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THESIS

For obtaining the Degree of Doctorate of Science in English Language

Teaching Business English: A Needs-based Syllabus Proposal.

The Case of Engineers in the Hydrocarbon Sector

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Dedications

To the memory of my father

To my mother and daughters.

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Chapter II: Business English: Pedagogical Concerns

List of Acronyms and Abbreviations

BE: Business English

BEC: Business English Certificate

BELF: Business English as a Lingua Franca

BP: British Petroleum

BULATS: Business Language Testing System

B2B: Back to back

CANBEC: Cambridge and Nottingham Business English Corpus

CBI: Content-based Instructions

CEIBT: Certificate of International Business and Trade

CEO: Chief Executive Operator

CLT: Communicative Language Teaching

CNP: Communicative Needs Processor

CPF: Central Processing Facility

CV: Curriculum Vitae

DEP: ‘Departement des Puits’

EAP: English for Academic Purposes

EBP: English for Business Purposes

EFL: English as a Foreign Language

EGAP: English for General Academic Purposes

EGBP: English for General Business Purposes

EIL: English as an International Language

ELF: English as a Lingua Franca

ELT: English Language Testing

EMI: English as Means of Instruction

EOP: English for Occupational Purposes

ESAP: English for Specific Academic Purposes

ESBP: English for Specific Business Purposes

ESP: English for Specific Purposes

EST: English for Scientific Purposes

ETL: Electronic Text Library

ETS: Educational Testing Services

FRAC: Frequency Response Assurance Criterion

GE: General English

HMD: Hassi Messaoud

HRM: Hassi Rmel

HSE: Hygiene Safety and Environment

IBE: International Business English

ICT: Information and Communication Technology

INA: In Amenas

ISG: In Salah

JV: Joint Venture

LGP: Language for General Purposes

LSP: Language for Specific Purposes

MA: Means Analysis

NA: Needs Analysis

OPS: Operations

PBL: Project-based Learning

PSA: Present Situation Analysis

RECON: Relationship and Confidence

RSA: Royal Society of Art

SH: Sonatrach

TAR: Turn Around

TBA: Task-based Approach

TESP: Test of English for Specific Purposes

TOEIC: Test of English for International Communication

TOEFL: Test of English as a Foreign Language

TS: Technical Support

VIP: Very Important Personality

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ABSTRACT

This thesis investigates the linguistic and business skill needs of Algerian engineers in the hydrocarbon sector, aiming to enhance and adapt existing syllabuses to better align with their professional requirements. By employing a mixed-method research approach, combining qualitative and quantitative methodologies, the study utilizes PSA (Present Situation Analysis) and MA (Means Analysis) to examine the status of English within the Joint Venture (JV), the engineers' job-specific language demands, and the existing teaching documents. Additionally, TSA (Target Situation Analysis) is applied through a comprehensive questionnaire to identify the engineers' needs across the four language skills and related business competencies.

The findings highlighted significant gaps in language proficiency, with speaking skills emerging as the top priority, particularly in delivering effective presentations and participating in meetings. Writing skills followed, emphasizing the importance of crafting concise paragraphs, mastering correct grammar, and utilizing technical abbreviations. Reading skills and associated strategies were also deemed essential for professional success. These identified gaps underscore the need for a targeted syllabus that equips engineers with the communicative competencies required to thrive in their field.

Grounded in a Task-Based Approach (TBA), the enhanced syllabus proposal addresses these needs by focusing on real-world tasks reflective of the engineers' work environment. This study not only sheds light on the linguistic and business challenges faced by engineers in this sector but also offers a practical and innovative framework for developing professional English skills, bridging the gap between academic training and workplace demands. The research thus contributes to the broader field of Business English by offering a model adaptable to similar industrial contexts.

Key words: *Business English, Needs Analysis, Business English Skills, Language Skills, Needs-based Syllabus.*

GENERAL INTRODUCTION

GANERAL INTRODUCTION

The world counts thousands of languages[1]and uses thousands of them, yet with no equal ranks, be they at the national or international levels. A number of these languages were driven to death; others developed to acquire national status, while others reached international one along a certain language hierarchy organized according to how wide and what domains they were used in/for. Of course, some factors contributed to such a status, among which the most important are the colonial factor and the scientific and technological ones. This work focuses on the English language, with particular emphasis on business English, henceforth BE, within the economic and industrial sectors. English has become a global language, widely used in fields such as publishing, science, technology, commerce, diplomacy, air-traffic control, and popular music. This dominance stems from the political and economic influence of Britain in the 19th century and the United States in the 20th century. As a result, the number of English speakers has grown significantly; from around 3 million in the 16th century to its current widespread use worldwide (Jonathan Culpeper, 2005:82).

There is no doubt that English is the medium for international business communication by excellence. Nowadays, business firms around the world are using English as an important means of communication. Hence, the need for English language use and mastery is becoming more and more required in multinational companies; similarly, it has shifted from an elite advantage to become an essential requirement for almost everyone in the world. Algeria is not excluded from the impact of English as a global language. Even though the Algerian firms use essentially Academic Arabic and French, depending on each firm's status, English is becoming a necessity in many other firms that deal with English-speaking expatriates.

In the case of Algeria, as far as foreign languages are concerned, Algeria introduced French as the first foreign language as early as the third primary academic school year, while the English language was introduced in the first academic year of the intermediate school. i.e., three years later in relation to the French language. In 1993, the Ministry of National Education asserted the importance of promoting English, recognizing it as the "language of scientific knowledge" Benrabah Mohamed (2007: 194) essential for academic and

[1] The latest (25th) edition of 'Ethnologue', the world's most complete catalog of languages, lists "7,151 languages are spoken today" on its website (https://www.ethnologue.com/guides/how-many-languages)

technological advancement. These two languages are taught in their general form and attributed the lowest coefficient for all school levels except for literature and art. This lessens their importance as school subjects mainly for primary, in the case of French, and intermediate and secondary school pupils for both. Students joining universities to continue their studies or working in the economic and industrial sectors generally find themselves in need of improving their English level according to their domains of study or work careers, not only in terms of general English use but also in terms of English for specific purposes and BE as well.

Due to its economic and industrial growth, and its openness to the Western world, Algeria recognized the need for a common language to facilitate the transfer of economic, scientific, and technological knowledge. English, particularly British English, was chosen as the key language for this exchange. Within the process of development, Algeria has engaged in the establishment of an important range of foreign investments and the creation of many multinational companies and joint ventures. Therefore, BE turns out to be an absolute need in the Algerian business area. An important fraction of those joining the economic and industrial sectors, mainly those holding university degrees, felt the necessity to improve their English for communication purposes and to socialize for social and occupational purposes. Within this line of need, the educational authority has recently given interest to the need for English for specific purposes within the introduction of the LMD system, i.e. (License, Master and Doctorate). In the case of the Faculty of Foreign Languages, a course entitled "English for Specific Purposes" is introduced among the other courses for first-year students within the "L" program. But recently, for pedagogical purposes, this course has been shifted to the third year rather than the first one.

As regards the other faculties of the human sciences, or applied ones, the course of English takes a rather general approach with the lowest coefficient[2]. Graduate and post-graduate students then get their degrees with a very low level of English, not allowing them to fulfill communicational needs in cases of necessity in the economic and industrial sectors, a problem that pushes them to take courses in English either in general, specific, or business-related using the services of the private language schools established in Algeria.

[2] The course is attributed (1 point) as a coefficient

When it comes to the private teaching sector in Algeria, it has witnessed a significant increase in demand for Business English (BE) courses. This can be attributed to the growing importance of the global market and the need for professionals to be proficient in English. Private language schools have responded to this demand by offering BE courses that cater to the specific needs of their learners. These courses utilize the available ready-made textbooks in the market, such as 'The Market Leader', 'Direct English', and 'In-company', which provide a comprehensive and structured approach to learning BE. While these textbooks may not be tailored to the local context, they are a great step towards teaching English for General Business Purposes and preparing learners for the global market.

The political stability and economic disclosure of Algeria led to the establishment of different foreign companies and the creation of joint ventures. This in turn created a need to hire a working staff with a certain proficiency in the English language according to the occupational hierarchies and the need to organize in-company English courses for certain workers for whom the use of English is an absolute necessity, mainly BE.

Rod Ellis and Christine Johnson (1994:5) differentiate between two types of learners in Business English (BE): *pre-experienced learners* and *job-experienced learners*. They note that pre-experienced learners have two key needs. First, they may need to read textbooks or attend lectures in English to obtain the qualifications they seek. Consequently, their language training will likely focus on enhancing reading and listening skills, with particular attention to subject-specific vocabulary. Additionally, depending on their academic context, they may need to participate in seminars or write papers in English, making these vital skills for any language training program. Second, these learners must also prepare for their future careers in business.

The pre-experienced learners are the young adults who recently graduated from higher educational institutions but have no real competence in BE. In other words, they lack knowledge of what language needs in a real business field are. On the other hand, "one overriding characteristic of Business English for job-experienced learners will still apply: the need to be pragmatic. The practical *use* of the language will be more important than theoretical knowledge *about* the language." (Ellis and Johnson, 1994:5) Furthermore, job-experienced learners are employees learning English for well-defined objectives. They are selective in choosing courses because they bring their own business experience and a clear understanding of how to improve their language skills based on their specific needs. While their educational background may influence them, their practical experience in communicating at work drives their focus on addressing gaps in fluency, effective communication, and understanding people from other countries they interact with (Ellis and Christine, 2014:5)

BP/SH/Statoil JV is an example of a case study in the BE area where both Algerian workers and expatriates with different native languages use English for communication purposes. BP/SH/Statoil JV employees find themselves in constant contact with English speakers (natives and non-natives) from different parts of the world, and since one of the Golden Rules *(see Annex 1)* in the JV is effective communication, the need to master BE becomes essential. Certainly, defective communication directly impacts the workers' efficiency in conducting their activities. To overcome this issue, the general managers of the company made the decision to organize English courses tailored to their workers' needs according to their positions. Thus, in-company classes were organized by hiring teachers of English.

The aim of the present study is to enhance and adapt the existing Business English syllabus to better meet the engineers' needs working in the BP/SH/Statoil JV at different sites: In Amenas Project, In Salah Gas Project, and Hassi Messaoud. To this end, it is necessary to gather information about the informants' learning requirements in order to identify the different constraints that might be encountered. The researcher used three analyses to reach her goal: Present Situation Analysis, to examine the English language teaching status in the JV, Means Analysis focuses on the documentation used and its relevance, and Target Situation Analysis includes the questionnaire and data analysis.

The focus is on identifying the constraints to learning BE in a JV setting, and developing a coherent solution proposal to address these constraints. To achieve this, four specific research questions have been raised and will be investigated:

1. What are the informants' language and skill requirements in BE?
2. What BE skill should be the main focus of the lessons?
3. To what extent are the textbooks used in the JV appropriate?
4. To what extent are the frequency and schedule of the courses appropriate?

In order to answer the questions, an initial investigation was carried out, taking into consideration **language constraints** and **business skills constraints**. Regarding the language constraints, the informants are unable to communicate information or debate in discussions because they are unable to talk confidently and accurately. They demonstrate a lack of fluency in English comprehension and are incapable of clearly conveying their thoughts in lengthy e-mails or written material; they cannot tell the difference between skimming and scanning. Concerning business skills, they demonstrate an inability to successfully engage in meetings when it comes to business restrictions. They do not grasp phone jargon and have no idea how to prepare and arrange a presentation, yet they face limitations in holding an audience's attention or maintaining conversations.

In order to provide direction and focus to the research, it is essential to formulate a hypothesis. As Kumar (1999:81) notes "Hypotheses bring clarity, specificity, and focus to a research problem". On the one hand, the engineers lack crucial linguistic skills, such as writing to express a general notion or specific information; they do not know the difference between skimming and scanning; and so on. On the other hand, they are unlikely to have had any training in linguistic business skills, such as how to write a graph analysis, how to use relevant suggestions to attract an audience in a technical presentation, or how to use methods to interrupt someone's speech at a business meeting. This is likely due to the lack of relevancy of the information utilized in their JV courses, which hampered the engineer's enthusiasm to learn. In other words, in terms of both language and procedures, the resources do not fulfill their urgent demands. To deal with the situation, we believe that relevant materials should contain both BE language and skills.

Two chapters are devoted to the literature review and two others to the field study. Chapter one is an overview concerning the development in the field of ESP, i.e., recent studies focusing on Business English, discussing some theoretical issues. The second chapter is about the pedagogical implementations of BE, focusing on the different approaches to its teaching as they shifted through time, methodology, and authentic materials. The third chapter is devoted to the case study and the methodology followed in the present research, and finally, the last chapter concerns data analysis and interpretations and the syllabus proposal presentation.

There is no doubt that BE is increasingly required around the world (David Northrup, 2013) at all levels. Indeed, it is widely needed in the business sector, and the BP/SH/STATOIL JV is not excluded. This research holds significant value as it aims to explore the various challenges engineers encounter in acquiring the necessary English language skills for effective communication in the workplace. It is also an attempt to suggest practical solutions that match their needs. The findings of this study can be useful for other companies and sectors that require their employees to have a good command of English in the workplace.

The motivation driving this study arises from the researcher's four years of experience teaching in the JV, where she had the opportunity to observe firsthand the language challenges and skill gaps that engineers regularly faced. Throughout this time, the researcher recognized a clear need for more targeted and practical language training that could enhance communication efficiency in the workplace. Motivated by a desire to contribute to an effective solution, the researcher is committed to developing an approach that directly addresses these challenges, ensuring that engineers are better equipped to perform their tasks and interact confidently in their professional environment.

CHAPTER I:

BUSINESS ENGLISH: RECENT STUDIES

1.1 Introduction

The first chapter is a survey of the different recent studies related to the development of BE, and their relevance to BE teaching and learning. It presents the scholars' different points of view about BE. In the literature available, on the one hand, BE is considered an offspring of English for specific purposes (ESP), on the other hand; it is also contrasted with English for occupational purposes (EOP) and workplace English, with the idea of specificity giving birth to other subdivisions geared to the purpose of use. Boyd Frances (2002: 42) believes "Business English is the general term for multifaceted global movement in ESP with roots in both the academic and the commercial worlds". Bachiri Housseine (2017:15) relates BE to ESP arguing that "ESP is an umbrella term that englobes many categories and subcategories. At this stage, it should be pointed out that Business English is one of the salient branches of ESP". The chapter also puts emphasis on the development of BE as an independent discipline and the theoretical issues that emerged as a result. That is, the issues of specificity as a fervent topic researched in applied linguistics. This chapter includes an overview and the different issues regarding BE.

1.2 Business English: An Overview

Prior to dealing with the ideas and issues mentioned above, we consider it is worth dipping into some definitions as regards BE. Given the various angles from which specialists in the field of Language for Specific Purposes, henceforth LSP, conceive BE and given the fact that there is no agreement upon a definition, it is worth citing some broad definitions to delimit what BE is about in general and scrutinize the core of the meaning to which most of the selected definitions highlight.

