of semi-technical or sub-technical vocabulary for certain areas of knowledge. The third group is closer to the GE, where words have a higher semantic ambiguity and are used in a more general way in different language contexts (Robinson, 1991).

4. Applied linguistics: the study of the teaching and learning process of language related o real-life problems in various fields. It involves the application of linguistics theories to develop practical models of language use. This information is then used in areas such as syllabus design, language planning, speech therapy, etc.

Introducing English to Undergraduates

Learning a new language can be a complex and time-consuming process because it depends on the individual's capacity and the duration of their learning. Teachers need to move beyond basic repetition exercises and create opportunities for meaningful interaction in the classroom. This includes organising activities in which students use natural language examples pertinent to real-life situations.

Although the importance of ESP is recognised by the decision-makers and administrators, ESP teachers often struggle to find appropriate materials that meet their students' needs, given the limited amount of time allocated for their classes.

Regarding the general objective, a longer period of a language use as the medium of instruction has been linked to higher student performance in other academic subjects (Owu-Ewie, 2012). Therefore, decision-makers are urgently called to invest in establishing ESP projects by providing sufficient time for needs analysis, materials research, and materials development to improve academic performance.

Interdisciplinary exploration and teacher collaboration

Chapter Four

The integration of collaboration into ESP has been identified as a significant factor in designing an effective ESP course to provide language teachers with relevant resources for their students. Collaborative teaching initially emerged as "a process by which stakeholders can come together for a common purpose to exchange information, listen to one another's experiences and perspectives, and work together toward a common goal" (Mazur & Doran, 2010, p.146). Many educational researchers and practitioners stress the importance of the ESP teacher working with the content teachers to learn more about the discipline and to adopt a methodology that is aligned with the objectives of the curriculum. Ultimately, this will enable ESP teachers to make the course much beneficial and practical to the students since the content of other subjects will be covered in the English class. The topics that are included in the programmes are generally of interest to the students and they are more relevant to their instrumental motivation. However, in the Algerian context, there has been limited research on the process of co-planning and co-teaching to support the development of collaboration between language teachers and subject specialist teachers. Furthermore, due to the isolation and disconnection that ESP teachers experience when selecting teaching materials, the materials used in class can often become repetitive and overwhelming for students.

English Language Testing

The researcher has observed that certain students do not seem to fit well into ELP classes. The actual level of these students is either below or above the target level, resulting in unequal opportunities within the classroom. As a result, feelings of boredom or frustration can be expected outcomes in such situations (Brown, 2004) as teachers tend to prioritise the needs of the majority of students.

In academic settings, practitioners are advised to use multiple methods of language testing in order to make decision regarding students' actual levels of English language proficiency. For example, Diagnostic tests are designed to assess an individual's language skills, specifically to diagnose their current level of proficiency. Unlike achievement and proficiency tests, diagnostic tests are usually administered at the beginning of a language learning course or programme. These diagnostic test results are valuable to teachers as they can be used to create lesson plans that address the identified gaps in the student's knowledge and skills. Similarly, students can use diagnostic tests to identify the specific areas on which they should concentrate in order to improve their skills and achieve a higher level of proficiency. In addition, a placement test helps to place students in the most appropriate

English classes for their level. This ensures that students do not waste time learning material that is too easy or too difficult for them. It also helps teachers prepare lessons that are tailored to the specific needs of their students (Brown, 2004).

Unfortunately, many English teachers lack sufficient training in assessment and evaluation. This lack of training can prevent them from using different types of evaluation, in a way that measure their students' progress and achievements throughout all stages of the learning process.

4.8 Limitations of the study

Although the findings of the study support the hypotheses of the research, it is important to acknowledge the limitations and constraints encountered throughout the study. Firstly, the number of language teachers in the Department of Law at the University of Oran 2 and neighbouring universities who were unfamiliar with ESP theories and interdisciplinary collaboration posed a challenge. The researcher found it difficult to explain basic concepts during the interviews. Secondly, most online resources for the development of ELP teaching materials were either inaccessible or unavailable. Thirdly, time constraints were a major limitation of the study, as a longer period of observation would provide more reliable results for this type of research. Finally, ESP classes do not require a placement test, and most diagnostic tests are designed to assess reading and writing skills only. Moreover, grouping students with different levels of English, socio-economic backgrounds and ages can cause a number of problems; proficient students may feel unchallenged and disengaged, while weaker students may struggle to keep up with the syllabus and feel overwhelmed. In addition, mixing students of different ability levels can lead to unequal learning opportunities. As a result, students at higher or lower levels may not receive attention and support from the teacher.

Ultimately, it also important to acknowledge that the research was limited to University of Oran 2, which may not fully represent the diverse ELP teaching contexts across the country. Therefore, further research is needed to explore the variations in ELP pedagogy and challenges faced in different regions.

4.9 Conclusion

This chapter suggested a framework for designing an ELP course that is based on the specific context and needs of the students. The ELP course for law students incorporates authentic materials and visual aids to develop their skills. The course structure was tailored to reflect real-life language use, and students are exposed to various legal issues that may pose difficulties in their legal studies. In addition, several communication-related activities with their respective jargons have been included.

The aim of this chapter was to observe and describe students' performance during testing by investigating the relationship between formative assessment and summative assessment. Throughout the study, it became evident that assessment is essential to the learning process because students can only achieve learning outcomes if they have identified them as learning objectives and monitor their progress towards achieving them. Furthermore, this study involved a group of second-year Master of law students in the course evaluation process. During the entire procedure, it was observed that the majority of students demonstrated high level of motivation to set learning goals, evaluate their progress, reflect on their learning, and develop strategies to further their learning. Additionally, student feedback was found to be a reliable source of information. Finally, the suggested recommendations will support the findings and conclusions of this study, which aim to improve ESP practices.

GENERAL CONCLUSION

General Conclusion

Although Algerian universities have incorporated ESP courses to assist students with their academic and professional English language needs, the study conducted indicates that teaching English language skills in the Department of Law at the University of Oran 2 is still a challenging task. This is due to various factors such as time constraints, inadequate classroom management, students' insufficient English proficiency, unfamiliarity with legalese, students' lack of motivation, insufficient administrative support, and a sense of isolation felt by ELP practitioners due to insufficient training and resources.

There is a significant gap between theory and practice, resulting in a mismatch between the intended outcome and the necessary steps to accomplish it. Language teachers expressed their reluctance to improve their educational conditions, which is a critical issue that necessitates intervention of policy makers and stakeholders to provide proper training and support. The lack of clear curriculum guidelines and appropriate materials makes it difficult to design an effective syllabus. Teachers often struggle with the lack of appropriate teaching materials and the need to adapt existing resources. This is further complicated by the lack of authentic and reference materials.

Furthermore, it was found that the Faculty of Law and Political Science lacks the implementation of needs assessment among ESP practitioners. The participants in the study, who were law students, expressed a desire to study subjects that were relevant to their present and future needs. Therefore, it is imperative that ESP practitioners conduct a thorough needs analysis to offer course materials that cater to the students' learning requirements. In addition, administering a range of language proficiency tests at the start of the course can help to determine the students' level of knowledge and skills and measure their progress.

ESP is more learner-centred and prioritises students' interests, abilities, and preferred learning styles by positioning the teacher as a facilitator of the learning experience rather than a transmitter of knowledge. The curriculum emphasises not only language skills but also on study skills, including active listening, reading comprehension, note-taking, time management, test-taking, and memorisation. The proposed course adopts a student-centred approach to teaching English as the cornerstone of successful learning.

In order to develop appropriate materials, needs analysis was conducted, taking into account the curriculum objectives, content adequacy, ease of use, interactive activities, and students' level, among other factors.

The optimal approach to using authentic materials is through a communicative and task-based method. This involves using these materials with specific objectives that encourage interaction, meaningful tasks, practice of the four language skills, and the development of intercultural competence, which teaches students about different cultures and perspectives in order to overcome cultural barriers. Besides, students are taught how language is integrated into their subject area by emphasising language in context rather than teaching vocabulary and grammar in isolation. In essence, learning legal terminology in context helps students make connections and understand the practical application of English in real-life situations.

The three hypotheses of the study were supported by the results obtained through a combination of quantitative and qualitative research tools, including questionnaires administered to students and subject specialist teachers, interviews with language teachers, focus groups with students, and document analysis. The findings revealed the following answers to the research questions:

- Although reading is the most important skill at the study level (reading handouts, taking notes, and understanding exam questions), the majority of the students expressed the need to master speaking and listening for their academic and professional success because there is no actual practice of these skills due to limited time.

- The researcher placed significant emphasis on the relevance and objectives of the ELP course content. On that account, developing teaching materials based on learners' needs was considered a top priority.

- The research demonstrated that meaningful input from students is essential for improving higher education teaching and learning. Students' feedback provides valuable information to make adjustments to the course, while course evaluation surveys cover various aspects of the course, such as the relevance of the teaching materials, teacher performance, self-assessment, etc. Furthermore, students' testing results reflect the effectiveness of the course by linking student performance to specific learning objectives.

In light of these findings, the study suggests that the Department of Law should develop a comprehensive plan for teaching ELP that clearly outlines the vision, goals, and strategies for such project. The plan should include a needs assessment to identify specific areas to cater to the diverse needs of law students. Additionally, follow-up measures should be put in place to provide ongoing support and evaluation to ensure the successful implementation of teaching and learning practices.

While this work can be a valuable contribution to the field of ESP in general, it does not fully address the teaching of ELP. Several areas remain unexplored due to a lack of resources and interdisciplinary collaboration. Moreover, English language teaching in the fields of humanities and social sciences has not received the same level of attention as in STEM majors. As a result, this research is still in its early stages and highlights the need for further exploration in order to find out possible solutions. This work serves as a preliminary investigation into ELP teaching at the University of Oran 2. Further research is needed to address the gaps identified in this study, to explore interdisciplinary perspectives, and to develop more effective ELP teaching strategies.

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Appendices

Appendix 1

Focus Group Questions

1. Introduce yourself.

2. To what extent is English important for your legal studies?

3. Do you think the ELP course meets your language needs?

4. What do you think of your English language teacher?

5. What are the challenges you encounter while learning English for Legal Purposes (proficiency level, teaching methods, motivation, teaching materials, and legal terminology)?

6. In your opinion, do the current assessment methods practiced by your English language teacher indicate your progress and achievement?

7. How would you describe your learning environment?

Appendix 2

Language Teachers interview

II.   Knowledge of ESP

1. What degree do you have?

2. How long have you been teaching ESP? And in the Department of Law?

3. Have you ever attended an ESP teacher training?

4. Do you think that ESP teacher training is necessary in your current job? And what are the competencies needed to teach ESP?

5. How would you describe your teaching experience as an ELP teacher?

6. Is there any collaboration between you and subject teachers? Do you think this collaboration can improve students' learning?

III.   Students Needs and ESP Pedagogy

1. Do students contribute in the preparation of the course? If yes, which techniques do you employ?

2. Are you provided with any syllabus from the administration?

3. What rules, routines and practices do you implement to make your ESP classroom successful?

4. Do you use translation when teaching vocabulary?

5. Which skill do you tend to lay more emphasis on? (Reading, Writing, Listening, and Speaking)

6. How do you develop global competence and build cultural awareness through language learning in your classroom?

IV.   Challenges in Teaching ESP

1. What are the problems that you encounter in teaching English in the Department of law?

2. What is your classroom management plan?

3. Is it compulsory for students to attend English classes?

4. How do you deal with unmotivated students?

5. What type of assessments do you use in your classroom?

6. Have you faced problems in obtaining subject-related materials?

Appendix 3

Students Questionnaire

Dear students,

This questionnaire is a part of my doctoral thesis in Didactique de l'Anglais de Specialité (DAS) at University of Oran 2. It mainly deals with the teaching of English in faculty of Law at University of Oran 2. Your answers will help us to identify the language needs and difficulties experienced by Master's students in order to design a course that will improve the current teaching and learning practices. Your information will remain confidential and will only be used for research purposes.

Section One: General Information

1. **Sex**

Female □   Male □

2. *Age:………*
3. **Specialty:……………………………..**

Section Two: Students' Levels of English Proficiency

4. *Do you think that English is important for your academic studies?*

Yes □   No □   To some extent □

5. *Your Level of Englis:*

Low □   Intermediate □   High □

6. *Describe your proficiency level in language skills.*

Language skills	Very poor	Poor	Satisfactory	Good	Very good
Listening					

Speaking					
Reading					
Writing					

7. *Describe your difficulty level.*

Language skills	Very difficult	Quite difficult	Neither difficult nor easy	Fairly easy	Very easy
Listening					
Speaking					
Reading					
Writing					
Grammar					
Legal terminology					
Translation					

8. *You attribute this difficulty to:*

Little knowledge of the English language and the insufficient exposure to the target language □

The teaching method of the teacher and performance □

The material chosen along with the teaching methods of the teacher □

The chosen material □

9. *What language skill do you need to improve in your studies?*

Language areas	Very important	Quite important	Not very important	Not important at all
Listening				
Speaking				
Reading				
Writing				
Grammar				
Legal Terminology				
Translation				

10. What strategies do you use to find the meaning of new words?

a. I guess from the context □

b. I ask help from the teacher □

c. I use dictionary □

d. I analyse parts of speech □

11. *What is your preferable way(s) to learn the English language?*

I prefer bouncing off ideas of others (group discussions) and taking risks with the language □

Audio visual aids □

I enjoy reading and writing □

I like to concentrate on the details of language, such as grammatical rules □

I can remember more about a lesson through listening to the teacher' lectures □

12. Which genre of legal text do you prefer to read?

a. Laws, regulations, codes, contracts, treaties, and conventions □

b. Judicial decisions, actions, pleadings, briefs, appeals, requests, petitions □

c. Legal opinions, law textbooks and articles □

13. Do you think students should receive homework?

Yes □   No □   Only when evaluated □

Section Three: Students' attitudes towards the ELP Course

14. Does the content of the English course meet your learning needs?

Completely □   Partly □   Not at all □

15. What are the most emphasised skills in the English course?

Language skills	Always	often	Sometimes	Rarely	Never
Listening					
Speaking					
Reading					
Writing					
Grammar					
Translation					

16. What are your expectations from the English course?

To pass the exam □

To be able to read books, dissertations, legal reports and services, etc. □

To understand teacher's instructions/lectures and taking notes □

To be able to express ideas correctly and use English when I travel abroad □

To be able to work in collaboration with foreigners and build a cultural competence □

I have no expectations □

17. Thank you very much for your cooperation. What suggestions do you have for the improvement of the English course in order to make it more effective and relevant to your needs?

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Translated Students Questionnaire

إستبيان الطلبة

أعزائي الطلبة،

هذا الاستبيان هو جزء من أطروحة الدكتوراه ويتعامل بشكل أساسي مع تدريس اللغة ستساعدنا إجاباتك على تحديد الاحتياجات الإنجليزية في كلية الحقوق بجامعة وهران 2. اللغوية والصعوبات التي يواجهها طلاب الماستر من أجل تصميم منهج دراسي يحسن التدريس والتعلم. سيتم التعامل مع معلوماتك بسرية تامة ولن تستخدم إلا لأغراض البحث.

القسم الأول: معلومات عامة

1. الجنس:

ذكر☐   أنثى☐

2. العمر : ....

3. تخصصك: ....

القسم الثاني: مستويات إتقان اللغة الإنجليزية لدى طلبة الحقوق

4. مستواك الحالي في اللغة الإنجليزية؟

جيد ☐   متوسط ☐ منخفض ☐

5. كيف تقيم أدائك الحالي في اللغة الإنجليزية فيما يتعلق بالمهارات أدناه؟

جيد جدا	جيد	مقبول	ضعيف	ضعيف جدا	المهارات اللغوية
					الاستماع
					الكلام
					القراءة

					الكتابة

6. هل تعتقد أن اللغة الإنجليزية مهمة لدراستك الأكاديمية؟

نعم ☐   إلى حد ما ☐   لا ☐

7. صِف مستوى الصعوبة لديك.

سهل جدا	سهل إلى حد ما	ليس صعبًا ولا سهلًا	صعب بعض الشيء	صعب جدا	المهارات اللغوية
					الاستماع
					الكلام
					القراءة
					الكتابة
					قواعد اللغة
					المصطلحات القانونية
					الترجمة

8. ترجع هذه الصعوبة إلى

قلة المعرفة باللغة الإنجليزية وعدم كفاية التعرض للغة ☐

طرق تدريس الأستاذ وأداءه☐

المادة المختارة☐

المادة المختارة و طرق التدريس الخاصة بالأستاذ☐

القسم الثالث: مواقف طلبة الحقوق من دورة تعلم اللغة الإنجليزية

9. هل يلبي محتوى دورة اللغة الإنجليزية احتياجاتك التعليمية؟

نعم ☐   إلى حد ما ☐   لا ☐

10. ما هي أكثر المهارات التي يتم التأكيد عليها في دورة اللغة الإنجليزية؟

أبداً	نادرًا	بعض الأحيان	غالباً	دائماً	المهارات اللغوية
					الاستماع
					الكلام
					القراءة
					الكتابة
					قواعد اللغة
					الترجمة

11. ما هي المهارة اللغوية التي تحتاجها لتحسين دراستك؟

ليس مهما على الإطلاق	ليس مهما	مهم نوعا ما	مهم جدا	مجالات اللغة
				الاستماع
				الكلام
				القراءة
				الكتابة
				قواعد اللغة
				المصطلحات القانونية

				الترجمة

12. ما هي طريقتك (طرقك) المفضلة لتعلم اللغة الإنجليزية؟

أُفضِّل المناقشات الجماعية باللغة☐

الوسائل السمعية والبصرية☐

أنا أستمتع بالقراءة والكتابة☐

أحب التركيز على تفاصيل اللغة ، مثل القواعد النحوية☐

أستطيع أن أتذكر المزيد عن الدرس من خلال الاستماع إلى محاضرات الأستاذ☐

13. ما هي الاستراتيجيات التي تستخدمها للعثور على معنى الكلمات الجديدة؟

أخمن من السياق☐

أطلب المساعدة من الأستاذ☐

أستخدم القاموس☐

أقوم بتحليل أجزاء من الكلام☐

14. ما نوع النص القانوني الذي تفضل قراءته؟

القوانين والعقود والمعاهدات والاتفاقيات ☐

القرارات القضائية ، الدعاوى، المذكرات، الاستئنافات ☐

الفتاوى القانونية،الكتب المدرسية والمقالات ☐

15. هل تعتقد أن الطلاب يجب أن يتلقوا واجبات مدرسية؟

عند التقييم فقط ☐   لا ☐   نعم ☐

16. ما هي توقعاتك من دورة اللغة الإنجليزية؟

اجتياز الامتحان☐

أن أكون قادرًا على قراءة الكتب والأطروحات والتقاريرالقانونية ☐

لفهم تعليمات / محاضرات الأستاذ وتدوين الملاحظات☐

أن أكون قادرًا على التعبير عن الأفكار بشكل صحيح واستخدام اللغة الإنجليزية عندما أسافر إلى الخارج☐

لأكون قادرًا على العمل بالتعاون مع الأجانب وبناء الكفاءة الثقافية☐

ليس لدي توقعات☐

17. ما هي الاقتراحات التي تود تقديمها لتحسين دورة اللغة الإنجليزية لجعلها أكثر فاعلية وملائمة لاحتياجاتك؟

....
....
....
....
....

Appendix 5

The Subject Specialist Teachers Questionnaire

Dear teachers,

This questionnaire is part of a doctoral thesis in Didactique de l'Anglais de Specialité (DAS) at University of Oran 2. It mainly deals mainly with the teaching of English in the Department of Law at the University of Oran 2. Your answers will help us to identify the language needs and difficulties experienced by Master's students in order to design a course that will improve the current teaching and learning practices. Your information will remain confidential and will only be used for research purposes.

Section One: General Information

1. **What is your status in the Faculty? What are your credentials?**

………………………………………………………………………………………………

2. **How long have you been teaching?**

………………………………………………………………………………………………

3. **What are the subjects you are teaching?**

………………………………………………………………………………………………………
………………………………………………………………………………………………

Section Two: Subject Specialist Teachers' levels of English Proficiency

4. **What is your level of English?**

Beginner □   Intermediate □   Advanced □

5. **Describe your proficiency level.**

Language skills	Very poor	Poor	Satisfactory	Good	Very good

Listening					
Speaking					
Reading					
Writing					

6. Are you currently taking an English course? If so, what type of English course are you taking?..

7. Do you use English in your work? …………………..

8. How often do you practise the following tasks in English?

Tasks	Always	often	Sometimes	Rarely	Never
Writing e-mails and messaging					
Writing letters and CVs					
Writing academic articles for publications					
Reading law related articles					
Reading web pages and internet materials					
Reading books and dissertations					

Speaking in conferences and seminars					
Speaking to foreigners					
Phone calls and online chatting					
Listening to webinars					
Listening to TV and radio shows					
Listening to conferences and seminars					
Translating texts					

Section Three: Subject Specialist Teachers' Attitudes towards the ELP Course

9. Do you think that your students need to learn English?

d- Yes □

e- No □

f- I do not know □

10. When do you think the English language module should be introduced?

d- Under-graduate level (License) □

e- Graduate level (Master) □

f- Post-graduate level (Doctorate) □

11. In your opinion, what are the skills that students need to improve in English?

Language areas	Very important	Quite important	Not very important	Not important at all
Listening				
Speaking				
Reading				
Writing				
Grammar				
Legal Terminology				
Translation				

12. *Do you think that collaboration between an English language teacher and the subject specialist can improve students' learning?*

c- Yes □

d- No □

e- I do not know □

13. *Do you have any other suggestions for improvement?*

……………………………………………………………………………………………

……………………………………………………………………………………………

…..………………………………………………………………………………………

……………………………………………………………………………………………

Appendix 6

Translated Subject specialists Teachers Questionnaire

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إستبيان أساتذة الإختصاص

أعزائي الأساتذة،

هذا الاستبيان هو جزء من أطروحة الدكتوراه ويتعامل بشكل أساسي مع تدريس اللغة الإنجليزية في كلية الحقوق بجامعة وهران 2. ستساعدنا إجاباتك على تحديد الاحتياجات اللغوية والصعوبات التي يواجهها طلاب الماستر في اللغة الإنجليزية من أجل تصميم منهج دراسي يحسن ممارسات التدريس والتعلم. سيتم التعامل مع معلوماتك بسرية تامة ولن تستخدم إلا لأغراض البحث.

القسم الأول: معلومات عامة

1. ما هي درجتك الأكاديمية في الكلية؟ ما هي مؤهلاتك؟

....

2. منذ متى وأنت تدرس؟

....

3. ما هي المواد التي تدرسها؟

....
....
....

القسم الثاني: مستويات إتقان اللغة الإنجليزية لدى المعلمين المتخصصين

4. ما هو مستواك في اللغة الإنجليزية؟

☐ مبتدئ   متقدم ☐   متوسط ☐

5. صِف مستوى إتقانك

</div>

	جيد جدا	جيد	مقبول	ضعيف	ضعيف جدا	المهارات اللغوية
						الاستماع
						الكلام
						القراءة
						الكتابة

6.هل تدرس حاليًا دورة في اللغة الإنجليزية؟ إذا كان الأمر كذلك ، فما نوع دورة اللغة الإنجليزية التي تتعلمها؟

....

7. هل تستخدم اللغة الإنجليزية في عملك؟..........................

8. كم مرة تمارس المهام التالية باللغة الإنجليزية؟

أبداً	نادرًا	بعض الأحيان	غالباً	دائماً	المهارات اللغوية
					كتابة رسائل البريد الإلكتروني
					كتابة الرسائل والسير الذاتية
					كتابة المقالات الأكاديمية
					قراءة المقالات المتعلقة بالقانون
					قراءة صفحات على الإنترنت
					قراءة الكتب والمذكرات

					الجامعية
					التحدث في المؤتمرات والندوات
					التحدث إلى الأجانب
					المكالمات الهاتفية والدردشة عبر الإنترنت
					الاستماع إلى الندوات عبر الإنترنت
					الاستماع إلى البرامج التلفزيونية
					الاستماع إلى المؤتمرات والندوات
					ترجمة النصوص

القسم الثالث: مواقف أساتذة الاختصاص من دورة تعلم اللغة الإنجليزية

9. هل تعتقد أن طلابك بحاجة إلى تعلم اللغة الإنجليزية؟

لا □   لا أعرف □   نعم □

10. متى تعتقد أنه ينبغي تقديم دروس اللغة الإنجليزية؟

□ License   Master □   Doctorat □

11. في رأيك ، ما هي المهارات التي يحتاج الطلاب إلى تحسينها في اللغة الإنجليزية؟

ليس مهما على الإطلاق	ليس مهما	مهم نوعا ما	مهم جدا	مجالات اللغة
				الاستماع

				الكلام
				القراءة
				الكتابة
				قواعد اللغة
				المصطلحات القانونية
				الترجمة

12. هل تعتقد أن التعاون بين مدرس اللغة الإنجليزية وأخصائي المادة يمكن أن يحسن تعلم الطلاب؟

□ لا أعرف □ لا □ نعم

13. أي اقتراحات أخرى لتحسين دورة اللغة الإنجليزية؟

....

....

....

....