1. As regards Edwin Herbert Lewis (1911:1), "Business means buying and selling, and English is the name of our mother tongue, Business English is obviously such English as is used in mercantile transactions."

2. Paula Flores Kastanis and Katherine Urquijo Flores (2016:115) argue that "Business English is a form of English especially suited to international trade, commerce and finance. As such, Business English is the kind of English typically used in, for

example: business meetings, sales, presentations, negotiations, business correspondence, and business reports."

3. Soumitra Kumar Choudhury (2011:3)

> Business English Is English used for commercial purposes. It is a communicative medium in business organizations to carry out several functions. It is a shared medium in globalized business scenario helping non-native speakers of the language to communicate with each other. Business English is a communicative competence that needs to be understood in the context of the workplace and, for that purpose it is important that we focus on the basics of business communication.

4. Leo Jones and Richard Alexander (2003:6) say "… most business English is simply English used in business contexts - it is not a special language. Every industry (to some extent each company or even department) uses a special 'jargon'."

5. James Simpson (2011:26) "English for business purposes (EBP), also known as Business English, became an independent area of study in the early 1990s, primarily as a consequence of the globalization of trade and commerce, which made it necessary for business people to move out of their home grounds and operate across territorial, linguistic, cultural as well as socio-political boundaries."

6. Jordi Piqué Angordans, and David J. Viera (1997:108) reveal that Ellis and Johnson (1994:7) report "business English is an area of ESP that is relatively poorly researched. Rigorous linguistic analysis is fragmented, and is more frequently based on … correspondence, annual reports and articles on business journals."

From these definitions, it appears that BE has to do with business in its different domains and the corresponding genres in terms of specific use. It is also a variety of English used in globalized business as a means of communication in the case of non-native speakers, and a variety that relates to ESP accordingly. Scholars all agree that BE is related to business, yet they do show some controversies concerning its relation to ESP. This issue is addressed further in this chapter.

People communicate using language, but it never remains unchanged. By tradition, language is one of the ever-changing means of communication people use. It develops in accordance with the changing patterns of communication and contact between people and nations. Economic, industrial, and scientific sectors, business, trade, and commercial international activities have all played an important role in the spread of English as a foreign language (EFL) used in domains that require specific and tailored varieties in very specific domains that need, thus, specific English. A vast body of literature in the field attests to such everlasting changes and developments. BE is one of the specific varieties that have developed accordingly. It is a variety of English that has developed to satisfy the communication needs of the world of international business relations. BE is broadly considered to belong to LSP in general and is considered in the case of the English language as a specialism within English language learning and teaching, that is, as a variance of ESP. However, scholars within this area of concern offer different approaches to BE identification. BE is defined and identified from different optical angles of investigation. Some consider BE to be teaching English within the idea of specialization. Simon Collin (2005:268) notes,

> One of the most important areas of specialization in teaching English as a second or foreign language is Business English. Many students are interested in improving their English skills in the areas of conducting business meetings, making presentations, understanding discussions at formal meetings, reading technical journals, and receiving and interacting effectively with American and other Englsih-speaking business people.

Compared to General English (GE) teaching, teaching BE has its own specific nature. It consists of teaching English as a second language or a foreign language with the objective of developing the learners' fluency and effectiveness to better communicate in the domain of exercise. For Hyland and Cantón Rodríguez (2002), "the need for specialized communication aimed at different professions has experienced a massive growth because, in recent years, many companies have become aware of the importance of English in the field of business. Thus, English has become a real means or tool that adapts to the different professional needs." (cited inTorres-Zúñiga and Schmidt, 2017: 238). In contrast, other scholars consider BE an offspring of ESP as the former shares most of the ESP characteristics with the idea of a specific context of use. They overlap in Needs Anlysis, syllabus design, course design, materials selection, and development but vary in the degree of specificity of context (Mark Ellis and Christine Johnson, 1994:3).

Though scholars agree that ESP and BE share some important aspects, they do vary in terms of corpora. Indeed, BE emphasizes the specific context of the business activity. For example, the BE used by finance staff is not identical to the BE used for sales. As to what the existing relationship(s) is/are concerning LSP varieties and BE, Dieter Thoma (2011: 98) notes that "Business English is theoretically no different from other LSP varieties because it is determined by the content of a discipline and thus by specialized knowledge." This is to say that BE is simply a matter of what domain specialization it is used for. Oversimplifying the concept, it is the language applied to communicate in business for both "communication with the public and communication within (intra) a company or between (inter) companies." (Dudley-Evans and St. John, 1998: 45). Leo Jones and Richard Alexander (2000: 7) argue that "Business English isn't a special language with a special grammar- it's simply ENGLISH USED IN BUSINESS SITUATIONS. The Words professional people tend to use and understand when talking about their own or other people's working lives might justifiably be defined as 'Business English.**"** In his turn, Ammon (1998) among other linguists, identifies languages for specific purposes based on Halliday *et al.* approach (1964), categorizing them as 'dialects' or rather 'sociolects' (Dieter Thoma, 2011: 92). However, Pickett (cited in Teodora Popescu, 2011: 25-26) offers a new dimension to the term dialect with the idea of a language of specific purposes, suggesting the notion of 'ergolect' meaning 'work language'. BE "…is clearly a dialect of English but not exclusively of England. Indeed, it is not a dialect defined by place at all but by activity, occupation, subject matter or situation. For this we might coin the term ergolect - work language, though for many years linguists have been using the term register. (Pickett 1989:5)" On the opposite, Hartmut Schröder (1991a:6) views that "LSPs are functional languages whose main purpose is to make subject-oriented communication as effective as possible; they have nothing to do with sociolects." In his turn, Hewing (2003), in his research on the growth of BE, finds out that it is the fastest-growing branch of ESP. Sylvie Donna (2000: 2-3) also sees BE as a very specific discipline that contains a large range of languages, which makes it a discipline by itself. Hence, she compared it directly to GE.

> Business English has much in common with general EFL, but in many ways, it is very different since the aims of a course may be quite different from those of a general English course. Aims, whether broad or narrow for a particular course, will always relate to students' work… The purpose of a Business English course is to fulfill students' work-related needs. These are usually very specific and cover a wide range of languages.

Understanding scope of BE is essential for comprehending its position, which extends beyond being a mere language subset developing as a distinct genre. This transition to an independent discipline is attributed to the recognition of its unique linguistic demands, specific target audience, and specialized content. In earlier times and according to Zuocheng Zhang (2007: 409) “Business English practitioners draw on ESP for tenets of teaching and methods of discovering learner needs, developing and selecting materials.” However, recent times show other ways of viewing BE. Researchers and practitioners are more likely to see BE as an ‘independent discipline’ that deserves to be given attention as such (Zuocheng Zhang, 2007). It is rather seen as independent in content, practice, and the different genres of communication. According to Nickerson and Planken (2016: 12) these studies “… have not only provided insights into the contextual and situational factors that shape and influence its use, but have also described the characteristics of Business English. Such studies have primarily aimed to provide insights into the discursive and professional practices of business people who use English for work in an international arena.”

Another purpose of these studies, which seek to identify BE as distinct from the other LSPs focuses on the role BE plays to bridge the gap between the learners’ needs and the workplace requirements. Hailin Liu (2015: 1594-1600) sees the vigorous changes BE is witnessing as showing some tendency toward its development as an independent discipline or a subject orientation in business linguistics. Furthermore, its fast development as a lingua franca in the business world (Hewings, 2003) makes the researchers see it also distinct from ESP, which is more of a school domain, unlike BE, which is a workplace domain. Though O’Sullivan (2006: 6-7) did not provide any definition of BE, he argues, according to some empirical findings provided by lexicostatisticians between the 1970s and the 1980s that “there is a clearly definable language of business.” In fact, BE shows some close relationships to ESP in terms of tailoring c ontents to the users for their specific purposes while BE focuses on one purpose among ESP purposes which is business.

Earlier and academically speaking, scholars considered BE as a branch or division of ESP with some specificity. Though Nadežda Stojković (2019:36) notes "… English for business purposes or business English is difficult to define and limit in linguistic terms." Dudley-Evans and St. John (1998:31) observe a clear emergence of BE, quoting them, "One major change has been the emergence of Business English as a major strand of ESP teaching. Early ESP was dominated by English for Science and Technology…However; in the 1990s…the largest area of growth is Business English". Rosa Giménez Moreno (2010: 100) claims that "the term [BE] can be used to describe courses that range from an essentially English for General Purposes course that includes the teaching of some business lexis, to very specific courses, either in particular skills such as participating in or chairing meetings or report writing or in particular disciplines such as finance or marketing".

In an attempt to delimit the place of BE within ESP in general, Dudley-Evans and St. John (1996) argue that most definitions (Robinson, 1991; Strevens,1988; Munby, 1978; and Dudley-Evans, 1991) consider ESP an umbrella term including two broad divisions, English for Academic Purposes (EAP) - referring to the language skills required by non-native speakers for the purposes of study at tertiary level -, and EOP which refers to that ESP used in any work-related courses for managers, technicians or very specific task related courses for unskilled workers.

Given this display of the subdivisions and the corresponding purposes they are used for, Dudley-Evans and St. John 1996:1) note that “the term Business English does not fit neatly these categories (Johnson, 1993, Pickett, 1996 and 1989). It largely deals with adult learners either working or preparing to work in a business context, but may include Academic Business English.” In their classification of ESP by experience and professional areas, Dudley-Evans and St. John (1998: 6-7) establish a hierarchy relationship between BE and EOP, stating that “This classification places EBP as a category within EOP…A business purpose is however, an occupational purpose, so it is logical to see it as part of EOP.”

Within this line of observation, which considers BE or EBP as a workplace domain having a relationship with EOP, Brian Paltridge and Sue Starfield (2014: 195) reveal that “The literature of business communication considerably enlarged the original, narrow view of Business English as the teaching of the language for vocational purposes through linking linguistic performance with actual business activities.” In a similar way to the subdivisions of EAP into EGAP and ESAP, Dudley-Evans and St. John (1998: 55) consider BE as a large area that can be divided into other sub-categories on the basis of further specificity: English for General Business Purposes (EGBP) and English for Specific Business Purposes (ESBP). “English for General Business Purposes (EGBP) courses are usually for pre-experience learners or those at the very early stages of their career.” That is to say, learners who are looking for basic knowledge for their future business jobs or those who may need the general background to be integrated into their recent business careers for which EGBP courses are appropriate. For Mark Ellis and Christine Johnson (1994: 117), general business coursebook packages aim to be a ‘comprehensive course’; that “it will try to deal with all the aspects of the language and skills development at the level specified on its cover.”

They further reveal that:

> Some coursebooks have an ongoing story-line which constrains the users to work sequentially through the course. (Video courses are often constructed in this way-for example, the BBC's *Bid for Power*.) Other coursebooks are modular in construction, which gives the trainer the flexibility to select the elements that are felt to be most useful, and in any order that seems appropriate. These general business courses cannot address any job-specific interests (for example, accounting) and usually select business themes that are of interest to a wide audience. (Ellis and Johnson, 1994: 118)

In the case of experienced learners who need to sharpen their focus on English, courses are designed in a specific area of ESBP. For Dudley-Evans and St. John (1998: 56) "ESBP courses are run for job-experienced learners who bring business knowledge and skills to the language learning situation. These courses are carefully tailored and likely to focus on one or two language skills and specific business communicative events." These courses are meant for more specific work, either for carefully selected homogenous groups from one company or in specific skills such as running or participating in meetings, negotiations, or writing letters, memos, or reports. As regards Business skills training materials, Ellis and Johnson (1994:122-123) state that they "provide a bridge between Business English materials and authentic materials. They are produced for training purposes… .They are valuable for trainers and learners… .Even job-experienced learners may learn something from them (for example, how to-co-operate with others to solve problems, how to negotiate more effectively)."

As concerns the aspects of BE, Ellis and Johnson (1994: 7) distinguish three main elements that mark BE: 'sense of purpose', 'social aspect', and 'clear communication'. They consider the sense of purpose to be "the most important characteristic of exchange in the context of meetings, telephone calls and discussions. Language is used to achieve an end, and its successful use is seen in terms of successful outcomes to the business transaction or event".

> The business learners use the language to achieve a specific goal. They are likely to apply the same critical standards they use in business to the language training and training material. They will be critical of their own performance of the performance of the trainer. The majority of them are going to evaluate what they are doing and what is being done, as the classroom setting is influenced by their sense of purpose. Even the material used in class, exercises and activities must acknowledge it. Therefore, the teacher must plan with extreme care when selecting material for the classroom. (Stevanovic and Stancovic, 2015:42)

No one denies that in business, the drive for competition is always there, either between corporations or the employees themselves working for the same company. This fact explains why the ‘performance objectives’ (Ellis and Johnson, 2014) in BE represent a prime interest in relation to the educational ones, and perhaps another important factor that impacts the workplace is globalization. Because working in an environment where co-workers from different nationalities are becoming more pronounced, communication jumped to another level where cultural diversity reigns. Choudhury, S. K., *et al*. (2011:72) claim,

> The workplace has changed dramatically in recent years. Globalization has brought people from different parts of the world and with different skills together. Markets all over the world offer international products and services. Outsourcing is the buzzword in today’s business world. This global dimension to business has brought about a multiculturally diverse workforce…So handling diversity at the workplace becomes an important factor in successful business.

Robinson (1989: 417) in his turn asserts that any time individuals meet in a working environment, "then we find work inspired meanings and functions, and work-inspired text types or genres into which these meanings and functions are organized". The language of socializing, then, occupies an important place in a working environment where local workers come into contact with others from different language backgrounds and cultures than theirs. Thus, there is a need to learn behaviors that are culturally appropriate to the working environment. As Evan Frendo (2005: 61) notes,

> Business English learners need to use the language in a wide variety of situations, for example socializing: (…) business English learners often need to have certain skills in order to do the job properly, no matter what language is being used. Socializing is one such skill, and is relevant because such a lot of business-related interaction is done in places like restaurants, airports, before and after meetings, or standing chatting at trade fair stands.