Teaching Materials and Students' Notes

Master2 Public Economic Law
Introduction to law

The distinction between the criminal and civil law does not depend on the nature of the wrongful act, because the same act may give rise to both civil and criminal **proceedings**. Consider the consequences of a typical motor accident. Julie is crossing the road at a **zebra crossing** when she is **struck** by a car driven by Gordon. An ambulance takes Julie to a local hospital where it is discovered that she has sustained a broken leg. **Meanwhile**, the police have arrived at the scene of the accident and they **breathalyse** Gordon. The result is positive and Gordon is **charged** with **a criminal offence** based on driving with **excess** alcohol. He appears before the local **magistrates'** court and is convicted. He is **disqualified** from driving for 18 months and fined £400. The fine is paid to the court: it does not go to compensate the victim of the criminal act. However, a criminal court now has a limited power to order an offender to pay compensation for any 'personal injury, loss or damage' caused to the victim of his offence (under s 130 of the Powers of Criminal Courts (Sentencing) Act 2000). Julie must **pursue** a separate civil action against Gordon to remedy the personal wrong she has suffered. She sues Gordon in the tort of negligence, seeking **damages** for the injuries she has sustained. The case is heard in the county court where Gordon is found liable. He is ordered to pay £6,000 in damages. Normally, the loser in a civil action pays the winner's costs. So Gordon is **ordered** to pay Julie's costs in bringing the action.

3. **Common law and equity**: Legal rules may also be classified according to whether they form part of the common law or equity. The distinction between these two systems of law is **rooted** in history and can only be understood properly by examining the origins of English law. English legal **development** can be traced back to 1066 when William of Normandy gained the crown of England by defeating King Harold at the Battle of Hastings. Before the arrival of the Normans in 1066 there really was no such thing as English law. The Anglo-Saxon legal system was based on the local community. Each area had its own courts in which local customs were applied. The Norman **Conquest** did not have an immediate effect on English law; indeed, William promised the English that they could keep their **customary laws**. The Normans were great administrators and they soon embarked on a process of **centralization**, which created the right climate for the evolution of a **uniform system** of law for the whole country.

The common law :

The Norman kings ruled with the help of the most important and powerful men in the land who formed a body known as the Curia Regis (King's Council). This **assembly** carried out a number of functions: it acted as a **primitive legislature**, performed administrative tasks and exercised certain **judicial** powers. The meetings of the Curia Regis came to be of two types: **occasional** assemblies attended by the barons and more frequent but smaller meetings of royal officials. These officials began to specialize in certain types of work and departments were formed. This trend eventually led to the development of courts to hear cases of a particular kind. The courts which had emerged by the end of the 13th century became known as the Courts of Common Law and they sat at Westminster. The first to appear was the Court of Exchequer. It dealt with **taxation** disputes but later extended its jurisdiction to other civil cases. The Court of Common **Pleas** was the next court to be established. It heard disputes of a civil nature between one citizen and another. The Court of King's **Bench**, the last court to appear, became the most important of the three courts because of its close association with the king. Its **jurisdiction** included civil and criminal cases and it developed a **supervisory** function over the activities of inferior courts

- Give the meaning of the underlined words into Arabic and French
- Translate the whole lecture into Arabic

Good Luck

Master2 Public Economic Law

Introduction to law

The law **affects** every aspect of our lives; it governs our conduct from the **cradle** to the **grave** and its influence even extends from before our birth to after our death.

We live in a society which has developed a complex body of rules to control the activities of its members. There are laws which govern **working conditions** (e.g. by laying down minimum standards of **health** and **safety**), laws which regulate **leisure pursuits** (e.g. by **banning** alcohol on **coaches** and trains travelling to football matches), and laws which control personal relationships (e.g. by **prohibiting** marriage between close relatives).

So, what is 'law' and how is it different from other kinds of rules? The law is a set of rules, **enforceable** by the **courts**, which regulate the government of the state and govern the relationship between the state and its citizens and between one citizen and another. As individuals we encounter many 'rules'. The rules of a particular sport, such as **the off-side rule** in football, or the rules of a club, are designed to bring order to a particular activity. Other kinds of rules may really be **social conventions**, such as not **speaking ill** of the dead. In this case, the 'rule' is merely a **reflection** of what a community regards to be **appropriate** behaviour.

Classification of law: There are various ways in which the law may be classified; the most important are as follows:

1 Public and private law. The distinction between public and private law;

(a) Public law. Public law is concerned with the relation-ship between the state and its citizens. This comprises several specialist areas such as:

a.1. **Constitutional law**. It is concerned with the workings of the British **constitution**. It covers such matters as the position of the Crown, the composition and **procedures** of **Parliament**, the functioning of central and local government, **citizenship** and the civil liberties of individual citizens.

a.2. **Administrative law**. There has been a dramatic increase in the activities of government during the last hundred years. **Schemes** have been introduced to help **ensure** a minimum **standard of living** for everybody. Administrative law, has developed to deal with **the complaints** of individuals against the **decisions** of the **administering agency**.

a.3. **Criminal law**. Certain kinds of wrongdoing pose such a serious threat to the good order of society that they are considered crimes against the whole community. The criminal law makes such anti-social behaviour an offence against the state and offenders are **liable** to **punishment**. The state accepts responsibility for the **detection**, **prosecution** and punishment of **offenders**.

(b) Private law. Private law is primarily concerned with the **rights** and **duties** of individuals towards each other. The state's **involvement** in this area of law is **confined** to providing a **civilised method** of **resolving** the **dispute** that has arisen. Thus, the legal process is begun by **the aggrieved citizen** and not by the state. Private law is also called civil law and is often contrasted with criminal law.

2 Criminal and civil law: Legal rules are generally divided into two categories: criminal and civil. It is important to understand the nature of the division because there are fundamental differences in the purpose, procedures and **terminology** of each **branch** of law.

A. Criminal law. The criminal law is concerned with forbidding certain forms of **wrongful conduct** and punishing those who engage in **the prohibited acts**. Criminal proceedings are normally brought in the name of the Crown and are called prosecutions. For example in Great Britain, in 1985, responsibility for the process of prosecution passed from the police to a newly created independent Crown Prosecution Service under the direction of the Director of Public Prosecutions (Prosecution of Offences Act 1985).

It should be noted that prosecutions may also be undertaken by bodies, such as the trading standards department of the local authority, and by private individuals, e.g. a **store detective** prosecuting a **shoplifter**. In criminal cases you have a prosecutor who prosecutes a **defendant** in the criminal courts. The consequences of being found **guilty** are so serious that the standard of proof is higher than in civil cases: **the allegations** of criminal conduct must be proved beyond a reasonable **doubt**. If the prosecution is successful, the defendant is found guilty (**convicted**) and may be punished by the courts. Punishments available to the court include **imprisonment**, **fines**, or **community orders** such as an **unpaid work requirement**. If the prosecution is unsuccessful, the defendant is found not guilty (**acquitted**).

B.* Civil law: The civil law deals with the private rights and **obligations** which arise between individuals. The purpose of the action is to **remedy** the wrong that has been suffered. Enforcement of the civil law is the responsibility of the individual who has been **wronged** the state's role is to provide the procedure and the court necessary to resolve the dispute. In civil proceeding a **claimant** sues a defendant in the civil courts. The claimant will be successful if he can prove his case on the balance of probabilities, i.e. the evidence weigh more in **favour** of the claimant than the defendant. I the claimant wins his action, the defendant is said to be liable and the court will order an **appropriate** remedy such as damages (**financial compensation**) or an **injunction** (an order to do or not do something). If the claimant is not successful, the defendant is found not liable. Many of the laws affecting the businessperson are part of the civil law, especially **contract**, **tort** and **property law**.

Activity one : Fill in the gaps by one of the words between brackets. (10pts)
(control -affects- governs- grave- after- conditions- close - prohibiting - safety –coaches)
  The law ....every aspect of our lives; it .... our conduct from the cradle to the
.... and its influence even extends from before our birth to .... our death.
We live in a society which has developed a complex body of rules to control the activities of
its members. There are laws which govern working ....(e.g. by laying down minimum
standards of health and...........), laws which regulate leisure pursuits (e.g. by banning
alcohol on ....and trains travelling to football matches), and laws which
.....................personal relationships (e.g. by ....marriage between ....relatives).

Activity two: translate the following words into Arabic. (10pts)
- Enforceable:
- The off-side rule:
- A reflection:
- Speaking ill:
- Social conventions:
- Appropriate behaviour:
- The complaints:
- The Punishment:
- The Schemes:
- To be Liable:
- Branch of law:
- The prohibited acts:
- To be Confined:
- Resolving the dispute:
- To Ensure a minimum standard of living:
- the aggrieved citizen:
- The detection, prosecution and punishment of offenders:
- An unpaid work requirement:
- The private rights and obligations:
- A store detective prosecuting a shoplifter:

Good Luck

④ civil Law = concerns:

Relationships between private persons (individuals)
→ Their rights and duties
deal with compensation
injunction ... etc
compensation = dédomagement
overlap = chevauchement.

⑤ Substantive law concerns:

Right / liabilities / and duties = قواعد العمل
procedural law
law is enforced.

The monarch (The queen of the U.K).

The monarch
wesminster
House of Lords
house of commons ⇒ elected
majority heritated ⇒ minority elected.
The seperate and have
different principles.

Bill = projet de loi (law project).
Statutory = F. statulaire ⇒ conformes aux
statuts → statutory (désigné par statuts).

5 reasons to pass a new law:
1. to update = amender / modifier / rectifier
rectifier l'encience loi.
2. Legislate for créer an nouveau act.
3. Ensure compliance with E.U = acquiescement
ou conformité élasticité avec l'union Europ
ave. (européenne).
4. consolidate laws = regrouper / réunir /
favoner / consolider sous les mêmes principes
ou loi.
5. codify rules = codifier les réglements.
قنن

2018 - 12 .13

Proucess = wrong doing.
personne = a wrongdoer.
Imsider dealing = insider trading.

Law are made in The UK as:
1) primary legislation.
2) secondary or delegated legislation.

update
legislate for new circumstances.
New act is ← ensure UK compliance with EU law.
pass - consolidate law.
codify rules.

- Act of parliament / Bill → capitilised in legal
- Statute → not legal usage.   usage.
- Statutory instruments → government ministers
- Bye-laws → local government / or public bodies.

Early development of a Bill:
green paper → public proposals.
white paper → government proposals.

pressure   professional   voluntary
groups.   bodies.   organisations

---

process.

Bribery or corruption = an illegal payment.
Abribe = (informally) backhander (Br.E)
/ = Kichback or sweetener.
corruption = sleaze (politics).

process	The person	The verbe	The noun
conterfeiting	counterfeiter	to counterfeit	counterfeiting
Forgery	forger	to forge	a forge
Faking	faker	to fake	a fake
Frauding	frauder	to fraud	Fraudery
Embezzlement	frauder	to embezzle	Fraudery
Fraude			
Racketeering	Rackteer	/	/
	Racketeer		

20 18- 12-23 16 35 09

251

passing an Act:

1st reading → read to the member of parliament (M.Ps)
2nd reading M.P.s debates the proposals.
3rd reading the Bill is represented.
Finally a bill must receive Royal Assent.

government bills   public bills
introduced government   introduced of M.Ps

2018 - 12 - 06   verbes:
1 - statuer = to rule; eg. le tribunal a statué que
qu'il y avait une faute. => The court ruled
that misconduct had taken.
2 - statuer sur = to rule on law, eg. la cour n'a
pas statué sur le fond. => The court pronounced
no judgement [gave no ruling] on the merites of
the case.

Statute = statut; eg. réglement, statute (article
d'association).
American English (By Laws) => eg. statute
réglements => rules and regulations.
Draft legislation = Franché = projet d'act
législatif.

Bill
Stat
statute —

1 - to
rectifier
2 - Lege
3 - Ensu
You conf
nne . (e i
4 - cons
fusioner
ou loi .
5 - cod

2018

Pr
Pi
I
4

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jeudi 2018 - 11 - 15
Legal systems.

① public law =
Ns concerns =
↓
State ie=
conflits between
individual and
government.
eg. tax authority

② private law =
concerns =
↓
Individual and corpora
corporations.
↓
Family   contract   property
law .   law .   law .
eg.
divorces

③ criminal law :
concerns:

forms of conducts → punishment + prosecutes
=> eg. murder . ↓

┌───┐
│   franche   │
│ Theft = vôl =   │
│ state prosecutes the offender =   │
│ la poursuite juridiciaire → franche   │
└───┘

---

④ c
con

Relati
private pe
=> Their
deal with
Injuretio
compensa
overlap

Lord

ma

Top image (notes)

jurisdiction

wales — Scotland → N.Ireland

westminster
s.m.p's (1999).
scottish member parlements.

2018. 11. 29

(The private law)   (The public Law)

| international public law | internal public Law |

constitutional

criminal

Administrative

Right margin (partially visible):
1) prima
2) seco

New act is
pass

- Act of
- Statut
- Statut
- Bye - la

Green
white

Bottom image (notes)
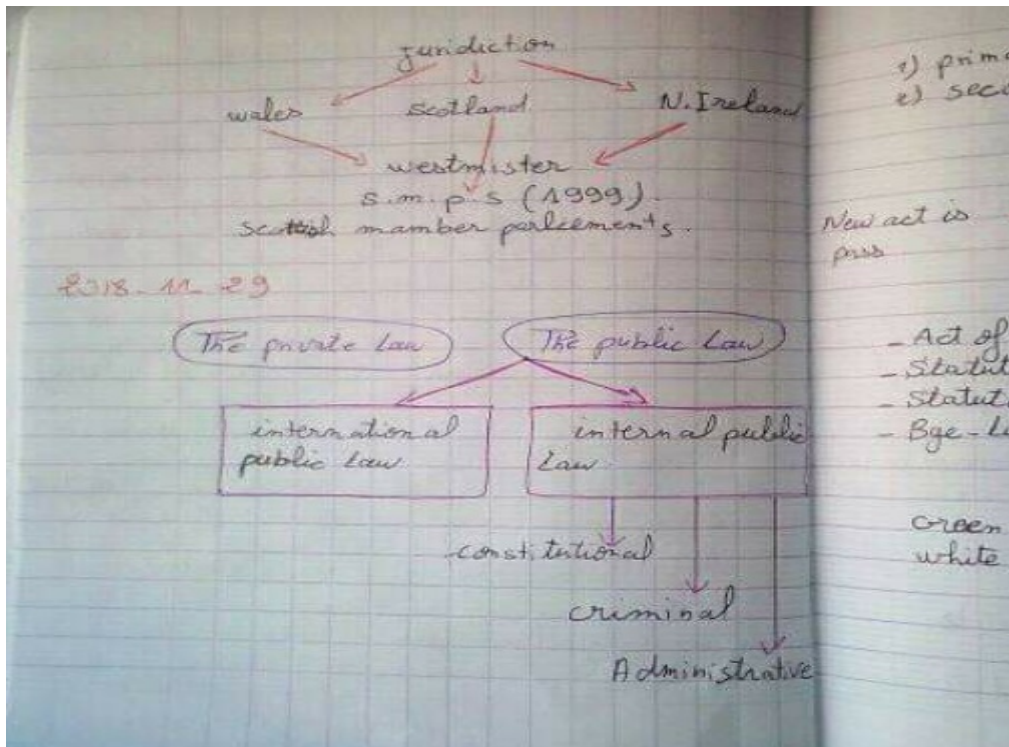
B - yes, I (do) it yesterday .
   did

A - did you (go) to Italy last month?
   go

B - No, I went (go) there in October.

Match These bodies of Law (1-3) with their definitions (a-c):

① civil law - ② common law - ③ criminal law

a) - Area of the law which deals with crimes and their punishments including fines or imprisonment. (also penal law) ⟹ 3 - criminal law.

b) - legal system developed from Roman codified law established by the state for its regulations : (area of law concerned with non criminal matters). ⟹ 1 - civil law

c) - legal system which is the foundation of the legal systems of most of the English - speaking

Right margin (partially visible):
Cau
⟹ 3
sp
f

jeudi 2018 - 11 - 08

English

English généralist   E. S. P.
- Grammatic .   E.A.P ← I → E.O.P
- Orthographe .   Engenning .   C.E.O
           business English   Secretary
           Medical English   Accountan
           Judicial English   Lawyer

About the company =
A - have (meet) the new lawyer ?
P   met
B - yes, I met (meet) him yesterday .
       met

A - Did our income (increase) last year ?
             increase .

B - No, it (stay) the same.
      stayed

A - have you (book) the conference hall?
      booked
      =
   in franche (riserve).   20 18 - 12 - 23

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countries . (also case law, judge mad law).
=> 2, (common law).

In Troduce your self (name; age,
specialit (field).
Do you like why ? or why not
what do you like to become in the
future ?

month?
tober.
Th

(law)

nes and
nent.

Sample Teaching Materials

UNIT I: ADMINISTRATIVE LAW

1. **The organisation of the United Kingdom**

1.1. Read

The United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland is a unitary state with a constitutional monarchy. Scotland, Wales and Northern Ireland have some degree of autonomous devolved power. The United Kingdom is a Constitutional Monarchy in which the reigning monarch (the king or queen) does not participate in any political decision-making. The British Parliament is the supreme legislative body in the United Kingdom; its seat is the Palace of Westminster.

The Westminster Parliament has two chambers: the House of Lords and the House of Commons. The Commons is an elected group, while the House of Lords is composed of appointed and hereditary members.

Consist: be made up, incorporate, comprise, contain, include, embody, involve

Does the United Kingdom have a constitution?

There is no written constitution, but constitutional law consists of statute law, common law, and constitutional conventions.

Learn the national symbols of United Kingdom.

Name and flag	National Personification	National Animals	Coat of Arms	Motto	Anthem
United Kingdom Flag of the United Kingdom (Union Flag)	Britannia	Lion Bulldog	Royal coat of arms of the United Kingdom (as used in Scotland)	*Dieu et mon droit* "God and my right" (as used in England, Northern Ireland & Wales) *In Defens* (Scots) "In Defence" (as used in Scotland)	"God Save the Queen" "Queen" is replaced with "King" in the lyrics whenever the monarch is male.

1.2. Speak

What is a constitutional monarchy?

What does it mean that all political decisions are taken by the government and Parliament?

What is the consequence of the Autonomous developed power?

1.4. Write

Write a brief written piece about the symbols that represent your country. Then discuss with your peers the meaning behind these symbols.

_____

_____

_____

_____

Remember

One of the main difficulties experienced by non-native speakers in using tenses concerns which form of past tense to use in different situations.

Past-perfect tense

This tense refers to a past action that is completed before a more recent time in the past, and is formed using had. For example: In 1998 I lived in New York. In 1997 I had decided to move to the United States the following year.

Simple past

This tense refers to completed actions that occurred in the past, and is formed with the ending -ed. For example: I lived in New York

Past continuous

This tense refers to an action that occurred in the past and is not described as having been completed. For example: In 1998 I was living in New York.

2. Separation of Powers

2.1 Read

Explain the following diagram about the organisation of the powers in the United Kingdom.

1. Legislature:

2. Executive:

Executive Power

3. Judiciary:

The Structure of the Courts

UK Supreme Court
Appeal only, on points of law
Justices of the Supreme Court

Court of Appeal
Appeal only, on points of law to either the Criminal or Civil Divisions:
Lord Chief Justice, Heads of Division and Court of Appeal judges

High Court
Chancery, Queen's Bench and Family Divisions. All three divisions hear appeals from other courts, as well as "first instance" cases.
High Court and Deputy High Court Judges

Crown Court
Jury trial for all indictable and some either-way criminal offences. Appeals against conviction and sentence from the magistrates' court.
Circuit judges, Recorders and juries

Magistrates' Court
Trial for most criminal offences. Some civil matters.
Magistrates, District Judges (Magistrates' Courts), Deputy DJ (MC)s

County Court
Trial for most civil cases.
Circuit judges, Recorders, District Judges, Deputy District Judge

Family Court
Trial for most family cases.
High Court Judges, Circuit judges, Recorders, District Judges, Deputy District Judge and Magistrates

Employment Appeal Tribunal
Appeals from the Employment Tribunals
Employment Appeal Judges and members

Employment Tribunal (England & Wales; Scotland)
Claims about matters to do with employment
Employment Judges and members

Upper Tribunal
Appeals from the First-tier Tribunal
Upper Tribunal Judges

First-tier Tribunal
Appeals from executive agency decisions
Tribunal Judges and members

There are a number of other tribunals outside of this structure (for example, School Exclusion Panels) - their supporting legislation explains their individual appeal routes.

Note: the resources focus on the unified court system of England and Wales.

2.2 Write

- What is the fundamental function of the second power?

- Describe the judicial system of England and Wales?

- What the difference between House of Commons and House of Lords.

3. Constitutional vs. Administrative Law

3.1 Listen

Administrative Law

United Kingdom administrative law is part of UK constitutional law that is designed through judicial review to hold executive power and public bodies accountable under the law. Constitutional and administrative law regulates the relationships between the state and individuals, so it can be distinguished from private law subjects (such as contract or property law) that govern the legal relationships between private individuals.

3.2 Write

It is not always easy to distinguish between 'constitutional' and 'administrative' law. The two cannot always be clearly separated, but one possible distinction is to see constitutional law as the law relating to the constitution of a state. All states have a constitution of some kind, which contains the body of rules by which the state is governed. Administrative law, on the other hand, is concerned with the rules that control the exercise of state power, particularly the control exercised by the courts.

In the United Kingdom, Parliament is the supreme legislative authority. Parliament exercises this power through the enactment of Acts of Parliament (i.e. statutes). Such Acts of Parliament are therefore a primary source of constitutional law. However, if a minister, as the representative of the government, appears to act unreasonably or unlawfully, the legality of that action can be tested in the courts. This is the administrative law process of judicial review.

Work together with a classmate and outline the steps involved in creating a new law within the legal system of your country. What are the strengths and weaknesses of the legislative process?

3.3 Practice

In legal English, there are many adjectives that are associated with abstract nouns. For example, 'criminal' is derived from 'crime'. Fill in the table below.

Nouns	Adjectives
(1)	restorable
reliance	
(3)	defective
acceptance	
(5)	requisite

4. What is an administrative action?

4.1 Read

An administrative act is a legal act concerning the conduct of a public administrative body. There are three types of administrative act - quasi-legislative, quasi-judicial and purely administrative.

What is the aim of an administrative act?

Its purpose is to make public authorities and their work transparent to the public and to allow the public to participate in the rule-making process. It also provides for a judicial review of administrative decisions.

Conduct:
Behaviour,
action

4.2 Practice

Substitute the following words without changing the meaning of the sentences:

> **Create- gives- practicing- events- carries out- explains- reflective**

The three organs of the state are the executive, the legislature and the judiciary. The executive is the organ **exercising** authority in and holding responsibility for the governance of a state. The executive **executes** and enforces law through the everyday running of the state.

A legislature is a **deliberative** assembly with the authority to **make** laws for a political entity such as a state.

The judiciary is the system of courts that **interprets** and applies the law in the name of the state. The judiciary also **provides** a mechanism for the resolution of disputes. Under s strict separation of powers, the judiciary generally does not make law (which is the responsibility of the legislature) or enforce law (which is the responsibility of the executive), but rather interprets law and applies it to the **facts** of each case.

5. Judicial and administrative proceedings

5.1 Listen

Judicial and administrative proceedings are two different ways in which legal decisions are made.

Judicial proceedings are legal processes where a judge makes a decision around what should happen. Court cases are a form of judicial proceeding, and so are tribunals like children's hearings.

Administrative proceedings are legal processes that do not involve a judge. Usually, they are carried out by a government body.

Remember

Relative Pronouns

Relative pronouns include **who, whom, whose, which** and **that**.

Examples:

'I saw Peter, **who** is contemplating a claim against RemCo Ltd'.

'I advised Peter, John and Mary, all of **whom** are contemplating claims against RemCo Ltd'.

'a book **which** deals with current issues in international trade law' or 'a book **that** deals with current issues in international trade law'.

'the book, **which** costs £30, has sold over five thousand copies' and not 'the book, **that** costs £30, has sold over five thousand copies'.

6. Case Study

In response to an 80% drop in raisin prices during the Great Depression, Congress passed the Agricultural Marketing Agreement Act of 1937, allowing the US Department of Agriculture to issue marketing orders. This is an example of administrative law in action, and the USDA issued an order to raisin farmers requiring them to withhold a portion of their annual harvests from the market, leading to higher prices.

The USDA gave the Raisin Administrative Committee the authority to decide how many raisins would be held in reserve by the government and how many could be sold on the open market. This committee was made up of members of the raisin industry, appointed by the Secretary of Agriculture. They reserved more than 30% of all raisins grown in the US, selling them on non-competitive markets for things like rewarding foreign governments or increasing US exports. If there were any raisins left after these sales, the Committee would give them back to growers who agreed to reduce their production the following year.

Marvin Horne, a California raisin grower, disagreed with giving his raisins to the Committee. He restructured his farming operations to act as both grower and distributor, claiming that the reserve requirements set by law did not apply to him. The Committee sent its trucks to Horne's farm, but he refused to let them onto his property. As a result, Horne was fined the value of the raisins, plus a fine, which amounted to nearly $700,000.
Horne filed a federal lawsuit against the Commission, claiming that the raisin reserve violated the Takings Clause of the Fifth Amendment to the US Constitution.

The District Court judge did not agree with Horne and granted a summary judgment in favor of the USDA. Horne appealed the decision, but the Ninth Circuit Appellate Court affirmed the lower court's decision, stating that the Circuit Court had no authority to hear the case as it was a question of constitutionality.

Horne took his case to the US Supreme Court, which ruled that the Circuit Court did have authority to hear the case and sent it back. The Circuit Court ruled that personal property, such as raisins, did not have the same level of protection under the Fifth Amendment as real property, such as land. Horne appealed the decision to the Supreme Court.

The US Supreme Court, in a ruling written by Chief Justice John Roberts, decided that personal property and real property have been equally protected for over 800 years. The Court ruled that the raisin reserve requirement amounted to taking, as provided by the Fifth Amendment, as the government physically seized the growers' raisins. As a result, Horne was due just compensation for his raisins, which was the market value of the raisins at the time they were, or would have been, seized. The Committee had already determined the value of the raisins when it fined Horne.