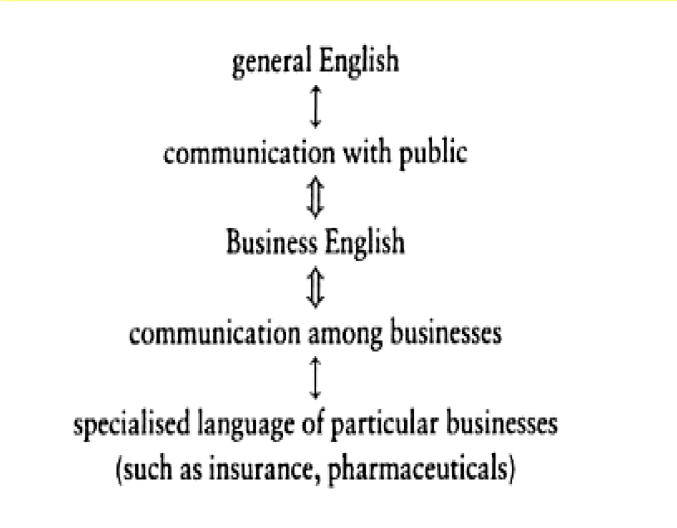
Dudley-Evans and St. John (1996:28) also consider socializing to be a fundamental asset in good business communication as it enables users to establish good working relations using less formal channels through the selection of materials dealing with the social aspects of communication rather than building good relationships. The third aspect concerns “clear communication”, as misunderstandings may be costly. According to Ellis and Johnson (1994: 9), “Information has to be conveyed with minimum risk of misunderstanding, and the time for processing … needs to be short. Therefore there is a preference for clear, logical, thought emphasized by the kinds of words that indicate the logical process.” More than that, BE includes the factor of risk, which means that any inaccuracy in the language performance could charge the company and “mistakes and misunderstandings could cost the company dearly" (Ellis and Johnson, 1994: 7). Mary Ellen Guffey and Carolyn M. Seefer (2015: 4) note:

> No company wants to send out messages that contain errors, nor does a company want its employees making errors when speaking with customers or giving business presentations. Such errors caues customers and others outside the company to question the organization's competence, cerdibility, professionalism. No one wants to invest in or purchase products or services from a company that can't get it right.

They further reveal some impact on the employee himself. Errors, be they written in a document or oral in a presentation in whatever genre, put into question the employee's educational level, competence, and professionalism, and conclude that those who write and express ideas well and accurately are the ones who are noticed in the workplace, who are hired, promoted, and valued. When it comes to the teaching aspect, BE teaching can be completely different from teaching GE because BE progresses as a consequence of the emergence of further specific requirements for specific field services. "Teaching Business English involves teaching English to adults working in businesses of one kind or another, or preparing to work in the field of business." (Sylvie Donna, 2000:2). Even though BE shares much with EFL, it still varies in several aspects because the content of the course, as Donna (2000: 2) argues, "may be quite radically different from those of a general English course." that is, that of an EFL one, for it has to be more pointed to fulfill the working requirements.

In his turn, Dudley-Evans and St. John (1998: 54) reveal that "Pickett highlighted the fact that there is more than one face to business communication with some of it being 'a lot nearer the everyday language spoken by the general public than many other segments of ESP' (Pickett, 1986:16)". He conceives BE in a layered form suggesting "two particular aspects to business communication: communication with the public and communication within (intra) a company or between (inter)companies" (ibid) .The business language used with the general public is certainly different from the one used with businessmen of whatever business domain. As *figure 1.1* shows, BE may be confused or appear to be rather GE when business topics are dealt 'with the public', but it certainly differs totally when only businessmen are involved with exactly the same business topics. The controversy among scholars to demarcate BE and its variance from other LSP varieties took an empirical approach to the issue. Furthermore, the problem of indeterminacy, or the unexplained variance in business language, pushed scholars versed in the field of language for business issues to investigate the theoretical problems encountered in BE.

Figure 1.1. Levels in business communication



Source : Dudley-Evans and St. John (1998: 55)

1.3 Business English: Theoretical Issues

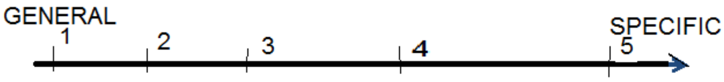
Teachers and methodologists agree that BE differs from GE in terms of teaching strategies. Research in this area of teaching has developed different approaches, all of which have been decanted into the development of BE teaching. First, the distinction was based on terminology or specialist vocabulary, which later moved more to skill development emphasis. Important literature has been produced focusing on this optical angle of viewing BE. All debates and studies around LSP have focused on the idea of specificity, which in turn has revealed related ideas to issues of specificity. Some views on specificity emphasize the importance of this characteristic and its relation to authenticity, 'tolerance testing', and native speakerism (Christina Van Der Walt, 1999).

1.3.1 Specificity Issues

As shown in the figure 1.2 below , Dudley-Evans and St. John (1998:8-9) conceive

> … the presentation of the whole of the English Language Teaching, on a continuum that runs from clearly definable General Language English courses through to very specific ESP courses … It is only in position 5 that the course becomes really specific. The course can be geared to the specific needs of the target situation and of the individuals concerned, and can make extensive use of authentic materials in their own subject area.

Figure.1.2. Continuum for ELT course types



Source : Dudley-Evans and St. John (1998:9)

For Ann Johns (2006:684):

> The principal tenet of specific purposes language teaching is that of ‘specificity’: each pedagogical situation and each group of learners is considered to be new and different. Ideally, a unique curriculum and collection of classroom activities is designed for each group of students and teachers in every new context . No single approach , no new or old orthodoxy, is appropriate for all pedagogical situations . Thus central to LSP pedagogy must be the determination of the unique characteristics of each teaching /learning situation, and the exploitation of these characteristics for development of syllabuses , of classroom activities , and of evaluation and assessment.

Hutchinsonn and Waters (1980: 178) in their turn state :

> A glance at a mechanical engineering class in a technical college … will reveal that the topic is concerned with mechanical engineering , that there are texts about mechanical engineering , and so on; but what the students are expected to cope with should not be confused with what the students require in order to cope. A distinction needs to be drawn between the end … and the means. It is necessary to examine the underlying competence which the learner must bring to the mechanical engineering classroom, or to the study of any specialized subject.

These explain that specificity as an approach is a matter of addressing questions of what and how to teach, to whom, and why. ‘What’ suggests the idea of the selection of authentic materials, while ‘how’ emphasizes the manner in which to present the ‘what content'. Speaking about 'to whom’, clearly reflects the importance of the group or the audience for whom the selection is made. Finally, ‘why’ targets the learners’ sense of purpose; that is, the extent to which the how and what satisfy the learners’ targeted needs. Sandra Gollin-Kies *et al.* (2016: 5) report that the use of the term ‘specific’ implies the possibility to delimit what the practitioners intend to address, raising a number of questions on the basis of which specificity can be determined, namely, "…on the general functions ,such as categorizing, comparing , evaluating describing and summarizing…on the basis of topic , or discipline – the language of mathematics, of accounting , of animal husbandry , of biology, of geology...on the basis of text-types, or genres-the language of the memorandum, the e-mail message ,the peace treaty, the research article, the press release , the parliamentary debate…on the basis of targeted situation – a restaurant , a business meeting , a lecture -theatre …" In her turn, Ann Johns (2006: 318) says:

> The principal tenet of specific purposes language teaching is that of 'specificity': each pedagogical situation and each group of learners is considered to be new and different. Ideally, a unique curriculum and collection of classroom activities is designed for each group of students and teachers in every new context . No single approach , no new or old orthodoxy, is appropriate for all pedagogical situations .

Considering the teaching of ESP as a way of teaching a different type of L2 (Alcaraz Varo, 2000; Saorin Iborra, 2003), and having as "the main objective of achieving fluency and effectiveness before correction" (Brieger, 1997), Jorge Soto Almela (2017: 238) notes " … English has become a real means or tool that adapts to the different professionals needs. A clear example of this type of language with specific purposes and obvious needs is Business English. The specificity and concreteness of this ESP make it an axcellent context in which students will be able to put into practice mediation skills that allow them to facilitate communication between two partners who do not share the same language." The specificity of BE is further noted with much acuity in its stretchy feature of specificity from one specific working domain to another. Because of the lack of a well-defined common core lexicon and grammar in a business language, unlike "…a relatively well-agreed core of semi-technical lexis and grammar that is widely used in academic scientific and technological subjects" (St. John 1996:5) , Santiago Posteguillo and Juan Carlos Palmer (1997:108) in their study regarding the layers of specificity in BE consider the absence of an established common core to be "…directly related to the variation of business English discourse across set of different layers of specificity which account for the distinct use of grammar, style and technical content within this specific discourse".

This specificity of BE required the development of more specific oral and written skills such as business discussions, giving information, telephoning, business correspondence, socializing (Ellis and Johnson 1994), oral presentations (Comfort, 1995), and meetings (Handford, 2010). In the search to identify the degree of specificity as regards these specific skills together with genres and relative necessary tasks, James Dean Brown (2016: 36-37) shows how Huh (2006) in the review of some key studies, among which - those of St. John

(1996), who “examined the available research and materials available at that time in terms of the language, skills, business knowledge and cultural issues by people learning business English”, Louhiala-Salminen (1996), Who “examined the communication needs (especially written communication) for Finnish business people” , Barbara *et al.* (1996), Who “studied the relative needs in national and international business setting in brazil for English” , Grosse (2004), who “examined the distance-learning business English needs for a class in Mexico “, and Chew (2005) who examined the English needed by 16 newly graduated employees in various departments of four Hong Kong banks.”- Summarized the Business English tasks that she identified as a result of the review revealing that “all needs assessments are situation specific.” (See *Table 1.1* below)

Table1.1. Business English tasks identified through literature review (adapted from Huh, 2006, p. 15)

	St. John	Louhiala-Salminen	Barbara et al.	Grosse	Chew
Correspondence	• telephoning • writing correspondence	• letters • faxes • telexes • email	• telephone calls	• letters • faxes • phone call • email	• email (request) • faxes
Writing a document	• report writing	• reports • official documents (e.g., contracts)	• reports • memos • prospectuses • proposals • projects • meetings • presentations		• minutes, letters, memos • review report, requests • procedural guides • proposals, daily commentary • contracts and agreements • writing rules and regulations • opinion letters • internal newsletter • press releases and invitations • research analysis reports
Business Meeting	• presentations • meetings • negotiating		• seminars • teleconferences	• meetings • negotiation • conference • products exhibition • presentation	• seminar presentations • meetings • conferences • road shows
Business trip			• visits	• business trips	
Attending foreign guests			• dealing with guests	• reception of visitors	
Translation		• translating			• translating (customers' opinions, reports)
Readings related to the job		• prof. Journals • other publications		• prof. readings	
Others	• socializing	• revising English text	• interviews • purchasing	• Internet • face-to-face interaction • training programs	• reviewing & updating clients files • spread sheets (charts and tables) • reading manuals • credit reviews research • oral command to colleagues

Source: Brown, James. D. (2016:37)

Task specificity enables the learners to increase their level of performance in a given skill, and in order to assess their performance, specific assessments need to be developed. In this, many specialists raise the issue of substantiating the testing specificity of languages for business purposes, whereby the issue of test specificity emerged as an important aspect when considering testing (Dieter Thoma, 2011).

1.3.1.1 Language for Specific Purposes Tests

Assessment is a process of measurement that uses testing as a method. As regards language, tests constitute an important procedure for providing feedback on learning and teaching quality. Bachman (1990: 20) defines tests “a measurement instrument designed to elicit a specific sample of an individual’s behavior”. Brown (2004) quoted in Neslihen Onder Ozdemir (2016:198) defines testing “a method of measuring a person’s ability, knowledge, or performance of students and a range of professionals in a given domain.” In her turn, Alenka Tratnik (2008: 4) presents three views of ESP testing,

> Firstly, the field of ESP testing has been seen as a separate and distinctive part of a more general movement of English language testing, focusing on measuring specific uses of English language among identified groups of people, such as doctors, nurses, lawyers, civil engineers, tour guides, air traffic controllers, and others. Secondly, ESP testing has been viewed in the broader context of the teaching and learning process. From the perspective of Dudley-Evans and St. John (1998) assessment does not stand alone, but occupies a prominent place in the ESP process, giving an ESP teacher a wealth of information on the effectiveness and quality of learning and teaching. Thirdly, tests enhance the learning process and act as a learning device.

As regards Wu and Stansfield (2001) “the line between a LSP test and a test for general purposes is often blurred.” (cited in Sierocka , 2014: 72). In her turn, Halina Sierocka (2014: 72) states “ LSP testing is not at variance with other types of language tests as far as the qualities of good practice are concerned, as any good test (irrespective of the fact of whether it measures general or specific purpose language proficiency) should be reliable, valid, authentic and practical.” She added further that “there is a limited literature to defining the LSP testing.” (Sierocka, 2014: 73) However, Douglas (2000) offers a comprehensive study on assessing languages for specific purposes. Indeed, Dieter Thoma (2011: 78) considers Douglas’s works (1997, 2000, 2001, 2005) to be “the only serious attempt to develop a theoretical framework for LSP testing” in addition to (O’Sullivan, 2006). In an attempt to inquire about the way specific language tests are related to other types of language tests, Douglas (2000: 9) argues that before arriving at a useful and precise definition of LSP testing, there is a “need to discuss a number of related concepts in language testing that form the background to LSP testing. These include, communicative testing, general proficiency testing, criterion-referenced testing, and the notion of authenticity.” According to him,

> A specific purpose language test is one in which test content and methods are derived from an analysis of a specific purpose target language use situation, so that test tasks

> and content are authentically representative of tasks in the target situation, allowing for an interaction between the test taker's language ability and specific purpose content knowledge, on the one hand, and the test tasks on the other. Such a test allows us to make inferences about a test taker's capacity to use language in the specific purpose domain. (Douglas, 2000: 19)

1.3.1.2 Business English Tests

Barry O'Sullivan (2006: 13-14) discusses the emergence of BE testing in the late 1970s. The first test to emerge was the Test of English for International Communication (TOEIC). It was developed by Educational Testing Services (ETS) in the USA and introduced in 1979. Then, in the mid-1980s, there was a move to testing the language for business purposes in the UK with the Royal Society of Art (RSA) and then administered as the Certificate of International Business and Trade (CEIBT). In the early 1990s, two BE tests were developed: the Business English Certificate (BEC) and the Business Language Testing System (BULATS). Business language testing is a specific purpose language testing, and "testing Business English is a form of testing language for specific purposes (LSP)." (Dieter Thoma, 2011: 77) For Douglas (2000: 1), "It is important to note that tests are not *either* general purpose or specific purpose- all tests are developed for some purpose- But there is a continuum of specificity from very general to very specific, and a given test may fall at any point on the continuum."

O' Sullivan (2006:15) adopted Douglas' (2000) approach to LSP test theory by placing language tests on a continuum of test specificity with "unspecified purpose" tests at one end and "highly specified purpose" tests at the other, as illustrated by figure (1.6) below, which shows a view of test specificity for air traffic controllers described by Teasdale (1994) and notes, "The notion of 'degree of specificity' is central to any definition of a specific purpose language test- since the impact of other factors will vary, depending on the positioning of a test along a specificity continuum".(O' Sullivan, 2006:15)

Figure 1.3. A View of Test Specificity

Source: O'Sullivan, B (2006: 14)

A highly specified test contains more ‘non-language factors’ than other tests on the continuum simply because it tends to reflect the candidate's language ability in a very specific Business context. Thus, Business skills are thoroughly examined here. On the other hand, tests that tend to approach the unspecified purpose area of the continuum are rich in terms of generalities in Business language and are more likely to evaluate language knowledge than Business skills. O'Sullivan (2006) says “if we accept that tests can be developed along a specificity continuum, then it logically follows that a test which appears to be placed somewhere other than the extremes of the continuum will have the potential to be either more or less generalisable.” (O'Sullivan, op cit: 14). Moreover, Thoma (2011: 100) claims that the specificity continuum “can be understood in the sense of varying degrees of ‘situational authenticity’, whereas the elicited “cognitive processing’ represents ‘interactional authenticity’”. For him, the degree to which a test is considered authentic is important in understanding the specificity. In order to understand this relationship, it is necessary to discuss the authenticity issue in BE.