Related legal terms and issues:

Appellate Court	هي المحكمة التي لديها الولاية القضائية لمراجعة قرارات محكمة درجة أولى أو محكمة أخرى أقل
Authority	هي القوة لاتخاذ القرارات، أو إصدار الأوامر، أو التحكم في شيء ما أو شخص ما
Clause	هو قسم من وثيقة قانونية يتعلق بنقطة أو مسألة معينة
Congress	هو الفرع التشريعي للحكومة الفيدرالية الأمريكية ، ويتألف من مجلس النواب والشيوخ
Defendant	هو الطرف الذي تم رفع دعوى قضائية ضده في المحكمة المدنية، أو الذي تم اتهامه بجريمة أو مخالفة
Federal Trade Commission	هي وكالة فيدرالية مستقلة مكلفة بحماية المستهلكين وضمان وجود سوق تنافسية قوية عن طريق تطبيق قوانين مكافحة الاحتكار وحماية المستهلكين
Plaintiff	هو الشخص الذي يقوم برفع دعوى قضائية ضد شخص آخر أو جهة أخرى ، مثل في الدعاوى المدنية أو الإجراءات الجنائية
Trial	هي عرض رسمي للأدلة أمام القاضي والمحلفين لغرض تحديد الذنب أو البراءة في القضايا الجنائية ، أو لاتخاذ قرار في المسائل المدنية

Resources

Legal Dictionary. (n.d.). Administrative law. In *Legal Dictionary*. Retrieved December 17, 2018, from https://legaldictionary.net/administrative-law/

Course Hero. (n.d.). Administrative law – Tutor problems. Retrieved December 17, 2018, from https://www.coursehero.com/tutors-problems/Law/27674427-Administrative-Law-Please-read-this-example-of-Administrative-Law-Bel/

UNIT II: CIVIL LAW

1. **Situation of Civil Law**

1.1 Speak

Comment on the following figure and define Private Law.
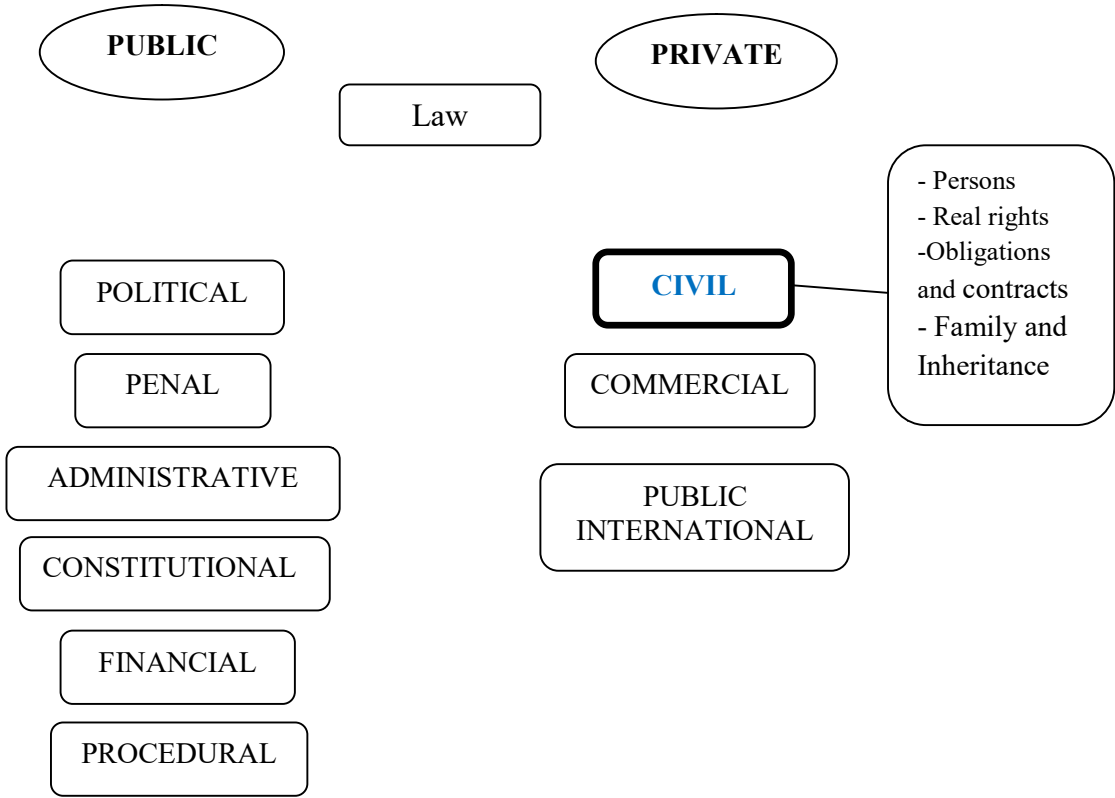
1.2 Read

> **Is private law the same as civil law in UK?**
>
> Private law, also called civil law, settles disputes among groups of people and compensates victims, including fence. A civil case is an action that settles private disputes.
>
> Civil law cases are initiated by private parties, while criminal cases are usually filed by the government.

1.3 Practice

Fill in the blanks using the following words: Civil Law, Common Law and Criminal Law.

_____ is an area of the law that deals with crimes and their punishments, including fines and/or imprisonment (also penal law).

_____ 1) is a legal system developed from Roman codified law, established by a state for its regulation; 2) area of law concerned with criminal matters, rights and remedies.

_____ is a legal system which is the foundation of the legal systems of most of the English-speaking countries of the world, based on customs, usage and court decisions (also case law, judge-made law).

1.4 Write

After knowing the definition and regulation of Civil Law in the UK, write a text explaining what it is like in your country.

1.5 Practice

> Negatives are formed in English by using prefixes. The most common of these are **un-, in-, il-, im-, ir-, non-** and **anti-**
>
> Unlawful - unfamiliar – impractical – illegal – unfair – invalid – independent – injustice – impartiality – inequitable – unwritten – impracticable – unconstitutional – illicit.
>
> The prefix dis- is often used in a slightly different way to the prefixes listed above. It is not usually a direct negation but generally indicates dissent. For example, 'we disagree'.

Change the given words into their negative forms by adding the correct prefixes.

(1) partial (2) approve (3) regard (4) active (5) paid (6) stabilise

2. Procedures of renting and moving out

2.1 Listen

Part One: Calling an Estate Agent

- Hello, Broom Cupboard Real Estate, how can I help?
- Hello, I'm looking to rent an apartment. A friend of mine told me about your agency, and I was hoping you could help me.
- Of course! Do you have a specific property in mind?
- No, not yet.
- No problem. First question: do you know which area you'd like to live in?
- Well, I work in Cowley so somewhere in the east would make sense.
- Sure, and… Are you looking to rent just for yourself?
- I'm planning to share with friend.
- So, a two-bed?
- Right.
- And, do you have an idea of your budget? You don't have to be exact, but if you would give me a range, that would be useful.
- As cheap as possible, really.
- I see… Well, two-bedroom flats are generally around eight to twelve hundred a month at the lower end.
- Hmmm…Ok
- One more important question: are you looking for a furnished place?
- Yes, furnished.
- That's fine. Is there anything else you need? For example, do you have pets? Do you need a place with off-street parking? Do you want a garden?
- No, no pets. I don't have a car. A garden would be a plus but it's not necessary.
- Got it. I'll take a look at what's available and get back to you in half an hour or so. Can I just take a phone number?

2.2 Practice

Can you remember how to complete these questions?

1. Do you know which _____ you'd like to live in?
2. Are you looking to rent just for _____?
3. Do you have an idea of your _____?
4. Are you looking for a _____ place?

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Part Two: Looking Around a Property

- So this is the living room…
- Is all the furniture included?
- Most of it should be. It's possible that some items belong to the current tenant, but I can send you a copy of the inventory, so you can check for yourself.
- That would be good.
- The bathroom is through here.
- It's pretty mouldy…
- Yes, it doesn't look great, does it? Don't worry. We'll contact the landlord and make sure that it's dealt with before you move in.
- I had a question; can we redecorate the place ourselves, or paint a room, if we want?
- Possibly, but you need the landlord's permission if you're going to do anything which significantly changes the appearance of the property. Generally, landlords will be happy to let you do things which improve the place.
- I see… Well, it looks OK, but there's obviously some work that needs doing. The kitchen is filthy!
- Yes, I understand. It won't be like that if and when you move in. If the current tenant doesn't clean everything thoroughly, we hire cleaners so that everything is spotless for the new tenant.
- OK. Anyway, I'd like to take a couple of days to think about it.
- No problem, although if you're interested, I'd advise you to move quickly. Places in this area get snapped up fast.

Inventory: a list of everything which is in the apartment, and its condition.

Tenant: renter, resident.

Landlord: property owner.

Mouldy: something like a plant, which can grow in dark and damp places like bathrooms

Snapped up: here it means 'getting something before anyone'.

Part Three: Signing a Contract

- Hello, Broom Cupboard, Daniel speaking.
- Hello, yes, this is… I'm calling about the flat on Wesley close?
- Ah, yes! Hello. What can I do for you?
- We've decided to go ahead. We'll take 12-month lease.
- That's great!
- So, what are the next steps?
- The first thing is to pay a holding deposit. It's two hundred pounds, and that lets us take the property off the market while we process your application.
- Do we get that back?
- If your application is successful, then it's offset against your rental deposit, so generally yes. If your application is no successful, then you won't, but that's rare.
- What else do we need?
- You need to supply at least two references, either from landlords or from employers.
- There are two of us; does that mean we need two references each?
- Yes, you do. The sooner you can get them to us, the better, but we must have them by the end of next week.
- OK, that shouldn't be a problem. Anything else we need to do?
- Not right now. Once your application is processed, you'll need to pay the tenancy deposit and the first month's rent, and sign the agreement.
- How much is the tenancy deposit?
- It is one month's rent, so nine hundred.
- So we need to pay eighteen hundred?
- That's right.
- Right… And, assuming everything goes smoothly, when could we move in?
- It really depends on you. Once we get your references, we can have the agreement drawn up within one working day. Then, as soon as you sign it and make the payment, we can give you the keys.
- Ok, well, thanks for your help. I'll try to get the references to you as quickly as possible.

> In the UK, you generally have to pay a deposit, pay the first month's rent, provide references, and sign a tenancy agreement. In most cases, you get your deposit back when you move out, so long as you have not damaged anything.

2.3 Speak

In your country, how many months' rent do you need to pay before moving into a new place?

Do you have to pay a deposit? Is it easy to get it back?

Do you need to provide references? What kind?

Is there anything else you need to do before you can move in?

Part Four: Moving out

- Hi, it's Daniel, from the real estate agency. I just wanted to confirm a few details about your moving out date?
- Oh right, sure.
- So, are you definitely planning to vacate the property on the last day of your tenancy?
- Probably one or two days earlier.
- Ok, no problem, but can you let us know when you know for sure?
- Yeah, can do.
- Either when you move out or shortly afterwards, we need to do the final inventory.
- Do we have to be there for that?
- No, but it's advisable.
- Ok, what about our deposit? When do we get that back?
- Well, we need to do the inventory first, and then you'll get your deposit back within about one week. Have you read the information on our website about cleaning?
- No, I haven't.
- Well, you're responsible for cleaning the place before you leave. If anything isn't clean when we come to check, we hire a cleaning company to come, and the cost is taken out of your deposit.
- I see
- So could we arrange a time for the final inventory now?
- I need to check my work schedule. Let me call you back.

2.4 Practice

Can you remember how to complete these sentences?

1. Are you definitely planning to _____ the property on the last day of your tenancy?
2. When you move out, we need to do the _____ inventory.
3. You're _____ for cleaning the place before you leave.
4. If anything isn't clean, we hire a cleaning company, and the cost is _____ out of your deposit.

3. Procedures of buying or selling a property

3.1 Read

In England and Wales, there are few steps you'll need to follow:
*   sellers must provide an <u>Energy Performance Certificate</u> for the property
*   if a seller is using an **estate agent**, potential buyers must make any offers through the agent
*   once a buyer's <u>offer</u> has been accepted, the seller is responsible for drawing up a legal contract to transfer ownership
*   an offer is not legally binding until <u>contracts are exchanged</u>
*   depending on the amount of money given for the property, the buyer may have to pay <u>taxes.</u>

Legally binding: legally enforceable. That means if you sign a binding contract and don't fulfil your end of the bargain, the other party can take you to court.

> **EPC:** is a four-page document which sets out the energy efficiency of a property on a traffic light system of A to G – A being the most efficient. An EPC provides an indication of how much it will cost to heat and power a property.

> You may need to pay:
> - Stamp Duty Land Tax when you buy a home in England
> - Land Transaction Tax when you buy a home in Wales
> - Capital Gains Tax when you sell a home

Transferring ownership

Upon acceptance of the offer, the seller assumes responsibility for drafting a legally binding contract to transfer ownership. The contract contains information about:

- The sale price
- The property boundaries
- What fixtures and fittings, such as carpets and kitchen units, are included?
- Are there any legal limitations or entitlements, such as public footpaths or regulations governing the use of the property?
- Any planning restrictions
- What services are provided to the property, such as gas and drainage?
- When the sale will be finalised?

(Gov.uk, n.d.)

3.2 Write

Finally, Mark has decided to buy a nice house. Review the contract and fill in the information provided.

Property Purchase Agreement

This Agreement to sell is made on _____ day of _____

By _____ (hereinafter called the seller) of the first party.
AND
_____ (hereinafter called the purchaser) of the second party.

The absolute owner in possession is the first party _____
The agreed property is being sold by the first party with all the rights, and with consent of all heirs, to the second party who has agreed to buy this property for a total consideration of _____/-(_ _____ only) on these terms and conditions :-

1. The first party has given assurance to the second party that the said property is not in mortgage, not attached in any bail as surety in any court, or financial institution or court. nor any agreement to sell has been made with any other party prior to this agreement.

2. The buyer has paid to the seller the total sale consideration of _____/- (_____ only) as a full and final payment against the said property/plot, for which the seller /owner hereby acknowledge the receipt in the presence of witnesses. There is no amount due as balance against the said property/land/plot.

3. The agreed property/plot is free from all sorts of burdens. The property/plot does not have any charges over it like, sale, gift, mortgage, lease, lien, attachment, demands, etc.

4. The seller shall transfer the plot/property in the name of seller or his nominees and fulfill all requirements of concerned authorities.

5. The seller shall bear all the expenses that the expenses on the deed of sale, NOC etc. of the said property/plot shall be borne by the seller of sale deed NOC etc. The expenses and the other final papers, and documents of the said property shall be borne by the said buyer.

6. The seller should not have any objection if the buyer decides to sell the property/plot to any other person.

7. In case the seller backs out from transferring the property and fulfilling the legal formalities, then the buyer has complete right on the said property to get it transferred in his name with the help of court of law under the performance of specific relief act. In that case the seller is responsible to pay the cost and consequences, damages etc.

This legal document is signed by both the parties in the presence of witnesses at _____ on the day month and year first mentioned above, in the presence of marginal witnesses.

WITNESSES: –

_____
First party/seller

_____
Second party/purchaser

_____

3.3 Speak

Analyse each of these situations.

So what does the seller have to tell a buyer?

In the case of Sykes v Taylor-Rose [2004], a question appearing in the property information form used at the time asked the seller the extremely broad question "Is there any other information which you think the buyer may have a right to know?" The seller answered "No". In fact, a murder had taken place in the property in the past but the Court decided that this was not something which the seller was obliged to disclose.

The seller told me that the property had never flooded

Whilst a Scottish case, and therefore not directly relevant to English Law, the case of Anwar v Britton [2018] (which involved arguments regarding a contractual clauses which sought to exclude representations), gives an example of how subjective questions regarding historical flooding of property can be and what flooding in fact means.

In this case, the buyer obtained a flood report which identified a low flood risk and recommended that the buyer raise this point with the seller. The seller's solicitor explained that the seller had not experienced issues of flooding. It transpired that the stream which ran near the property had overflowed from time to time.

> It's my lawyer's fault!
>
> It is important to understand that when a solicitor, giving or receiving information on behalf of their client, their client will be deemed to have that information.
>
> In Strover v Harrington [1988] a property which did not have mains drainage was described as agents and then the valuer as having so. In fact, the seller had given the correct information to the buyer's solicitor who had failed to pass this on to the buyer client.
>
> It was held that the reason for the loss to the buyer was not as a result of the misrepresentation but because the buyer's solicitor had not passed the correct information on.

4. Marriage

4.1 Listen

In England and Wales, marriage is available to both opposite-sex and same-sex couples and is legally recognised in the forms of both civil and religious forms. There is a distinction between religious marriages, conducted by an authorised religious celebrant and civil marriages conducted by a state registrar. The legal minimum age for marriage is eighteen years, and there are residency requirements that have to be met prior to marriage for foreign nationals.

State registrar: is a person whose job is to keep official records, especially of births, marriages, and deaths.

Foreign nationals: immigrants, noncitizens.

- What are the main differences between a civil marriage and the one celebrated in the church?
- Which type of marriage do you think is most popular among British people? Why? How is it in your country?
- Examine the line graph and answer the question.
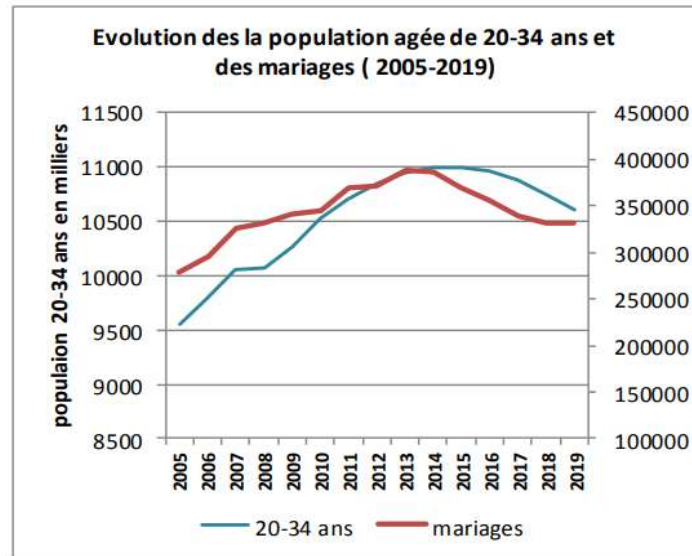
Source: Démographie Algérienne (2019)

- What is the trend when it comes to the total number of marriages? What do you think?

False Word Pairs

Many words in English look and sound alike but can have very different meanings. Typical examples include **principal** and **principle**, **affect** and **effect**, and **disinterested** and **uninterested**. In some cases – as in **prescribe** and **proscribe** – the meanings may in fact be opposite. It is important to be aware of the more common of these false pairs – the consequences of confusing them could be disastrous.

5. Divorce
5.1 Read

Read the divorce guide from www.familylawpartners.co.uk **and mark the correct option in the following sentences.**

- The decree absolute is the **initial/ final** part of the divorce process.
- If the spouse **agrees/ not agree** to the divorce, they will need to file an answer in 21 days.
- Filing for divorce starts with the **divorce petition form/Decree Nisi**.

![Family Law Partners logo]

Family Law PARTNERS

Step-By-Step Guide to Divorce

www.familylawpartners.co.uk
@FamilyLawFLP

YOU DECIDE WHAT "FACT" YOU ARE GOING TO RELY ON:

- Adultery
- Behaviour
- 2 years separation with consent
- Desertion for over 2 years
- 5 years separation

The **draft petition** should generally be shared with your spouse for approval

Three copies of the divorce petition, together with the original marriage certificate (or a certified copy), sent to the **divorce centre** to be issued plus applicable court fee

The divorce centre send the issued petition to your spouse

Your spouse should file an Acknowledgement of Service form with the divorce centre, either agreeing to the divorce or defending the divorce within 7 days

If defended (i.e. your spouse does not agree to the divorce) your spouse will need to file an answer in 21 days

If no acknowledgement is completed by your spouse, your spouse must be formally served with the Petition and you will need to consider how this should be done

If undefended (i.e. your spouse agrees), you can prove service and your spouse doesn't respond, or if no answer is filed in time

If an answer is filed you will need to make an application to the court for directions and you should seek specialist advice at this stage

If no answer is filed

You apply for the **Decree Nisi** by completing an **application** and a statement in support

If satisfied there should be a divorce, the case is listed for **Decree Nisi** (if not satisfied, the court will list a hearing)

The **Decree Nisi** is pronounced (it is not usually necessary to attend court for this)

You can apply for **Decree Absolute** after a period of six weeks and one day (but seek advice before doing so)

Your spouse can apply for the **Decree Absolute** 3 months after you could first apply if you haven't done so

The **Decree Absolute** is issued by the court and sent to you and your now former spouse: this formally ends your marriage

You should consider making a new Will and review whether there are any outstanding financial issues to resolve

How to Divide Assets in a UK Divorce

Matrimonial Causes Act 1973 (and Civil Partnership Act 2004) which deals with the issues that the Court need to take into consideration. These include:

(a) the income, property and other financial resources which each of the parties to the marriage have or are likely to have in the foreseeable future;
(b) the financial needs, obligations and responsibilities which each of the parties to the marriage has or is likely to have in the foreseeable future;
(c) the standard of living enjoyed by the family before the breakdown of the marriage;
(d) the age of each party to the marriage and the duration of the marriage;
(e) any physical or mental disability of either of the parties to the marriage;
(f) the contributions which each of the parties has made or is likely in the foreseeable future to make to the welfare of the family, including any contribution by looking after the home or caring for the family;
(g) the conduct of each of the parties, if that conduct is such that it would in the opinion of the court be inequitable to disregard it;
(h) in the case of proceedings for divorce, the value to each of the parties to the marriage of any benefit which, by reason of the dissolution or annulment of the marriage, that party will lose the chance of acquiring (typically a pension).

Welfare: Comfort

Inequitable: Unjust, biased

5.2 Practice

We will list examples of divorce in UK below, try to suggest a 'fair' divorce taking into account the personal circumstances of both parties.

Example one: John and Betty have been married for 10 years. They have no children, and have had similar incomes with a comparable trajectory for their earning potential since they got married and are still in the same job roles.
Betty files for a divorce because John has committed adultery, which John does not contest.
Example two: Stewart and Rose have been married for 18 years. They have two children, and Rose stopped working to look after them. Stewart supports the family with his income.
Example three: James and Grace were only married for a couple of years and did not live together before their marriage. They have no children.
Example four: Frank and Emily have been married for 12 years. They have no children, and Emily earns more than Frank with a likelihood that her income will keep on increasing over the next few years.

5.3 Write

Explain the process of divorce in your country and compare it with the UK.

> **Remember**
>
> **Avoid personal pronouns**
>
> It is inappropriate to use the personal pronouns **he** or **his** to refer to a person whose sex might be male or female. English has a number of gender-neutral words such as **person**, as well as a number of gender-neutral pronouns such as **anyone**, **everyone** and **no one**. However, it does not have gender-neutral singular personal pronouns.
>
> A good work around is to use the plural possessive form, **their**. For example:
>
> *Every competent lawyer must ensure that their legal knowledge is kept up to date.*
>
> In addition to paying attention to the use of personal pronouns, it is also important to ensure as far as possible that the terminology used is not gender-specific. This applies particularly to words ending in **-man**. For example, you should consider using **chair** instead of **chairman**, **firefighter** instead of **fireman**, and **drafter** instead of **draftsman**.

6. Inheritance Law in England and Wales

6.1 Listen

Mark: Hello Olivia, how are you?

Olivia: Hi Mark. I'm very sorry for the loss of your aunt.

Mark: Thank you, Olivia. The truth is that she had actually been sick for a long time. It was expected.

Olivia: She was your mother's only sister, right? How is she?

Mark: Well, she's very busy with the issue of inheritance. You know that my aunt was single and she had no children.

Olivia: So your aunt made a will?

Mark: No, we do not know who the heirs are or what the procedure is.
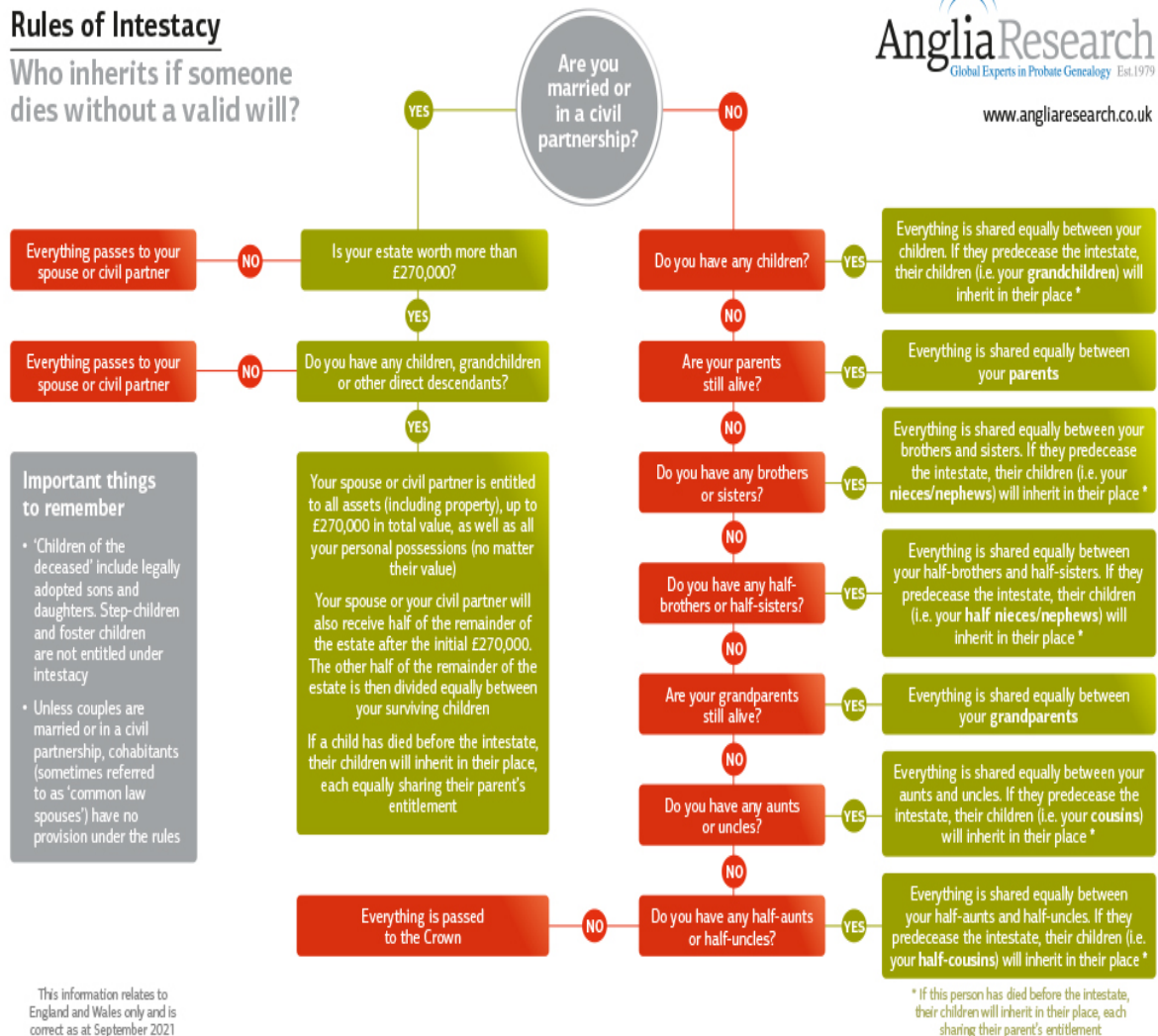
Olivia: Well, if you want I'll call you later and give you the phone number of a lawyer I know so you can tell him about the case.