1.3.2 Authenticity Issues

Authenticity issues were first discussed in the nineteenth century when Henry Sweet (1899) wrote about and tackled authentic materials use in language teaching (Alex Gilmore, 2007). Henry Sweet (1899: 177) points out the advantages of authenticity compared to ‘artificial texts’. For him, “The great advantage of natural, idiomatic texts over artificial 'methods' or 'styles' is that they do justice to every feature of the language…The artificial systems, on the other hand, tend to cause incessant repetition of certain grammatical constructions, certain elements of the vocabulary, certain combinations of words to the almost total exclusion of others which are equally, or perhaps even more, essential.” (cited in Gilmore, 2007: 1)

In the twentieth century, different attempts focused on the comparison of teaching methods and their relevance (Gilmore, 2007); there was no room to bring the issue of authenticity to the surface. However, it reappeared in the 1970s with Chomsky (1965) and Hymes (1972) when the involvement of communicative competence and contextualized communication started to predominate. Hence, the introduction of authentic text was given much importance over linguistic forms. The debate around the concept of authenticity and its role has become more complex over-time as it has extended to other areas of study entailing pragmatics (Warner, 2013), (Östman, J. O. & J. Verschueren, 2011), cross-cultural studies, information and communication technology (ICT) (Dara *et al.*, 2018), linguistics, and anthropology (Véronique Lacoste and Jakob Leimgruber, 2011). Basically, according to the Oxford Learner's Dictionary (2000), authenticity, in general, is a term that describes the quality of being 'genuine' and 'true', but in the case of language teaching, Gilmore (2007: 3-4) notes that at least eight broad definitions emerged in the literature, which are important to present before relating it to BE. Authenticity is defined in relation to,

(i) the language produced by native speakers for native speakers in a particular language community (Porter & Roberts 1981; Little, Devitt & Singleton 1989);

(ii) the language produced by a real speaker/writer for a real audience, conveying a real message (Morrow 1977; Porter & Roberts 1981; Swaffar1985; Nunan 1988/9; Benson & Voller 1997);

(iii) the qualities bestowed on a text by the receiver, in that it is not seen as something inherent in a text itself, but is imparted on it by the reader/listener(Widdowson 1978/9; Breen 1985);

(iv) the interaction between students and teachers and is a 'personal process of engagement' (van Lier1996: 128);

(v) the types of task chosen (Breen 1985; Bachman1991; Van Lier 1996; Benson & Voller 1997;Lewkowicz 2000; Guariento & Morley 2001);

(vi) the social situation of the classroom (Breen 1985;Arnold 1991; Lee 1995; Guariento & Morley2001; Rost 2002)

(vii) assessment (Bachman 1991; Bachman & Palmer1996; Lewkowicz 2000);

(viii) culture, and the ability to behave or think like a target language group in order to be recognized and validated by them (Kramsch 1998).

Celce-Murcia, M. and E. Olshtain (2000:195) also define authenticity in language teaching in relation to the communicative approach and point out two main aspects: the language used in the classroom and the tasks applied in the learning process. When it comes to ESP, the main authenticity issue seems to arise between the authenticity of the text and the authenticity of the purpose**.** Dudley-Evans and St. John (1998:27) claim that the "issue that caused a good deal of controversy in the development of ESP was the question of whether texts…should be authentic or not. The exact meaning of authenticity has often been unclear". Illustrating the case of listening practice, Penny Ur (1984: 23) distinguishes between ‘genuine’ authenticity and ‘imitation’ authenticity. She explained that the latter is "an approximation to the real thing, and is planned to take into account the learners’ level of ability and particular difficulties…if the texts are carefully enough graded, prepared and administered."

1.3.2.1 Test Authenticity

Bachman (1990:9) observes that “All tests must be based on a clear definition of language abilities, whether this derives from a language teaching syllabus or a general theory of language ability and utilizes a well determined procedure in order to elicit language performance”, and asserts that “designing a language test is a rather complex undertaking”, and perhaps the major aspect when it comes to test complexity is related to authenticity as for Milanovic and Weir,(2004: 15) “Authenticity is a long standing concern in language testing as well as in teaching , with the oft-repeated mantra that if we wish to test and predict a candidate’s ability to communicate in the real world ,then texts and tasks should be as similar to real world as possible.” According to Bachman (1990: 9) “authenticity in general or the authenticity of a given test has been highly problematic” revealing that language testers have used different terms: such as ‘pragmatic’ (Oller, 1979), ‘communicative’ (Morrow 1979, Wesche 1981, Canale 1983), ‘functional’ (Carroll 1980, Farhady 1980), ‘performance’ (Jones 1979b, Courechene & De bagheera 1985), and ‘authentic’ Spolsky 1985, Shohamy & Reves 1985) in an attempt to “… adequately reflect ‘real life language use ‘ in language tests .”

As to the attainment of authenticity Bannur M. F *et al* (2016: 473) note that “Though the full authenticity is not attainable in the language test, the settings selected for both testing and teaching should be made as realistic as possible in terms of various critical contextual features”. Yet, according to Douglas (2000), in order for the test to represent a specific purpose field in a measurable way, it has to be authentic. He assumes that specificity and authenticity of tests are two essential features of BE tests in order to assess the performance of the test taker in both language and skills.

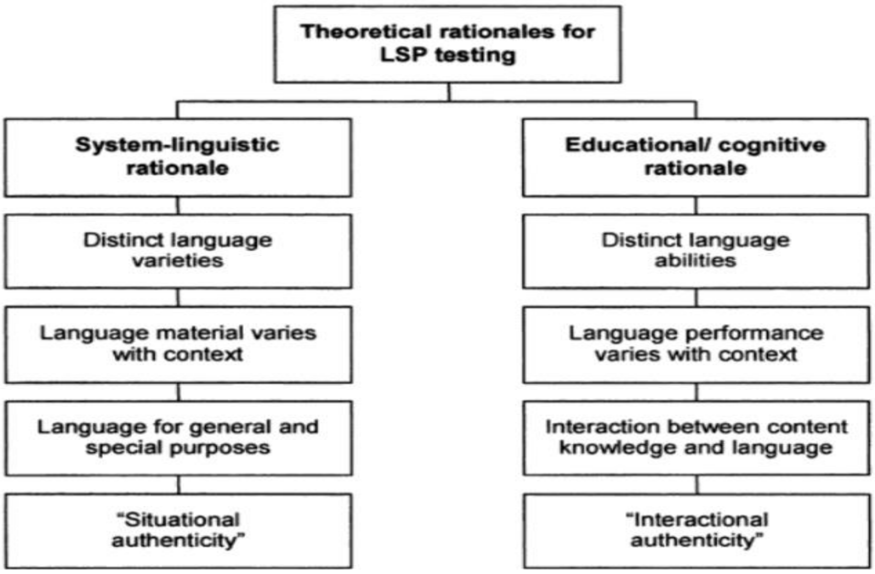
> …it is not enough merely to give test takers topics relevant to the field they are studying or working in: the material the test is based on must engage test takers in a task in which both language ability and knowledge of the field interact with the test content in a way which is similar to the target language use situation. The test task, in other words, must be authentic for it to represent a specific purpose field in any measurable way. (Douglas, 2000: 6)

In the same line of thought, Bachman (1990: 10) believes that the key to solving the debate about test authenticity "lies in specifying the characteristics of test tasks and test methods sufficiently well that we can begin to empirically examine test takers' performance on different types of test tasks" However, Milanovic and Weir believe that authenticity in tests is difficult to measure in any way, stating that Lewkowicz (1997) reports some disturbing findings that she depicted from different studies.

> Firstly, she found that neither native nor non-native speaker judges could identify whether listening or reading texts were or were not genuine. Secondly, students did not perceive test authenticity as an important quality that would affect their performance- they tended to be pragmatic, looking at whether they were familiar with the test format and whether they thought they would do well on the tests. Thirdly, moderating committees responsible for developing tests claimed to be authentic to target-use situations are shown rarely to appeal to the criterion of authenticity when selecting texts and tasks on a communicative test (Milanovic and Weir, 2004: 16)

As mentioned earlier in the introduction, authenticity has been approached in applied linguistics since the late nineteenth century, and during the 1970s and 1980s, the concept of authenticity in language teaching and testing concentrated mainly on the use of genuine texts until 1991, when Bachman introduces two approaches to the concept of authenticity: situational authenticity and interactional authenticity. He points out the difference between the two notions in his work. Likewise, Thoma (2011:78) thinks that these two concepts of authenticity serve as a 'theoretical foundation' of LSP testing and demonstrates this in the following diagram.

Figure: 1.4. Authenticity Theoretical Foundations



Source: Dieter Thoma (2011: 78)

1.3.2.1.1 Situational Authenticity

Bachman (1991: 690) defines situational authenticity "as the perceived relevance of the test method characteristics to the features of a specific target language use situation. Thus, for a test task to be perceived as situationally authentic, the characteristics of the test task need to be perceived as corresponding to the features of a target language use situation". As to the degree of authenticity, situational authenticity can be defined as the close replication of the real, specific context in the test. In other words, the 'language use domain' must be reflected as accurately as possible in the test design. Stuart D. Shaw and Cyril J. Weir (2007:10) argue:

> The concern with situational authenticity requires writers to respond to context which stimulate 'real life' in terms of critical parameters without necessarily replicating it exactly. As far as possible, attempts are made to use situations and tasks which are likely to be familiar and relevant to the intended test taker. In providing contexts, the purpose for carrying out a particular writing task is made clear, as well as the intended audience, and the criterion for success is completing the task.

Douglas (2000:17) says that the analysis of tasks in the target language use situation enables one to derive 'authentic characteristics, which are the main components of situational authenticity, and notes that the latter "can be demonstrated by making the relationship between the test task characteristics and the features of tasks in the target language use…". In his attempt to propose new frameworks for developing and validating tests of reading, listening, speaking, and writing, Cyril Weir (2005: 56) states that "Full authenticity of setting is obviously not attainable in the classroom or the language test, but the settings selected for testing and teaching should be made as realistic as possible in terms of as many criterial contextual features as possible.” It is then assumed that situational authenticity is quite important in language testing in general and in specific language testing in particular, among which business tests are considered to be situationally authentic.

1.3.2.1.2 Interactional Authenticity

Unlike situational authenticity, interactional authenticity, using O’sullivan‘s (2006: 7) words, is still not completely ‘conceptualised’. He states that "Test developers and researcher tend to rely on anecdotal evidence or ‘expert’ judgments to make decisions on interactional authenticity of the test task." But Bachman (1991: 691) makes a clear distinction when he reminds us of Widdowson’s (1978) definition, which is a degree of language ability in accomplishing the test task. He argues "In contrast to situational authenticity, where the focus is on the relationship between the test task and nontest language use, interactional authenticity resides in interaction between the test taker and the test task."

After all, the main objective of test authenticity is to bridge the gap between testing and the test taker‘s real world. As Katharina Eder (2011:2) notes, "authenticity is regarded as an important feature of language tests... thus an important aspect of testing since it describes the relationship between the test and the real world." Testing in a situation and testing outside a situation is necessary to establish the validity and reliability of tests. In other words, the only way to test a BE users’ competence is through their performance within a business situation. According to Bachmen (1991:692), first, because both situational and interactional authenticities are relative, we refer to "low" and "high" authenticity rather than "authentic" and "inauthentic." Second, we cannot tell how authentic a test task is just by looking at it; we must also consider the characteristics of the test takers and the specific target language use context. Third, certain test tasks may be suitable for their intended purposes even though they are low in either situational or interactional authenticity. Finally, in either designing new tests or analyzing existing tests, estimates of authenticity are only best guesses.

The concept of relativity in authenticity discussed above paved the way to discuss another issue which is ‘tolerance testing’ (Christa Van Der Walt, 1999: 50-51). Walt claims that “teachers of Business English have to expose their students to a variety of accents and real-life communication situations where strategic competence and intercultural competence can be developed.” and one way to evaluate their language ability and performance is by ‘real receivers’ or ‘real-life consumers’.

1.3.2.2 Tolerance Testing

According to Walt (1999: 51), the term ‘tolerance testing’ was used by Faerch *et al.* (1984) to describe "the analysis of learner language" from the perspective of the receiver in a communicative event’." She also added that the evaluation of the learner language by ‘real receivers’ opens up a multitude of opportunities "to test students’ intra- and intercultural communication skills by determining the extent to which real-life consumers are ‘tolerant of students’ written and spoken communication." (Walt, op cit: 51) because what might not be accepted by the language teachers can be accepted by the ‘real receivers’. For example, most of the time, the BE teachers do not accept a Business letter that does not contain salutations, while a business person, ‘the real-life consumer’, tolerates it as long as it is polite and communicates a clear message. Writing for the business context does not always obey the same rules, as in some cases rapidity and shortness of the written message are required, while in other cases longer, well-explained writing is needed. Most of the time, business courses do not reflect real-life business contexts. Whether the ‘Real receiver’ is a native or non-native speaker of English, the measurement scale is defined by the effectiveness of the message. However, a debate is being raised about whether native-speaker norms must be the standard when it comes to language evaluation. Martin Gill (2012: 273) points out that "the figure of the native speaker has long been instrumental in defining the apparently commonsense linguistic boundaries of authentic belonging, in relation to which the non-native speaker has been positioned".

1.3.3 Native-speaker Norm Issue

Native and non-native trends as regards teaching and testing foreign languages constitute a controversial subject that has been addressed by different linguists in general. For Marianne Hundt (2009: 457), "The native speaker is a problematic concept in that it is used to refer to both ideal native speaker of certain linguistic theories and real world native speakers, but the distinction is not always kept clear." In her turn, Ingrid Piller (2001:14) claims that the concept of a native speaker is ‘useless’ and should be eliminated;

> Linguistically, the native speaker concept is useless and should therefore be discarded. Socially, the "birthright mentality" that goes with it is debilitating and unfair, and should therefore be discarded, too. As discourse analysts, however, we should carefully examine discourses about native speakers and the mother tongue as instances of the discursive construction of difference, deficit, and dominance.

Criticizing the native speaker ideology, Andrian Holliday (2017:1) defines it as a traditional orientation in English language teaching based on the dichotomous view of ‘us’ and ‘them’, where the English native speaker is considered to be the ‘norm’, the possessor of the English language, and the innately talented teaching experts. For him

> Native-speakerism is an ideology that upholds the idea that so-called ‘native speakers’ are the best models and teachers of English because they represent a ‘Western culture’ from which spring the ideals both of English and of the methodology for teaching it (Holliday, 2005, P. 6)…The association of the “non-native speaker” label with deficiency is also deeply rooted within a wider and equally mistaken Western perception that people from non-Western cultural backgrounds are unable to be critical and self-determined.