Mark: Excellent idea. Well, Olivia, I have to go. I'm glad to see you. And I look forward to your call!

6.2 Read

Rules of Intestacy
Who inherits if someone dies without a valid will?

Anglia Research
Global Experts in Probate Genealogy Est.1979
www.angliaresearch.co.uk

Are you married or in a civil partnership?

YES — Everything passes to your spouse or civil partner — NO — Is your estate worth more than £270,000? — YES — Do you have any children, grandchildren or other direct descendants? — NO — Everything passes to your spouse or civil partner

YES — Your spouse or civil partner is entitled to all assets (including property), up to £270,000 in total value, as well as all your personal possessions (no matter their value)

Your spouse or your civil partner will also receive half of the remainder of the estate after the initial £270,000. The other half of the remainder of the estate is then divided equally between your surviving children

If a child has died before the intestate, their children will inherit in their place, each equally sharing their parent's entitlement

Important things to remember
- 'Children of the deceased' include legally adopted sons and daughters. Step-children and foster children are not entitled under intestacy
- Unless couples are married or in a civil partnership, cohabitants (sometimes referred to as 'common law spouses') have no provision under the rules

NO — Do you have any children? — YES — Everything is shared equally between your children. If they predecease the intestate, their children (i.e. your **grandchildren**) will inherit in their place *

NO — Are your parents still alive? — YES — Everything is shared equally between your **parents**

NO — Do you have any brothers or sisters? — YES — Everything is shared equally between your brothers and sisters. If they predecease the intestate, their children (i.e. your **nieces/nephews**) will inherit in their place *

NO — Do you have any half-brothers or half-sisters? — YES — Everything is shared equally between your half-brothers and half-sisters. If they predecease the intestate, their children (i.e. your **half nieces/nephews**) will inherit in their place *

NO — Are your grandparents still alive? — YES — Everything is shared equally between your **grandparents**

NO — Do you have any aunts or uncles? — YES — Everything is shared equally between your aunts and uncles. If they predecease the intestate, their children (i.e. your **cousins**) will inherit in their place *

NO — Do you have any half-aunts or half-uncles? — YES — Everything is shared equally between your half-aunts and half-uncles. If they predecease the intestate, their children (i.e. your **half-cousins**) will inherit in their place *

Everything is passed to the Crown — NO

This information relates to England and Wales only and is correct as at September 2021

* If this person has died before the intestate, their children will inherit in their place, each sharing their parent's entitlement

1- The spouse receives the first £270,000 (the statutory legacy) of the estate and all their personal possessions, regardless of their value. Half of the remainder also goes to the spouse, with the rest split equally between any children. The share of any minor

children is held in trust until they reach 18, and if any children are deceased, their share goes to any grandchildren. The spouse inherits even if the couple had informally separated and had not yet legally divorced or ended the partnership at the time of death.

2- If there is a surviving spouse but no children, the spouse gets the first £270.000 and the remainder is split 50/50 between the spouse and surviving parents. If there are no surviving parents, the share is divided among the deceased's siblings or nieces/nephews. If none of these groups are present, the spouse inherits the whole estate.

3- If there is no surviving spouse, the whole estate is split between the children or grandchildren. In the absence of children or grandchildren, the estate is inherited in descending order by the following groups: parents, siblings (or their children, if they are deceased), grandparents and uncles/aunts (or their cousins, if they are deceased), and half-brothers and half-sisters of parents (or their children if deceased).

Based on the rules of intestacy, what is the difference between "heir" and "legatee"? Could you give an example?

6.3 Write

You received a phone call from Mark and he said that Olivia had recommended your services to him. He provided you with information about his deceased aunt and asked you to prepare a report to answer the following questions:

- Who would be the heirs and why?
- What procedures will be followed and under what conditions?

Resources

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UNIT III: COMMERCIAL LAW

1. **Entrepreneurship**

1.1 Read

How to become an entrepreneur?

1. *Come up with an idea*
2. *Develop yourself*
3. *Start networking*
4. *Secure adequate financing*
5. *Trial your idea*
6. *Register your business*
7. *Protect yourself and your business*
8. *Launch your business.*

1.2 Write

Write a paragraph explaining in your own words the steps to become a self-employed individual in your country.

_____

_____

_____

_____

1.3 Read

Commercial Law, also known as Business Law or Trade Law, is a body of law that covers the rights, relations, and conduct of persons and businesses engaged in commerce, merchandising, trade, and sales. It is usually categorised under civil law and deals with both private law and public law. It also allows commercial activity to meet the demands of the business community. Commercial Law facilitates trade and prevents fraudulent activity, which is a core feature of a well-functioning and democratic society.

1.4 Practice

Now mark whether the following statements are true or false (T-F).

- Commercial Law regulates relationships between all people.

- The crisis situation of the entrepreneur is regulated by Commercial Law.

- The main focus of Commercial Law is the business act.

- Commercial Law studies the different aspects of business activities.

1.5 Read

Business entrepreneurship	Social entrepreneurship
Is individual	Is collective
Produces goods and services	Produces goods and services for the community
Is focused on the market	Is focused on finding solutions for social problems
Its performance measure is profit	Its performance measure is social impact
Seeks to satisfy the needs of customers and expand the potential of the business	Seeks to respect people at social risk and promote their betterment

Source: Adapted from Melo Neto and Froes (2002, as cited in Antonio et al., 2014)

1.6 Practice

For each case, what kind of entrepreneur are we dealing with?

Mr. Charlie Mullins is a self-employed worker who specialises in plumbing repair and installation. He does not have any employees and works by himself.

Carnes Funeral Home in Texas City & South Houston, TX. It has 15 employees.

Brisk Transport is a family-owned and operated transportation and removalist business with 30 years of experience in the industry. They are based Brisbane and specialise in moves to and from Melbourne. The company employs six people.

2. **Starting a Trading Company**

2.1 Listen

Listen to the following dialogue.

Gareth Carey wants to start a business in the UK, so he goes to Hannah Jones, a Business Advisor.

Mrs. Jones: Good morning, sit down, please. How can I help?

Mr. Carey: I want to set up a small business in England. I already know that I can either be self-employed, which includes being a sole traders and partnerships, or I can set up a limited company. However, what is the difference between a limited company and a sole trader?

Mrs. Jones: As a sole trader, HMRC and the law regard you and your business as a single entity. This means that you are personally liable for any debts or losses incurred by the business. However, you get to keep any profits made by the business, which are taxed as part of your personal income. On the other hand, a limited company is a separate legal entity with its own financial and legal reporting obligations. As a director of a limited company, your liability for any losses or debts incurred by the company is limited. However, if the company takes out loans, the lender may require a personal guarantee from the directors of the

company. It is important to keep the company's finances separate from your personal finances.

Mr. Carey: How do I pay myself as a sole trader or a limited company?

Mrs. Jones: As far as HMRC are concerned sole traders and their business is the same thing, so they can keep all of the after-tax profits that the business makes. If you operate as a limited company you're a completely separate entity, so the profits belong to the business, so you might pay yourself a salary as an employee of the company, or dividend payments, or both.

 Mr. Carey: Thank you very much, that has been quite informative.

2.2 Read

What is a limited company?

A limited company under UK law is one registered at Companies House. It must operate within the Companies Act 2006 and is governed by its own articles of association. There are different types of limited company but they all have these qualities.

Once registered a company has corporate personality. It is a legal entity (or legal person) with its own legal rights and obligations, separate and distinct from those of its members and directors. The company's property is not treated as belonging to the company's shareholders and directors. The company itself can enter into contracts, employ people, sue and be sued and can be liable if it commits criminal offences.

The key feature of a limited company is that it offers limited liability to its members. The company (as a separate legal entity) is liable for its debts and the members and directors are not personally liable (unless they have acted wrongly in some way). The members' liabilities are limited to paying to the company the amount they have agreed to pay for their shares. This may be a purely nominal amount, for example if the shareholders have each taken one £1 share.

Text from: *https://bit.ly/3ONRP6U*

2.3 Practice

Now you advise Mr. Carey.

I need a simple set-up and management to start immediately.

I want to keep my financial information confidential, so I don't want to register with Companies House.

I want to retain all the profits that I make after paying taxes.

I want to be the only one in the business who can make all the decisions without needing to consult shareholders or partners.

- **What type of legal structure is convenient for your client as a new business owner? Explain your answer.**

Remember

In legal documents, the verb shall is used to indicate obligation, to express a promise or to make a declaration to which the parties involved are legally bound.

In legal texts, shall usually expresses the meaning of 'must' (obligation):

Every notice of the meeting of the shareholders **shall** state the place, date and hour.

Or 'will' (in the sense of a promise):

The board of directors **shall** have the power to enact bylaws. 'Shall' can also be used in legal texts to refer to a future action or state:

... until two years **shall** have expired since such action by vote of such shareholders. In everyday speech, this future meaning is commonly expressed using only the present perfect (... until two years have expired ...).

Another verb commonly found in legal documents is may, which generally expresses permission, in the sense of 'can' (this use is less common in everyday English):

... any bylaw or amendment thereto as adopted by the Board of Directors **may** be altered, amended or repealed by a vote of the shareholders.

In everyday English, may is sometimes used as a substitute for might, indicating probability (He **may** want to see the document).

3. Let's Do Business

3.1 Read

Supply Contract

An agreement by which a seller promises to supply the goods or services that a buyer needs for a given period of time and at a fixed price, and the buyer agrees to purchase such goods or services exclusively from the seller during that time.

Transport Contract

This agreement can cover a wide range of transportation services, from domestic rail freight transportation to motor carrier services. A transport contract outlines all the important details of a transportation service agreement, including the duties of the parties, the shipping method, delivery times, and costs.

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3.2 Practice

The British marmalade and jam company Robertson's is looking to purchase 2200 kg of bitter oranges from la Cooperativa Agrícola Sindical San Isidro Labrador. They want to receive the merchandise in four shipments spread throughout the year. The contract is negotiated and signed at the seller's headquarters. After the negotiation, the seller agrees to send the merchandise every three months, giving the buyer 25% of the price before shipment, and paying the rest upon receipt of the merchandise.

- **What type of contract is this?**
- **Analyse each of these elements:**

Name – Seller– Buyer – La Cooperativa Agrícola Sindical San Isidro Labrador – Obligations – Rights.

3.3 Read

Histon Sweet Spreads Limited is registered in England and Wales with company number 07958787 VAT registration number: 657 9941 71 Registered office: Templar House, 4225 Park Approach, Thorpe Park, Leeds, LS15 8GB

ROBERTSON'S

Ctra. Córdoba-Almería, A-324, Km. 26
23560, Huelma, Jaén-España

SAN ISIDRO
S.C.A. ∴ LABRADOR

Mr. Oliver Leonard, lawyer, ID number
256987940
Professional address: 113 Chancery Lane
London WC2A 1PL

3.4 Now listen to the following telephone conversation.

- Hello, how can I help to you?

- Yes, this is Juan Ramirez calling, manager of San Isidro Labrador. May I speak to Mr. Leonard, please?

- Just a minute, please.

(…)

- Juan, good afternoon. Sorry for not getting in touch with you, I've been very busy.

- No problem. Mr. Leonard, I would like to know if everything is ready for the signing of the contract.

- Yes everything is ready. I can represent the director of Robertson's and sign on behalf of the company.

- Perfect. I'm not certain if you recall, but the last time we spoke we agreed to submit any disputes to the courts of Spain.

- Do not worry about that, the submission to jurisdiction clause has already been included in the contract. Could you please send me an email with the prices and the duration of the supplies?

- Of course, Mr. Leonard.

- Would it be possible to sign the contract tomorrow, if that is convenient for you?

- Let me know what time works for you and I would be delighted to come and sign the contract in person.

- Would 11am be that good for you?

- No problem, see you tomorrow then.

- I look forward to seeing you tomorrow. It was a pleasure speaking with you.

Who are the interlocutors in the conversation? What are they talking about?

3.5 Read the following email.

Dear Mr. Leonard,

Further to our telephone conversation, here are the details to finalise the drafting of the supply contract that we are expected to sign tomorrow.

The price of the oranges is 2.2 Euros per kilo and the quantity supplied will be 2,000 kg for two years, after which the contract will expire. Deliveries must be made every 3 months.

Regards,

Juan Ramirez
La Cooperativa Agrícola Sindical San Isidro Labrador
Manager

Remember

Standard phrases for opening and closing letters and emails

Referring to previous contact

With reference to your letter of 15 February...

In response to your query concerning ...

Further to our (telephone) conversation of ...

Thank you for your email of 15 February.

Stating the reason for writing

I am writing to inform you that ...

Closing, offering further assistance

Please contact me again if I can help in any way.

Should you have any further questions, do not hesitate to contact me.

Referring to future contact

I look forward to your reply / to meeting you / to hearing from you.

3.6 Practice

With the help of the data provided in the previous sections, complete the following contract.

Agreement made _____ (date), between _____, of
_____ (address), _____ (city), _____ (county),
_____ (state), in this agreement referred to as seller, and _____, of
_____ (address), _____ (city), _____ (county),
_____ (state), in this agreement referred to as buyer.

SECTION ONE: SALE OF GOODS
Seller shall sell, transfer and deliver to buyer on or before _____ (date), the following
personal property:

_____
_____ (description of goods).

SECTION TWO: CONSIDERATION
Buyer shall accept the goods and pay _____ Dollars ($ _____)
for the goods.

SECTION THREE: IDENTIFICATION OF GOODS
Identification of the goods to this agreement shall not be deemed to have been made until both buyer and seller
have specified that the goods in question are to be appropriated to the performance of this agreement.

SECTION FOUR: PAYMENT ON RECEIPT
Buyer shall make payment for the goods at the time when, and at the place where, the goods are received by
buyer.

SECTION FIVE: RECEIPT CONSTRUED AS DELIVERY
Goods shall be deemed received by buyer when delivered to buyer at
_____ (address), _____ (city), _____ (county),
_____ (state).

SECTION SIX: RISK OF LOSS
The risk of loss from any casualty to the goods, regardless of the cause, shall be the responsibility of the seller
until the goods have been accepted by the buyer.

SECTION SEVEN: WARRANTY OF NO ENCUMBRANCES
Seller warrants that the goods are now free, and that at the time of delivery shall be free from any security
interest or other lien or encumbrance.

SECTION EIGHT: WARRANTY OF TITLE
Furthermore, seller warrants that at the time of signing this agreement, seller neither knows nor has reason to
know of the existence of any outstanding title or claim of title hostile to the rights of seller in the goods.

SECTION NINE: RIGHT OF INSPECTION
Buyer shall have the right to inspect the goods on arrival and, within _____ business days after delivery,
buyer must give notice to seller of any claim for damages on account of condition, quality or grade of the
goods, and buyer must specify the basis of the claim of buyer in detail. The failure of buyer to comply with
these conditions shall constitute irrevocable acceptance of the goods by buyer.

In witness whereof, the parties have executed this agreement at
_____ (designate place of execution) the day and year first above
written.

_____
Signature

_____
Signature

_____

4. A Company Crisis

4.1. Read

Creditors contest

It is called bankruptcy, call for creditors or preventive bankruptcy, and it is a judicial process governed by bankruptcy law that takes place when a legal entity is unable to fulfil all of its payment obligations.

When the bankrupt or debtor is judicially declared bankrupt, it is examined whether the debtor can meet part of the debt with its assets in order to settle the remaining payment obligations.

With the bankruptcy system, the legal system establishes a mechanism through which the debtor's assets are distributed among all creditors, according to the priorities and order of credits established by law.

- Define in your own words what bankruptcy is.
- What is it called in your country?
- How would you explain what insolvency is? Give an example.

Appendix 9

Full name:…………...........................   **Group:**………

First Term Exam

The legal System in the United Kingdom (UK)

The study of law distinguishes between public law and private law, but in legal practice in the UK the distinction between civil law and criminal law is more important to practising lawyers. Public law relates to the state. It is concerned with laws which govern processes in local and national government and conflicts between the individual and the state in areas such as immigration and social security. Private law is concerned with the relationships between legal persons, that is, individuals and corporations, and includes family law, contract law and property law. Criminal law deals with certain forms of conduct for which the state reserves punishment, for example murder and theft. The state prosecutes the offender. Civil law concerns relationships between private persons, their rights, and their duties. It is also concerned with conduct which may give rise to a claim by a legal person for compensation or an Injunction - an order made by the court. However, each held of law tends to overlap with others. For example, a road accident case may lead to a criminal prosecution as well as a civil action for compensation.

Read the text and answer the following questions.

1. In which law is the individual concerned with the state? How?

…………………………...

…………………………………………………………………………………………………

…………………………………………………………………………………………………

2. What are the laws which concern legal persons?

…………………………………………………………………………………………

3. Explain the difference between civil law and criminal law.

…………………………………………………………………………………………………

…………………………………………………………………………………………………

…………………………………………………………………………………………………

4. What is more important to practising lawyers?

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

5. Write the sentences that illustrate that a given domain of law may interfere in another?

…………………………………………………………………………………………………

…………………………………………………………………………………………………

   2) Grammar:

Fill in the table bellow.

Nouns	Adjectives
(1)	requisite
reliance	
(3)	restorable
acceptance	
(5)	defective

3) Vocabulary:

Match these words (1-6) with their synonyms (a-f).

1 revoke	**a** additional fees
2 prefer	**b** inform
3 enforceable	**c** get
4 penalties	**d** opt for
5 obtain	**e** valid
6 notify	**f** withdraw

4) Writing:

Write a one-page paper on an aspect of law in Algeria. Introduce some of the serious legal issues and how are they being addressed?

Appendix 10

Perception Survey

(Tsou, W. & Chen, F., 2014 : 45)

State your opinion towards these statements by using 1-5 scale. 1 (strongly disagree), 2 (disagree), 3 (not sure), 4 (agree), or 5 (strongly agree).

1. The course objectives match the themes of the syllabus.

2. The course content is well-prepared and can effectively train students' critical thinking, presentation, and Q&A skills.

3. In-class activities are well-designed and promote positive classroom atmosphere.

4. The teacher frequently collects relevant teaching resources.

5. The teacher creates a positive learning atmosphere to motivate English learning in class.

6. The teacher provides clear, concrete and systematic explanations on the course content.

7. The teacher interacts frequently with students.

8. The teacher manages the class time effectively.

9. The teacher frequently uses methods of discussion and Q&A.

10. The teacher gives appropriate assignments and assessments.

11. The course material is level-appropriate, valuing students' affective learning.

12. The teacher uses teaching platform and integrates course materials appropriately.

13. Overall, my English listening skill has improved from taking the course this semester.

14. Overall, my English speaking skill has improved from taking the course this semester.

15. Overall, my English reading skill has improved from taking the course this semester.

16. Overall, my English writing skill has improved from taking the course this semester.

Appendix 11

Translated Perception Survey

إستبيان تقييم الدورة

عبرعن رأيك في هذه العبارات باستخدام مقياس من 1 إلى 1.5 (لا أو افق بشدة)، 2 (لا أو افق)، 3 (لست متأكدًا)، 4 (أو افق)، أو 5 (أو افق بشدة)

أوافق بشدة	أوافق	لست متأكدًا	لا أوافق	لا أوافق بشدة	
					تتطابق أهداف الدورة مع محاور المنهج
					محتوى الدورة مُعد جيدًا ويمكنه تدريب الطلاب بشكل فعال على التفكير النقدي والعرض التقديمي ومهارات الأسئلة والأجوبة
					تم تصميم الأنشطة داخل الفصل بشكل جيد وتعزز الجو الإيجابي للفصول الدراسية
					يقوم الأستاذ في كثير من الأحيان بجمع الموارد التعليمية ذات الصلة
					يخلق الأستاذ جوًا تعليميًا إيجابيًا لتحفيز تعلم اللغة الإنجليزية في الفصل
					يقدم الأستاذ تفسيرات واضحة وملموسة ومنهجية حول محتوى الدورة
					يتفاعل الأستاذ بشكل متكرر مع الطلاب
					يقوم المدرس بإدارة وقت الحصة بشكل فعال
					يستخدم الأستاذ بشكل متكرر أساليب المناقشة والأسئلة والأجوبة
					يعطي الأستاذ الواجبات والتقييمات المناسبة
					مادة الدورة مناسبة للمستوى ، وتقدر التعلم الاجتماعي للطلاب
					يستخدم الأستاذ منصة التدريس ويدمج مواد الدورة بشكل مناسب
					بشكل عام ، تحسنت مهارتي في الاستماع إلى اللغة الإنجليزية من خلال حضور الدورة في هذا الفصل الدراسي
					بشكل عام ، تحسنت مهارتي في التحدث باللغة الإنجليزية من خلال حضور الدورة في هذا الفصل الدراسي
					بشكل عام ، تحسنت مهارتي في القراءة باللغة الإنجليزية من خلال حضور

					الدورة في هذا الفصل الدراسي
					بشكل عام ، تحسنت مهارتي في الكتابة باللغة الإنجليزية من خلال حضور
					الدورة في هذا الفصل الدراسي

"Analysis of Legal English Needs for Developing ELP Teaching Materials in the Department of Law at the University of Oran 2"

Summary

This study explored the ESP teaching situation in the Department of Law at the University of Oran 2 to improve ELP teaching materials. A needs analysis was conducted to identify learners' needs and assess the effectiveness of the proposed course. Using a mixed-methods approach, data was gathered through questionnaires, interviews, focus groups, and document analysis. The findings revealed the absence of a structured program with clear objectives for teachers' knowledge development in legal English and a lack of evaluation measures for ELP courses. The study emphasizes the need for a more structured ELP program, with course adjustments based on evaluation and learners' feedback.

Keywords: Course Evaluation, ELP, ESP, Needs Analysis, Teaching Materials.

"تحليل احتياجات اللغة الإنجليزية القانونية لتطوير مواد تدريس في قسم القانون بجامعة وهران 2"

ملخص:

استكشفت هذه الدراسة وضع تدريس اللغة الإنجليزية لأغراض محددة (ESP) في قسم الحقوق بجامعة وهران 2 بهدف تحسين المواد التعليمية للغة الإنجليزية لأغراض قانونية (ELP). تم إجراء تحليل للاحتياجات لتحديد احتياجات المتعلمين وتقييم فعالية الدروس المقترحة باستخدام نهج بحثي مختلط، تم جمع البيانات من خلال الاستبيانات والمقابلات ومجموعات نقاش وتقييم للدروس. كشفت النتائج عن غياب برنامج منظم بأهداف واضحة لمساعدة أساتذة الانجليزية في تعزيز معرفتهم باللغة الانجليزية لأغراض قانونية،بالإضافة إلى نقص في طرق تقييم فعالية الدروس المقترحة . تؤكد الدراسة على الحاجة إلى برنامج أكثر هيكلة للغة الإنجليزية لأغراض قانونية، مع تعديل المواد التعليمية بناءً على تقييمات شاملة و إجابات المتعلمين.

الكلمات المفتاحية: تحليل الاحتياجات، تقييم المقرر، اللغة الإنجليزية لأغراض قانونية، اللغة الإنجليزية لأغراض محددة، مواد التدريس.

« Analyse des besoins en anglais juridique pour l'élaboration de supports pédagogiques au département de Droit de l'Université d'Oran 2 »

Résumé:

Cette étude a examiné la situation de l'enseignement de l'Anglais à des fins spécifiques au sein du département de droit de l'Université d'Oran 2, dans le but d'améliorer les supports pédagogiques. Une analyse des besoins a été réalisée pour identifier les besoins des apprenants et évaluer l'efficacité du cours proposé. En adoptant une approche méthodologique mixte, des données ont été collectées à travers des questionnaires, des entretiens, des groupes de discussion et des analyses documentaires. Les résultats ont révélé l'absence d'un programme structuré avec des objectifs clairs pour mieux enrichir les connaissances des enseignants en Anglais juridique, et ont aussi démontré un manque d'évaluations appropriées des cours d'Anglais juridique. L'étude souligne donc la nécessité de mettre en place un programme plus structuré avec des ajustements de cours fondés sur des évaluations et des retours des apprenants.

Mots-clés: analyse des besoins, anglais juridique, anglais pour objectifs spécifiques, évaluation des cours, supports pédagogiques.