According to Greece *et al.* (2014: 938), the native speaker/non-native speaker dichotomy has been discussed by a number of specialists (Cenoz and Gorter, 2011; Cook, 1999, 2007; Holliday, 2006; Kubota, 2009; Leung, Harris, and Rampton, 1999; Rampton, 1990). Some views support the idea of the native speaker as a source of language standards. Alastair Pennycook (1994:175) states that the native speaker is the "idealized person with a complete and possibly innate competence in the language". Similarly, Graham Hall (2011:226) backs the idea that the native speaker reflects a good standard, revealing that "As English has spread more traditional descriptions such as Kachru’s (1985) three-circle categorization of English have ascribed a high status , ’norm providing’ role to the ‘inner circle ‘ countries such as the UK and the US and, therefore, to the native speaker." However, Maggie Charles and Diane Pecorari (2015:25) consider the idea "highly questionable". For example, Creece *et al.* (2014: 938) argue that "in recent times, the attributes of the nonnative speaker teacher have been recognized as a positive model of the successful language learner and as more in touch with their students than the native speaker teacher". While Charles and Pecorari (2015: 25) say if good English is determined by "how effectively it works to communicate content, rather than in terms of how closely it conforms to the native speaker norm, then many of the disadvantages which L2 users of English experience are mitigated". They point out that non-native users of English encounter a lot of difficulties when the native speaker norms are imposed on learning English.

Davies, A. (2003) goes even further to consider the native speaker concept to remain unclear, fluctuating between 'myth and reality', and the relation of the native speaker concept as concerns proficiency is open to question. Indeed, an important question is raised concerning the standard measurements. As Leila B. Lyldyz (2011: 38) observes, "Tests claim to use the native speaker as the standard of measure, but some native speakers do not demonstrate the linguistic and the cognitive patterns attributed to the ideal level that L2 learners strive to attain". In reaction to Ferguson (1983:VII) who revealed that "Linguists… have long given a special place to the native speaker as the only true and reliable source of language data" , Leila B. Lyldyz (2011: 38) argues that "This is not always true we can doubt the concept of the native speaker because native speakers vary from each other in their command of different aspects of language."

Furthermore, Davies (2003: 2) observes that "theoretically… the native speaker concept is rich in ambiguity. It raises, quite centrally, the issue of the relation between the particular and the universal". In their language proficiency development, L2 learners' aim is rather native-like, and any failure is attributed to a deficit in the learner's knowledge. Though equating the native speaker remains far-fetched. Charles and Pecorari (2015:25) say:

> A traditional view of language learning has been to see the ultimate objective as the attainment of native-like proficiency in the target language. Although it is widely acknowledged to be extremely difficult to learn to speak a second language as if it were one's first, this has nonetheless long been seen as the ideal. In this view, if the production of an L2 user of English (or any other language) differs from that of an L1 user, it indicates a deficit in the knowledge of the learner.

In his turn, Ivor Timmis (2002: 248) examined the issue from a different standpoint. In his attempt to investigate the issue of native speaker norms from a pedagogical perspective, comes to the conclusion that "there is still some desire among students to conform to native-speaker norms" whereas "Teachers seem to be moving away from native-speaker norms faster than students are." Considering the impact of expertise in the field of business or technical matters on language proficiency, Carol A. Chapelle and Susan Hunston reveal that:

> Dr Handford takes a refreshingly personal stand. Rather than holding up native speaker interaction as model for all non- native speakers, he deconstructs the notions of 'expert' and 'novice' speaker, nothing that expertise in business or technical matters may intersect with degree of language proficiency in the language in interesting and often unexpected ways. (Michael Handford, 2010: x)

Focusing on the issue of pronunciation in the case of the ESL learners who attempt to achieve "a fully L1 English speaker accent", Leticia Quesada Vázquez (2019: 164-165) explains that this goal is a 'frustrating attempt' that is hardly realized, she argues: "As for ESP students for whom English becomes just another working tool, [as is the case of BE], sounding like a native speaker does not tend to be an appealing aim to achieve, but they would rather work at being understandable when communicating in the target language."

Graham Hall (2011: 226) considers native speakerism to be the main issue related to the spread of English as an international language, henceforth (EIL). He says "Among the issues associated with the spread of English, perhaps the most problematic, and, indeed, paradoxical, is that of the 'native speaker'." He also mentions Kachru (1985) 'Three Circles of English' model (*Inner*[3], *Outer*[4] and *expanding* [5]circles) and argues that "the emergence and potential acceptance of Outer and Expanding Circle Varieties of English challenges the assumption that native speaker norms are necessarily the most appropriate for any given context"

1.3.3.1 Ownership Issues

Given the different varieties of English that emerged at the international level (Braj B. Kachru, et al 2009; Kingsley Bolton, Braj B. Kachru, 2006, Larry Smith, 1981; Andy Kirkpatrik, 2007), it appears that at least two broad varieties of English are distinguished: that of native speakers and that of non-native speakers. The first variety includes those who belong to Kashru's '*Inner* Circle' while the second variety represents those who use the varieties that resulted from different reasons and are used for communication purposes between and among non-native speakers and even native speakers in international settings. Depending on communication purposes, linguists use terms such as international English, a variety that does not belong to anyone and which, according to Holliday (2009: 22), is "negotiated and

[3] "The *Inner* Circle of the model referred to those societies where English is the "primary language", i.e., the USA, the UK, Canada, Australia, and New Zeeland." (Braj, Kachru, 2009: 292)

[4]"The O*uter* Circle was conceived as representing postcolonial Anglophonic contexts, a numerically large and diverse speech community, including such African and Asian societies as Nigeria, Zambia, India, and Singapore." (Braj, Kachru, 2009: 292)

[5] "The Expanding Circle is defined as comprising those areas where English is an "international language" and traditionally regarded as societies learning English as a Foreign Language (EFL). Nations in the Expanding Circle at this time thus include China, Greece, Indonesia, Israel, Japan, Korea, Saudi Arabia, Taiwan, and the USSR (i.e., the former Soviet Union)." (Braj, Kachru, 2009: 292)

developed by ELF speakers themselves rather than imposed from “above” by native speakers.”

Quoting Widdowson (1994:384), Stephanie Hackert (2012: 23) notes

> The very act that English is an international language means that no nation can have custody over it. […] It is a matter of considerable pride and satisfaction or native speakers of English that their language is an international means of communication. But the point is that it is only international to the extent that it is not their language. It is not a possession which they lease out to others, while still retaining the freehold. Other people actually own it.

1.3.3.2 Intelligibility Issues

In addition to the focus on the statistical factor, Nicola Galloway and Heath Rose (2005:14) note that Crystal (2003: 61) identifies three categories: “There are between 320-380 million people who speak English as a first language; … 300-500 million people who speak English as a Second language;[and] …nearly one billion people who speak English as a foreign language, or as a lingua franca.” Other researchers focus on the issue of intelligibility in relation to non-native speakers given the wide varieties that have developed in different countries. Jennifer Jenkins (2000) Sandra Gollin-Kies, etal (2016), Larry Smith (1992) and Smith, L. E., & Nelson, C. L. (1985) among other linguists dealt with the issues of intelligibility. For instance, Yamuna Kachru, Larry E. Smith (2008: 68) observe that “with the global spread of English and the development of multiple varieties of English, issues of intelligibility will continue to be matters of concern.”

As regards the varieties, nowadays, different terms such as world Englishes, each bearing the linguistic, social, and cultural aspects of its users, Global English, English as a lingua franca, EIL, English as an international lingua franca (EILF) and even BE as an international language given its widespread use in the economic and business sectors, are used. Whatever the case of the variety being used and whatever the paradigm being used, the interaction between different non-native speakers from different cultures requires that some factors, such as the linguistic supra-segmental features of the non-native speakers’ languages, which may cause problems of intelligibility, be considered. In addition, and for reasons of intelligibility, cross-cultural pragmatic issues of English fluency must be observed to attain comprehensibility.

It should be noted that the focus of research into intelligibility has moved away from the speaker to concentrate on the listener by taking into consideration, as Jennifer Jenkins (2000: 69) argues, "the contribution of factors such as the listener's background knowledge and processing skills…yet no broad agreement on the definition of the term 'intelligibility'." As regards Sandra Gollin-Kies, David R. Hall, Stephen H. Moore (2016:40-41) they rather focus on phonological and pronunciation factors. Quoting them, "Intelligibility rests mainly on decoding phonological features, and pronunciation including segmentals, appears to be the most troublesome aspect of spoken communication not only between NS and NNS, but also between NNS and NNS (Pickering, 2006)." Ayo Bamgbose (1998:11) in his turn describes Intelligibility as "a complex of factors comprising recognizing an expression, knowing its meaning, and knowing what that meaning signifies in the sociocultural context."

However, for successful international communication, scholars and academics versed in EIL, English as a Lingua Franca, or world Englishes issues identify three factors to be considered: intelligibility, comprehensibility and interpretability. These three aspects correspond to Smith and Nelson's (1985: 334) terms 'intelligibility' a term they reserve for "word/utterance recognition ", 'comprehensibility' for "word/utterance meaning (locutionary force)", and interpretability for meaning behind word/utterance (illocutionary force) . For Yamuna Kachru, Larry E. Smith (2008) intelligibility, comprehensibility and interpretability are "interactional" activities and are not speaker-or listener-centered. When it comes to the command of the language, the *inner* circle of English speakers can neither claim supremacy "of what is or is not intelligible, comprehensible or interpretable to others," (ibid: 28). Nor can they pretend to be more intelligible, comprehensible or interpretable in relation to the *outer* circles in the manner they are identified by Kachru. Considered as such, intelligibility, comprehensibility, and interpretability are seemingly flexible and allow considering the lingua franca developing aspect of the English language use worldwide.

1.4 Business English: A lingua Franca

Defined broadly, the term lingua franca is a means of communication adopted as a common language between speakers whose native languages are different. According to Wansbrough (1992), the original meaning of the term lingua franca refers to the pidgin lingua franca, which emerged as a language of trade and commerce in the Mediterranean basin from the 15th century until the 19th. Sonja Schricker (2016: 3) introduces the term as follows:

> Historically "Lingua Franca" described a commercial pidgin-language based on Romanic languages, which developed through language contact of Romans and speakers of non-roman based languages. It was commonly used in the Mediterranean Basin during the time period between the 11th and the 19th century for communication between Western Christians and Arabic Muslims. The wording 'Franca' came from the 'Franks' for all Western Europeans, making the 'Lingua Franca' a synonym for " the language of the Western Europeans." It should be noted that the 'Lingua Franca' has never been the native language of any ethnic community. Its use has always been confined to being a means of communication with a foreign people. (Schricker, 2016: 3)

In fact, lingua franca is a bridge language that is used beyond the boundaries of countries and allows communication between people who do not share the same mother tongue. However, with its extension for communication across linguistic boundaries, it became synonymous with an auxiliary language performed nowadays in the context of the speaker's specific purposes. Suresh Canagarajah (2007: 925-926) points out that;

> The form of this English is negotiated by each set speakers for their purposes. The speakers are able to monitor each other's language proficiency to determine mutually the appropriate grammar, phonology, lexical range and pragmatic conventions that would ensure intelligibility. Therefore, it is difficult to describe this language a priori. It cannot be characterized outside the specific interaction and speakers in a communicative context.

In similar respect, but in the context of foreign language teaching, Christiane Meierkord (2012:13) reports that "Hullen (1982), probably the first to use the term lingua franca in context of foreign-language teaching, emphasized that native-like competence must no longer be the main aim, but that foreign-language teaching had to adapt to the fact that a new community of English users was emerging".

This lingua franca phenomenon, which is observed in the case of the English language as a result of its global spread in different sectors, to name among them the world of business, is termed English as a Lingua Franca (ELF). Anna Mauranen and Elina Ranta (2009:1) observe that "English has established its position as a global lingua franca beyond any doubt; along with his status, it has become one of the symbols of our time, together with globalisation, networking, economic integration, and the internet."

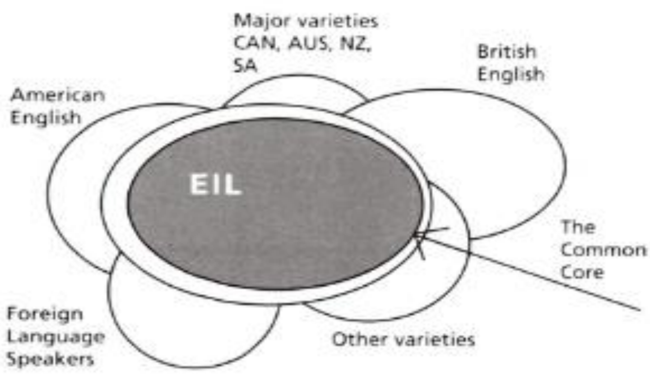
In some other English language research spheres, (Barbara Seidlhofer, 2006; Andy Kirkpatrick, 2006; Jennifer Jenkins, 2013; Mackenzie Ian, 2014) use the terms ELF and EIL interchangeably as they denote the use of 'a common core variety' of English that does not belong to any user of English, including native speakers, and which bears according to speakers who are interacting with their particular language background flavors, thus liberating the users from the burden of the native speaker norms. For Ian Mackenzie (2014: 2), ELF is "an alternative term for english as an international /global/ world langage, and international english…ELF is prominent in international politics and diplomacy, in international law, business, the media, and in tertiary education and scientific research."

In her turn, Jennifer Jenkins (2013: 80-81) distinguishes EFL from EIL states that

> A number of scholars have begun to argue that when English is used for international communication, that is, among speakers from a wide range of international settings, then it cannot have 'non-native speakers'. In other words, while the native speaker/non-native speaker distinction holds good for EFL, and for other modern foreign languages, since these are largely learnt as L2s for use in interaction with L1 speakers, EIL is used mainly among L2 speakers of English, often with no NS present at all."

Marko Modiano (1999) represents EIL, that is, the common core and all the varieties of English as shown in the following figure:

Figure 1.5. Global English by Modiano (1999)



Source: Valentin Werner (2014: 31)

Valentin Werner (2014:31) reports that Modiano (1999) considers EIL as indicated in the figure above, "Accessible to both (competent) native speakers and non-native speakers, while the white central area contains features that are in transition away from or towards international comprehensibility, and that the other surrounding circles are categorized as five groups of varieties with idiosyncratic features that are not intelligible to speakers of other varieties…". In his turn, Almut Koester (2010: 125) observes that Berns (2008: 331) considers EIL "not as a code, but as 'a tool of communication in international settings', arguing that this is more compatible with a notion of 'world Englishes' which emphasizes the multiplicity and variability of the different varieties of English." As regards the spread and development of different varieties of English, the issue of intelligibility and nativeness, Andy Kirk Patrick (2014: 26) claims that the increasing role of EIL raises the importance of intelligibility between the interactants rather than sounding like a native. He then states,

> [Its spread]…also means that more and more multilinguals who have learnt English as an additional language are using English internationally. This inevitably means that the number of different accents and pronunciations of English are legion. In such circumstances, it is not sounding like a native speaker which is important, it is mutual intelligibility. Mutual intelligibility means that the interactants in any communicative activity are able to understand each other. And being a native speaker is no guarantee of mutual intelligibility. Indeed there is a growing body of research spanning several decades that indicate that speakers of new varieties of English can be more intelligible than native speakers of certain native speaker varieties.

As for Mackenzie (2014:1); in using ELF,

> …the language need no longer be related to a particular native 'target culture' in which certain ways of speaking and behaving are appropriate. On the contrary, rather than imitating the norms of NESs, users of English as lingua franca (ELF) should adopt ways of speaking…which aid mutual intelligibility and successful communication".

However, when ELF concerns its use in specific business interactions, most scholars agree to use the term 'Business English as a Lingua Franca' (BELF). Alessia Cogo (2015: 4) notes:

> In international business contexts, especially multinational corporations, the use of English as a 'corporate language' has become a common practice, if not an official recognition of the company's language policy. Business English as a Lingua Franca (BELF for short) is now a requirement in globalized business and, even more, and essential aspect of business Knowledge.

Although BE as a Lingua Franca, henceforth (BELF), or (English Lingua Franca for Business Purposes) and BE are used interchangeably because BELF bears also the idea of application of BE in international business communications among non-native speakers, BELF is more commonly used. A wide body of literature attests to the fact that BELF shows much more focus both on teaching and researching the field compared to BE. It also highlights the idea of business communication or the use of ESBP between native speakers of English and non-native speakers, as well as between speakers of other languages and cultures, showing thus the respective linguistic and cultural impacts on the interactants' language use. Regarding its worldwide dominance**,** Gibson, R. Ferguson (2011:9) reveals:

> A wealth of data attests to the fact that English has become a dominant lingua franca in the world of business playing a key role not just in the internal corporate communication of transnational corporations but in the external communication with customers and shareholders. Crystal (2003), for example, claims that over 90% of European companies use English as a working language, while Erling and Walton (2007, 39) in a survey of 7 Berlin-based subsidiaries of multinational corporations found that English was widely used alongside German in a variety of functions and had become 'a necessary basic qualification' not just for top management as previously but also for lower levels of the corporate hierarchy.

Furthermore**,** Catherine Nickerson and Brigitte Planken (2016:16) report that "business English dominates as a lingua franca in many areas of the world, such as Europe and Asia, and it is now generally accepted that Business English is now neutral and no longer associated with any of the nations that speak it as a first language." Leena Louhiala-Salminen and Mirjalusa Charles (2006: 31) note as well that "In business discourse, ELF has been discussed in terms of "international English for business purposes" or "international business English (IBE)"". However, they rather advocate the use of "Business ELF". As to the origin of the term (BELF), Almut Koester (2010: 123) reports that the term BELF was coined by Louhiala-Salminen *et al*. (2005) to describe business interactions.

As regards the pace of development, BE is recognized as the 'fastest growing area' compared to other branches (Hewings, 2003) in ESP. Yet, this fact does not reflect an admiring aspect since there is a "dearth of solid research" in the area (Christa Walt, 1999: 44). Thus, the very recent research tends to shed more light on its aspects and the way it manifests. As BELF is mostly used for international communication in workplace settings, it becomes inevitable to ignore its communicative and cultural aspects as well as specific skills development. All in all, BELF is becoming rather a skill among other skills required to perform a Business job (Nickerson and Planken, 2016).

Given the linguistic and cultural diversity that characterizes the use of English in lingua franca situations, Patricia Freidrich (2012:44) argues that "it seems that users of English have to be quite resourceful and flexible, able to accommodate a wide range of variation at all levels, especially if their interactions take them across many different cultural lines." Likewise, in the case of BELF, Anne Kankaanranta and Leena Louhiala-Salminen (2013: 27) note that "BELF speakers need to possess accommodation skills, listening skills, an ability to understand different "Englishes", and overall, tolerance towards different communication styles."

As to the problem of errors produced by fluent non-native speakers and the teachers' attempt to correct them, Ian Mackenzie (2014) considers it "as a waste of time" and believes the 'errors' made by non-native speakers using English as an additional language or lingua franca to be "natural developments of English" and "simplifications and adaptations of the more incongruous and idiosyncratic elements of grammar (and pronunciation)." (op cit, 2014: vi) further questions whether there is a "need to worry about these niceties of native English usage." However and from the native speaker optical angle, Patricia Friedrich (2012: 51) quoting (Mauranen, 2006: 124) says

> Misunderstanding has been studied widely in native-non-native communication, and it seems that while it does arise, in real-life situations native speakers tend to manifest their cooperation by orienting towards the content and the flow of the interaction rather than the defective form of their non-native interlocutors

On the basis of what precedes, the practice of BELF by non-native speakers/non-native speakers and native speakers /non-native speakers is a two-way process of accommodation tending to near the existing linguistic distance as regards the interlocutors and the tapering of the cultural misunderstanding. Larry Smith (2006: 79) argue "… the increasing number of varieties of English need not increase the problem of understanding across cultures, if users of English develop some familiarity with them." Nickerson and Planken (2016) note that the use of idiomatic English and colloquial expressions and a wide range of vocabulary by native speakers is at the heart of the non-native speakers problem of understanding and believe BELF interactions "may sometimes be more successful because more limited lexical sets are used by participants" Furthermore, they report Marschan-Pickkari suggesting that "all business people can benefit from training in how to communicate successfully in International Business English and Business English as a Lingua Franca ; that non-native speakers can work on extending their business English skills ; and that native speakers can learn how to adjust their business skills to make it more comprehensible for everyone through a process called accommodation or simplification." (Nickerson and Planken, op cit: 16). In this process of 'accommodation' and 'simplification', non-native speakers need to adjust and broaden their skills in BE to 'accommodate', while the native-speakers are required to simplify their English to make it understandable to non-native speakers.

Among the issues that seemed of most importance and that play an important role in intelligibility and raise the issue of accommodation on the part of the interlocutors is the variation in the accent, that is, understanding English spoken with different accents. This is to say, there is an increasing interest in accent variation. Most scholars agree that one of the most important issues causing trouble for non-native speakers is pronunciation. The works of Jennifer Jenkins (2000), Anna Mauranen, Elina Ranta (2009), Francesca Bargiela-Chiappini (2009), and Francesca Bargiela-Chiappini and Maurizio Gotti (2005) among others, emphasized lengthily this problem. Prodromou (2008: 30) argues that "The main area which progress has been made in identifying a lingua franca common core is pronunciation" and further reveals that

> Jenkins (2000) proposes a lingua franca core (LFC): a set of pronunciation features that her empirical research suggests are essential for mutual intelligibility in communication between 'non-native speakers' of English. Jenkins also suggests that learners should be prepared for the accent variation they will inevitably encounter in ELF settings. For ELF interactions to be successful, users will need to accommodate to their interlocutors. This means that in spoken interaction, the participants subconsciously adjust their output, or accommodate toward their interlocutor(s).

The problem of native speakers and non-native speakers' practice of English in business contexts urged specialists, both in studies and as teachers, to focus on some of the important issues that intervene as barriers in business communication. The latter carries the idea of the exchange of information within the specific contexts of business activities performed by business professionals sharing business skills but using BELF as a means of communication. The two words 'business' and 'communication' suggest, in the case of the first lexical item, trade, selling, trading, and industry, that is, doing business activities in the economic and industrial sectors, while the second suggests interactions between different parties, that is, it refers to the process of conveying information. This is to mean that business communication is particular to business organizations and is, according to Sambey Moira (1999: 1), "extremely important for a business to run. The better the communication, the better the business will run".

1.5 Communication in Business English

It is important to overview communication in general before discussing it in the Business context. There are many approaches to defining communication; some specialists consider it a process being composed of several elements: the sender, the receiver, the message, and encoding and decoding. Arnestein Finest and Lidia Del Piccolo (2011: 107) speak about communication as interaction processes between two agents during which "*messages* (Composed of a series of signs) are transmitted from a *sender* to a *receiver*, and all agents involved are both senders and receivers of messages simultaneously. The process of sending a message is labeled *encoding* and receiving it is referred to as *decoding*." Similarly, for Philip Riley (1996: 119) communication is "a collaborative process whereby information and acts are attributed mutually agreed meanings and interpretations. Communication is not self-directed, subjective: it is other-directed and intersubjective, ‘People talk to each other’, not to themselves." However, other specialists approach communication in its spoken mode, focusing on the paralinguistic devices that intervene in the message construction and the encoding and decoding processes. In this line of thought, Henry Widdowson (1987: 73) points out that "communication through the spoken mode is not realized by speaking, which is by definition only verbal, but by saying, which employs such paralinguistic devices as, facial expression and so on, which are conveyed through the visual medium."

In business, according to Mary Ellen Guffey and Dana Loewy (2012: 7), communication involves five steps: "idea formation, message encoding, message transmitting, message decoding and feedback". For them, communication starts with the formation of the sender’s idea. The idea formation is influenced by many factors, such as culture and experience. The second step is message encoding, which includes the conversion of the idea into words and gestures. Much attention is given to this step, where major problems in communication start as the idea encoder chooses words that may mean different things to the receiver. Hence, the responsibility for successful communication is on the encoder or (sender) taking into consideration their impact on the receiver. Encoding the idea means transforming it into words and gestures that convey the intended meaning. The encoder should choose the words and the gestures of the message while being aware of the receiver’s culture and knowledge. The third step is the message being transmitted over a ‘channel’, by means of email, telephone, cell phone, reports, faxes, minutes, memoranda, announcements, or face-to-face contact. Since channels transmit verbal and non-verbal messages, the sender may also consider the choice of the appropriate channel. The fourth step is decoding or converting the encoder's words and gestures into meaning. This step is important since "successful communication takes place only when the receiver understands the meaning intended by the sender" (Guffey and Loewy, 2012: 10). The final step is feedback; described by Guffey and Loewy, as "The verbal and nonverbal responses of the receiver create *feedback*, a vital part of the entire communication process. Feedback helps the sender know that the message was received and understood. Senders can encourage feedback by asking questions…"

Communication seems to be of major importance in the business world. According to Guffey *et al.* (2010:10), "communication is a central factor emerging knowledge economy and a major consideration for anyone entering today’s workforce". For Oliver Guirdham (2017:60), communication can be defined as a "collective and interactive process of generating and interpreting messages". It is then of great importance at work because it represents a means of coordinating tasks, and coordination is fundamental in business. Moreover (Maureen Guirdham and Oliver Guirdham, 2017 :13) reveals that “Communication has a claim to be one of the most important single work activities. Interpersonal work communication has increased in importance with organizations’ new emphasis on individuals and teams. Technology has expanded the scope of work communication while often adding to its complexity”.

Some other researchers focus on communicative competence at work; therefore, they define BE as "a subfield [of ESP] that focuses on the development of communicative competence for business setting" (Boyed, 2002: 41). Considering that BE is not only concerned with communicative competence in general but with a specific aptitude in a specific context that ensures effective business relations. This specific aptitude can be referred to as competency (Bhatia, 1999). The learners of BE need to have the ability to choose the adequate language and strategies in order to pass on a message and reach a specific communicative purpose. From a pedagogical point of view, this communicative purpose can be divided into smaller Business communicative tasks; this may entail all the spoken Business skills (e.g., presenting, telephoning, meetings, etc.) and written Business skills (e.g., faxes, reports, contracts, CVs, etc.), and studying BE can be approached through those skills, for Ellis and Johnson (1994: 4): "Business English teaching has drawn on aspects of…[different] approaches, but also places more emphasis on the need to develop the skills for using the language learned"

1.5.1 Spoken Business English

The recent studies in BE are corpora-related studies aiming to investigate the dissimilarities in Business spoken genres. The studies allow one to distinguish the different Lexico-grammatical patterns found in authentic business texts and understand this variety (Flowerdew Lynne, 2012). Corpora studies such as the project of (Almut Koester, 2006, 2010) The Corpora of American and British Office Talk, or ABOT, and (Janet Holms and Maria Stubbe, 2015) investigating the intercultural aspect in BE discourse, as well as Michael Handford project (2010) in studying the corpus in BE meetings (the Cambridge and Nottingham Business English Corpus, or CANBEC). Such studies offer an outline for the teaching of spoken BE which can be categorized according to the number of participants; one to one, multi-spoken interactions and speaking (Dudley-Evans and St. John, 1998), and according to the Business skills (Thomson, 2007; Comfort, 1995; Choudhury *et al.*, 2008; Frendo, 2005; and Ellis and Johnson, 1994). The study approaches BE skills: telephoning, teleconferencing, meetings, socializing, and presenting.

In our fast-paced world, the telephone was and continues to be an effective national and international communication tool. It will always be central to Business communication and seems to have almost the same features as a face-to-face meeting. Like any other invention, the telephone has its advantages and disadvantages. One of the advantages of using the telephone is the instantaneous reaction time; for instance, no time gap is encountered when it comes to taking decisions in Business. Another advantage is that personal appearance is not essential. However, the telephone is not excluded from having disadvantages as well as obstacles such as answering machines that appear to lessen the effectiveness of business communication. Using the phone requires a good accent and pronunciation and an excellent vocabulary since non-verbal communication has no room (Choudhury, 2008). Another obstacle encountered is misinterpretation which can lead to problems. Dudley-Evans and St. John (1998: 109) mention in this sense that

> Telephone conversations can be difficult to handle mainly because of the absence of body language…An additional difficulty is that certain stages or types of telephone call are still quite conventional and can use phrases that will not be met elsewhere: [such as] ‘whose calling?’ [And] ‘can you put me through to…?’

Teleconferencing is one way of using the phone in business meetings where the participants communicate without seeing each other, from the same or different countries. In this spoken interaction, participants are required to fill the roles of both a speaker and a listener, just like when using the phone, with the inclusion of some business skills such as 'turn taking' and 'control' that have an important role (Dudley-Evans and St. John, 1998:110). In some cases in teleconferencing, body language is not important when the participants cannot see each other. Whereas in some other cases where a group of participants is teleconferencing with other groups or individuals, body language then turns out to be of much importance. Perhaps the main advantage of using teleconferencing is time-saving. As Choudhury *et al*. (2008: 308) say, the "advantage of exchanging ideas and view without physically having to move is one of the greatest merits of teleconferencing."

Meetings in Business are an efficient tool of communication, not only do they allow the members of the same or different companies to keep in contact with each other, but they also permit them to share ideas and opinions, decide collectively on important issues, and reinforce their relationships. In fact, the benefits of meetings vary according to their purposes. They can be organized for taking or reporting important decisions, reconciling conflicts, team-building, and creating and/or evaluating new ideas. In addition, meetings can increase the participants' performance and collaboration. For organizing such meetings, the participants should be prepared and know about the purpose and the system of the meeting. An approach consisting of three steps is proposed by executive training cooperation (Purpose-Process-Outcomes) (Choudhury *et al.*, 2008: 323). Meetings can be held face-to-face or through videoconferencing; in both cases, verbal and non-verbal language is of equal importance.

In order to realize this approach, conventional business documents for each single step is attributed. Balan (1990: 109) mentions the 'Notice', the 'Agenda' and the 'Minute' of meetings as important means of Business communication; "Notices, Agendas and Minutes are very important areas of business communication. A fair knowledge in these areas of communication will be of much help to anybody in the field of business and employment." The notice is designed to inform the participants about the meeting (location, time, members, and purpose). The agendas are background papers and considered to be an important preparatory point, for Seghal and Khetarpal (2006: 266), "Agenda is a list of items to be discussed at a meeting. It is also called business. It is usually sent with the notice of the meeting." For Krizan *et al*. (2002: 178), "In formal meetings, they should be distributed a few days in advance of the meeting so that the members can be prepared…For informal meetings with very limited scope, a telephone message describing the date, time, place and topic may be sufficient." Finally, the Minutes refer to "a brief to the point record of important discussions, resolutions passed and decision taken at a meeting." (Balan, 1990: 110)

Dudley-Evans and St. John (1998: 106) suggest important skills to be taught in the various BE interactions discussed above: active listening and questioning. Active listening entails verbal and non-verbal support for the speakers, verbal support such as the use of a certain language that reflects attention and interest, such as 'really', 'that's right', or 'I am quite sure', and non-verbal support such as gestures and facial expressions. It also involves paraphrasing and summarizing as proof of real listening. The second skill is questioning, which can be "a powerful means of controlling communication" (Dudley-Evans and St. John (1998: 107) since it can be raised for different reasons: information, clarification, checking, and confirming. Again, questions reflect the interest that feeds the conversation.

Group discussions or small talks in Business are for the purpose of 'Socializing' or Dudley-Evans and St. John (1998: 109) reveal

> A good deal of the speaking work carried out in Business English falls under the heading 'socialising'. The term encompasses the spoken interactions that surround the actual discussion of business matters. We prefer to use the term 'building relationships' as this expresses the real purpose of these interactions. A good business relationship depends on credibility, understanding, goodwill and trust. This is only partially generated through the business discussions.

It is important in Business to construct relationships based on confidence and good intentions, something that results from 'socializing'. The latter is not deprived of non-verbal support as well, which contributes vividly to weaving links between the different parts. Most of the social discussion takes place before or after a meeting, at restaurants, at airports, or when standing and chatting in breaks. Experienced businessmen agree that first impressions are very important in building 'rapport' between different sides of a good business (Evan Frendo, 2005: 61). Evan Frendo (2005) approaches it from a pedagogical perspective and suggests considering language and culture in a parallel way. As far as the linguistic part is concerned, the learners should be taught how to greet and invite. In the same way, they should be taught the language to use when going out to dinner, for instance. Another linguistic skill, as mentioned in meetings, is the ability to maintain a conversation, i.e., the ability to support the speaker and encourage him to continue. On the other hand, the learner should be aware of the cultural aspect, as good conversations cannot achieve their ultimate aim without being appropriate to the context. On the contrary, if the cultural context is not taken into consideration, the whole situation will fail, even if the language used is perfect.

Business presentations are seen to be “formal, structured, systematic and intended to raise a particular issue for discussion” (Sadhana Gupta, 2008: 91). Presenting is sharing information directly with an audience, the content and the genre of the presentation will respect its purpose in the first place. It goes without question that a presentation “is purposeful and goal oriented, and communicates a message to an audience in a way that brings about the desired change …Whatever may be the form of a presentation, they all seek to achieve certain objective.” (Ashraf, 2005: 195). In their turn, Choudhury *et al.* (2008) reveal that “A presentation is a mode of communication where you share information with the audience live, to achieve a certain objective. We make presentations to achieve some business objective and it could vary according to the needs and occasion.” According to Steven Zwickel and William Pfeiffer (2006) a “key element of a successful presentation …is clarifying your purpose. A lot depends on what you want to happen when you are done speaking.” They suggest some examples of types of presentations: informative[6], persuasive[7], occasional[8], and instructive[9].

For Choudhury *et al.* (2008: 346) “An oral presentation has certain advantages over a written presentation. First, it allows dialogue between the presenter and his audience. Second, the audience is free to ask questions, make comments or clarify any issue. Third, the presenter and the audience have the liberty to talk before, between and after the presentation.” However, business presentations should be concise, respecting the audience's time at work while still fulfilling the target. Indeed, business presentations play an important role in one’s career; employees who are recognized as being successful and get promoted at work are those who master presentations as a major business skill. Gupta (2008:81) reveals in this sense that

> You may be very efficient in your specific field. You may be hard working too, but if you lack in the skill of presentation you may not grow in your career. As an employee in an organisation, you will be expected to attend seminars, workshops, symposiums, conferences, general meetings. You will have to organize departmental presentations, team presentations, product launches. If you have acquired the skill of presentation,

[6] **Informative**. Providing the audience with information (facts and opinions)

[7] **Persuasive**. Presenting professional opinions, usually to change the way the audience thinks, feels, or behaves, and including recommending a particular course of action for the audience to take.

[8] **Occasional.** Entertaining, but includes some informational presentations, usually on a more personal level with humor and some emotional connection to the audience

[9] **Instructive.** Explaining a process, teaching a skill, or defining terms for the audience, or showing a problem-solving process. Steven Zwickel and William Pfeiffer (2006: 37)

> you can use each presentation as an opportunity for your professional growth…Oral presentations are becoming essential part of working life.

Teaching oral presentations may be part of a lesson, but with textbooks that focus on business skills, such as Thomson's (2007) and Comfort's (1995), a whole syllabus is given to fully master the skill, as is the case with the rest of business skills. The main purpose of a presentation is 'to get through to the audience' more than anything else; any language mistake is forgiven if the speaker passes the message clearly. A good speaker entertains the audience and gives them no chance to be lost (Frendo, 2005: 71).

1.5.2 Written Business English

Writing in business is essential to managing a business successfully; maintaining good written communication in the world of business is key in the 21st century. "Good business writing saves time and money. It prevents mistakes and helps solve problems. It bridges time zones and culture gaps, connecting people. It empowers individuals and helps organizations succeed" (Natalie Canavor, 2012: 2). The written genres are more or less seen through: business correspondence, contracts, curriculum vitae, agendas, minutes, and reports.

There is a large variety of categories in business correspondence, starting from informal (spoken-like) e-mails to the most formal business letters or contracts. Speaking about letters in business, there is a multitude of commercial documents that differ from one business area to another, such as marketing, sales, and finance. Moreover, there are many business documents within the same business functions that deal with different issues like inquiries, purchases, offers, acknowledgments, deliveries, payments, credit, complaints, insurance, agreements, and invitations (Frendo, 2005: 87). When it comes to teaching, according to Frendo (2005, 87-88) any BE teacher should master the common language used in business correspondence, otherwise they will lose credibility;

> Often commercial correspondence uses **specialist terms** which teachers have to master if they are to understand what is going on. For Example, Incoterms (International commercial terms) such as EXW (ex-works), or FOB (free on Board), CIF (Cost, Insurance, and Freight) are standard trade definitions published by the International Chamber of Commerce, and are very common in commercial correspondence. Any business English teacher attempting to teach English for Business correspondence would soon lose face if they were not aware of the most common terms.

With reference to contracts, Trevor Marshall (1999: 179) defines a business contract as "a legally enforceable agreement between two or more persons by which something is done or promised to be done." He groups them into three categories: oral contracts, implied contracts, and expressed contracts[10]. In order for a written contract to be valid and deemed to exist, Marshall (1999: 37) lists the following obligatory factors:

> *Offer and Acceptance*. Person A makes Person B an offer to wash their car. B accepts but A doesn't wash the car. A contract doesn't exist because it is not legally enforceable. One the other hand, if B pays A but A doesn't wash the car, a contract is deemed to exist.
> *Consideration*. Something is exchanged between the parties to the contract, for example, money.
> *Capacity of contract.* The parties to the contracts must, in the eyes of the law, be able to enter into contracts.
> *Legality*. You cannot contract outside the law.
> *Consent*. All parties must have been fully aware of what they were doing and were not forced into the contract or had undue influence exercised on them, neither should a mistake nor fraud have been committed.
> *Certain*. The contract should be specific with respect to the parties involved in the contract price and subject matter.

Writing a contract is a sensitive task and requires focus since the meaning can depend on one single term, which is why it is left to experts in the law. According to Frendo (2005: 90), they generally include the following:

> Introduction with definitions and names of various parties, a time frame for the agreement, terms of payment and delivery, responsibilities and undertakings of each party, insurance details in case of problems, dispute resolution or arbitration arrangements, appendices and other accompanying documents

Most of the time, BE teachers are asked to teach how to write a curriculum vitae (CV) [1] or to help around. Choudhury *et al.* (2008: 219) in defining a CV say "Resume or bio-data is a necessary annexure to any job application. It is a document that lists the personal details, objectives and achievements of a person in a simple format. There is, as such, no standard format for a resume." A CV can differ according to the degree of formality, a multinational firm or an online job, the nature of the work (academic, technical, or business), and sometimes according to the country's style (Canadian, Australian, or American). Thus, a CV format cannot respond to all the requirements of different conditions and parties. The most important of all is the accurate language that is used throughout the CV itself.

[10] An oral contract is one in which the parties involved have arrived at a verbal agreement. An implied contract is one which, though not written or verbally expressed, can be adduced from the actions of the parties involved. An expressed contract is a written agreement (Trevor Marshall, 1999: 37)

Agendas and minutes are closely related. Agendas constitute the lists of elements that *will be discussed* in a given meeting, and minutes are lists of points that *have been discussed* in a given meeting. According to Samson (2009: 123)

> An effective agenda is much more than a list of topics. It can function as a meeting announcement, as well as a tool to help the leader control the discussion. Sending it out in advance lets people know what will be discussed and gives them an opportunity to gather information they will need and prepare their input. Effective meetings begin with effective agendas.

Frendo (2005: 93) suggests that minutes of meetings may include: first, the names of attendees and a list of excuses for those who didn't make it; Second, a small summary of the previous meeting, if there was one. Third, it includes a detailed description of all the new decisions and revisions. Finally, there is a list of upcoming tasks and their assignees. Writing minutes of meetings requires specific language skills, for Choudhury *et al.* (2008: 174) "the primary skill needed for writing the minutes of a meeting are note taking, the use of reported speech and the techniques of summarizing." Similarly, Joanna Gutmann (2001: 136), emphasizing the role of the language skills needed in writing the minutes; reveals

> Most people do not read minutes particularly carefully. Those who were at the meeting 'know it' already; those who were not there are probably not interested. It is therefore essential that your minutes are clearly written so that even someone who is skimming them will understand the contents. Clear writing involves well-constructed sentences and paragraphs, use of plain English and punctuation. An added benefit is that well-written minutes reflect well on the minute-taker-a boost to professional pride! The problem is that many minute-takers were not taught the 'mechanics' of writing at school, and this practical aspect of being a minute-taker causes considerable worry.

Another type of business writing is writing reports. Frendo (2005: 91) refers to reports as "documents which offer the reader the results of an enquiry of some sort (such as research, technical inspection, visit, and feasibility studies) or an account of some event(s)." A BE teacher should be aware of the standardized form used in the given company and should demand authentic examples for the preparation of the courses. However, in some cases, when it is out of reach, the solution can be replaced by downloading ready-made templates using the Microsoft Office program.

Choudhury *et al.* (2008: 372) classify business reports according to their purpose. He then speaks about '*Routine reports'* based on frequency, '*internal'* or '*external'* reports based on the intended reader, '*short'* and '*long'* reports based on their length, and '*informational'* and '*analytical'* reports based on the intent. For Moira Sambey (1999: 141-165), business reports are gathered under two major genres: *formal* and *informal,* where she detailed a set of different types of reports under each genre. In his turn, Frendo (2005: 91), speaking from a pedagogical perspective, says reports can be taught via the (1) '*gap-fill'* of an authentic report using their own words. (2) Through '*summary'* relying on real reports. (3) 'Comparing' different examples from different sources and finding out about the similarities and differences. This way, they can have their own useful expressions that they would prefer to use in their own reports. (4) *' Oral account to written report';* writing a report in teamwork where students listen to their classmates describe an event and ask them questions in order to write a report as a team.

Writing in BE is a valuable medium of communication. It is a way of organizing and recording information. Learning how to write in Business requires the basic techniques of writing, such as punctuation, linking words, structuring the sentences, spelling, paragraph connections, coherence, choosing the appropriate terminology, and other organizational skills. It is considered a key element in teaching BE that requires higher attention. Teaching the language skills in BE is not enough; there are other complementary aspects that should be considered, such as culture at work, because "Awareness of the importance of one's own culture in relation to those of others has become a growing issue in the field of Business English" (Mark Ellis and Christine Johnson, 1994: 219)

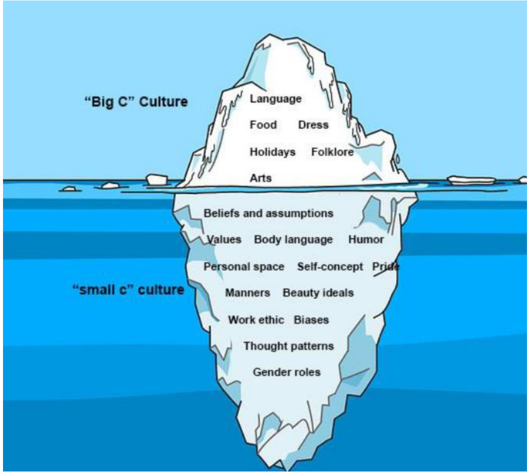
1.6 Interculturality in Business English

The Oxford English Dictionary defines culture as "the customs and beliefs, art, way of life and social organization of a particular country or group"; it also defines it as "the beliefs and attitudes about something that people in a particular group or organization share". Choudhury *et al.* (2008:74) reveal

> It is culture which gives us the framework for our individual and collective behaviour. It helps us to form our attitudes to and perception of the world around us. The way we dress, the food we eat, our kinship, our family values, our ideas ethics, and morality are all governed by culture…Usually, these 'unwritten rules' are passed on tacitly from generation to generation.

The cultural iceberg is a metaphor used to describe the layers of culture that exist beyond what is visible on the surface. Just like an iceberg, only a small part of culture is visible, such as food, clothing, and behaviors. The majority of culture lies beneath the surface, including beliefs, values, and attitudes. These invisible aspects of culture are often deeply ingrained and can significantly impact the way people interact with each other. Understanding the cultural iceberg can help people appreciate and navigate cultural differences more effectively.

Figure 1.6. The Cultural Iceberg.



Source: Zoni Upton Jessica (2018: 24)

In Business, culture is seen as;

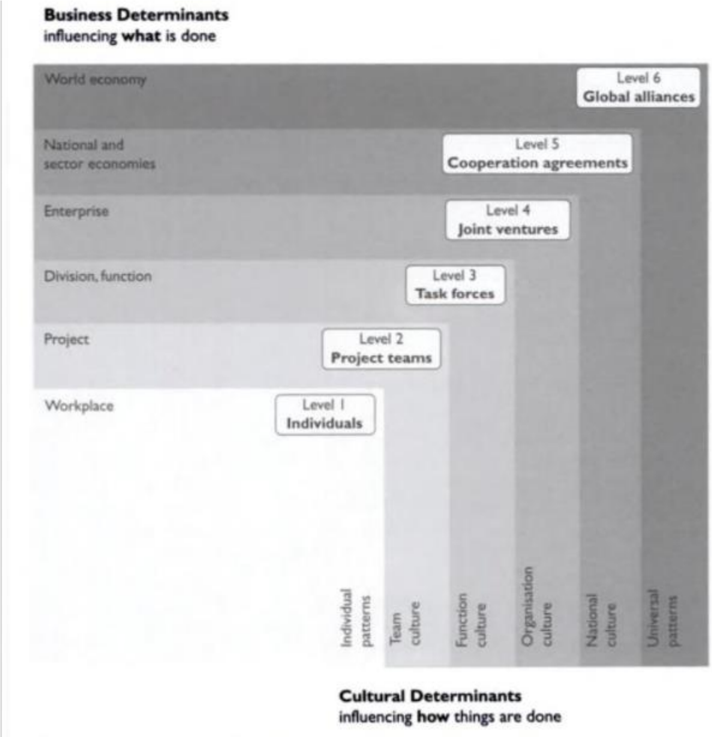
> 'the specific collection of attitudes, experiences, beliefs and values, mutually agreed upon and shared by the members of an organization'. It lays out the norms and policies followed by employees and the stakeholders of an organization. Thus corporate culture affects leadership styles, personnel issues, support for professional advancement, employee morale, work conditions, support for work-leisure balance and, most importantly, ease and frequency of internal communication." (Choudhury *et al.*, 2008: 74)

Emphasizing the importance of cultural awareness in business, Anna Zelenkova and Janna Javorsikova (2020: 4) reveal that " Business operations get international dimensions and require from business professionals not only confident use of English and other foreign languages, but also mastering the cultural and intercultural aspects of business communication in order to establish themselves successfully on the international labour market". Interculturality is about "relating to or involving more than one culture" (Cambridge Dictionary, 2022). The inclusion of intercultural training in Business classrooms is of utmost importance. Although BE teachers are commonly regarded as language experts who are not responsible for addressing other issues and should defer to intercultural specialists, the reality is that BE teachers and interculturality trainers are interdependent since they both work with individuals from various cultural backgrounds. One of the principal aims of BE instruction is to facilitate effective communication in professional settings, which necessitates a balance between linguistic and cultural knowledge from both parties. Therefore, it is incumbent upon the teacher to deliver such training.

The objective of intercultural training in business is not to instruct on the nuances of every country's culture, as it would be unfeasible to provide a comprehensive account for all. Rather, it aims to assist individuals in interacting with proficiency in various cultural settings, emphasizing the significance of cultural factors in business. The ultimate aim is to prevent conflicts and misinterpretations, promoting seamless business operations. Intercultural training focuses on “preparing people to work with specific cultures or in specific contexts; this is often called culture-specific training. Sometimes learners will only need to deal with one or two cultures”. (Frendo, 2005: 113)

In teaching interculturality in general, there are elements called dimensions (Robert Gibson, 2000) or variations (Choudbury *et al.*, 2008); they allow us to understand what happens in different cultural contexts and attain a cultural ‘synergy effect’[1] (Robert Gibson, 2000). Different researchers in the field identified cultural dimensions; Greet H. Hofstede (2001) proposes five dimensions: individualism/collectivism, uncertainty avoidance, power distance, masculinity/femininity, and long-term orientation. Other dimensions have been identified, such as non-verbal communication: body language (kinesics), eye contact (oculistics), touch (haptics), body distance (proxemics), paralanguage, and turn-taking (Robert Gibson, 2000: 27-32)."Understanding these variations will equip you in dealing with people or business across cultures. Notions of time space hierarchy, and attitudes to kinship and materialism might also vary across cultures". (Choudhury *et al.*, 2008: 70). In the case of Business organizations, the general intercultural dimensions are always there as international companies require high-level intercultural skills to rein in diversity. Gibson (op cit: 4) demonstrates Clackworthy’s different kinds of interactions within the company (*Simens*) and explains the relationship between the Business and the cultural determiners. See figure 1.7

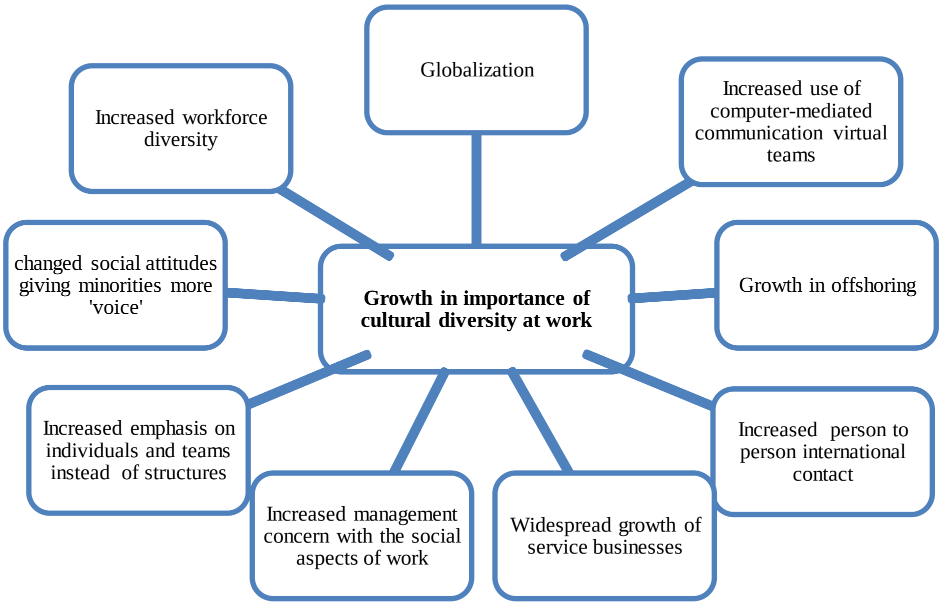
Figure 1.7. Business and Cultural determiners



Source: Robert Gibson (2000:4)

Cultural diversity at work is one of the most increasing areas; therefore, there is a need for intercultural awareness among employees. Maureen Guirdham (2011:8) reveals that "Several trends of the late twentieth and early twenty-first centuries increased the number and types of ‘different others’ that many people meet through work. These trends included the phenomenal growth of both international communications and business and the increasing diversity of domestic workforce", she then shows the different factors imposing cultural diversity at work in the following figure.

Figure1.8. Factors increasing the importance of cultural diversity at work



Source: Maureen Guirdham (2011: 10)

Being aware of the cultural differences at work helps avoid any misinterpretation that can cause discomfort, irritation, or even a loss of business interest.

> What goes down well as a presentation in one culture might be profoundly irritating in another. The use of humour during important meetings might be interpreted as a lack of seriousness in some cultures, but vital for rapport building in another. How do people interrupt during meetings (if they do at all)? What are acceptable topics of conversation on social occasions? Is it appropriate to see job interview as a situation where both sides are equal partners, or has one side higher status? The list goes on. (Frendo, 2005: 117)

1.7 Conclusion

The first chapter portrays the focus on BE in general and its relation to other important concepts. It is presumed from the discussion held in this chapter that BE is the fastest-growing area in ESP that is moving towards independence by showing both its development and its branches. It also discusses the common theoretical issues encountered, such as specificity issues, authenticity issues, and native speaker norms issues. We conclude that specificity seems to be the tenet of BE; however, it has to have a purpose to be determined. It also paved the way for more specific oral and written Business skills as well as test specificity. Another issue noticed in BE is authenticity, which is considered to be a ‘long standing concern’ (Milanovic, M. and C. J. Weir, 2004: 15) between the authenticity of text and authenticity of purpose. Furthermore, the chapter explores the challenge of native-speakerism that remains unclear to the different linguists, and two different points of view are presented: the first, which sees the native speaker as the ideal source of language (Pennycook, 1994) and the second, which considers it a mistaken perception (Holliday, 1994). In its turn, native speakerism raises other related issues such as ownership and intelligibility.

The dominant role of communication in the business field is also argued in this chapter; it is assumed to be ‘the most important single work activity’ (Guirdham, 2011) for the simple reason that it results in the success of the business. International business communication is also examined in a culturally diverse context that is growing hand in hand with it. The second chapter is an attempt to review the literature on the pedagogical side, which discusses first the theoretical influences on the teaching of BE. Secondly, the practical tools and implementations needed: NA, the role of the BE teacher, materials, and methodology.

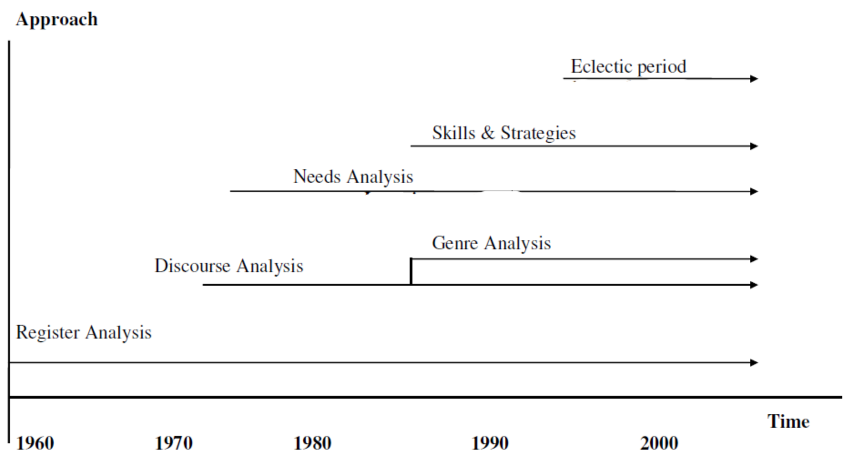
CHAPTER II:

BUSINESS ENGLSIH: PEDAGOGICAL CONCERNS

2.1 Introduction

Special discourse pedagogy started with Peter Strevens (1977) *'Special-Purposed Language Learning*'. He emphasizes the fast progress in the LSP teaching approaches as compared to the teaching of Language for General Purposes (LGP), and reveals that "Among current developments in the learning and teaching of languages, the change which appears to be moving at the fastest rate and which brings in its train the greatest consequences for learners and teachers alike, is the trend towards the learning of languages for specific rather than for general purposes." (Peter Strevens, 1977: 145) This advancement in LSP pedagogy has been influenced by a number of theoretical studies in different fields in the last few decades, mainly in linguistics and applied linguistics. If the early studies in LSP focused on the terminology as the only distinctive trait that can constitute a difference in learning LSP and LGP (Barber, 1962; Lackstorm, Selinker and Trimble, 1972; Swales, 1985), the following studies attributed more attention to the syntactic features of the language, while in more recent research a digressive approach that focuses on the context and the language in use predominates (Swales 1990; Bhatia, 1993; Hyland, 2004, Paltridge, 2011). Other than a language focus, a number of studies where the learner seemed to play a central role in the educational process (Hutchinson and Waters, 1987) appeared as discursive to analyzing the needs of the learners in a more communicative approach (Wilkins, 1976; Munby, 1978). Michael Nelson (2000: 40-41) presents the prominent approaches in teaching ESP as 'distinct' but 'overlapping, and 'fluid'. (*See figure 2.1)*

Figure.2.1. A Time-line of Approaches to ESP



Source: Michael Nelson (2000: 51)

Most of the research in LSP teaching tends to focus on what is considered central to language teaching. (1) A language-centered approach focuses on language analysis (Register Analysis, Discourse Analysis, Genre Analysis, and Corpus Analysis). (2) Needs Analysis approach focuses on the different needs in the learning process (Target Situation Analysis, Present Situation Analysis, Deficiency Analysis, Strategy Analysis, and Means Analysis). (3) In the skills-centered approach, language is viewed as a means of communication, and major concern is given to the skills and strategies used to communicate. (4) However, in a multidisciplinary approach (Dudley-Evans and St. John, 1998), or what Nelson (2000) refers to 'Eclectic' approach; there is much focus on the discipline and content. (5) The learner-centered approach considers the learners' needs as a central criterion for language teaching. Hutchinson and Waters (1987) emphasize the importance of the learning process and give importance to the role of the learner. Even though some approaches were apparent and influential during certain periods of time, there is no clear distinction between the chronological order of these periods. Indeed, there is a simultaneous development of the approaches, and all their findings and gains are available throughout the history of teaching ESP. Be it LSP in general or ESP focusing on the English language, in both cases, the focus is both on the learners and the disciple, or the domain in question. BE is no exception, but it appears to be more specific or simply a sub-discipline of ESP. It is for this very reason that the current chapter is devoted to exploring the pedagogical concerns of BE and the prominent approaches to its teaching. Because the focus in teaching BE has shifted throughout the years, this chapter focuses on the various teaching approaches in chronological order to give an idea of the theoretical developments and their application in teaching BE and the demand in teacher education and training in the corresponding fields.

Moreover, the chapter delves into the multifaceted role of the BE teacher, who serves as a facilitator, mentor, and guide for learners navigating the intricacies of the business world. We examine the key competencies and personal attributes that empower BE teachers to create engaging and productive learning environments, effectively meeting the diverse needs of their students.

Authenticity forms a cornerstone in the process of language acquisition, particularly in the context of BE. As we progress through this chapter, we gain insight into the significance of authentic materials in BE. Additionally, we explore other forms of authenticity.

2.2 Business English: Teaching Approaches

BE has two main learning audiences. It concerns adults working in business contexts or university students preparing for work. In the first case, it is specific domain oriented while the second is general business oriented since the domain of work is not yet known. However, both cases require mastering the academic side of the business language before diverging towards specificities and differences. Frendo (2005: 7) notes,

> business people do a variety of things with language; they socialize, predict, analyse, negotiate, buy, write, persuade, compromise, telephone, compete, market, sell, produce, interview, train, travel, plan, investigate, deal, advertise, explain ... the list is endless. These are done in a specific business context, and for business aims. But skill in using business English is not limited to the words and language used. Presenters use certain techniques to get their message across. So do negotiators. So do telephone operators. Business English users need to know the words, but they also need the skills in order to do their job (that is, the skills they need to do the job in their own language). So business English is used together with business communications skill

BE is not thus a question of only language use but other factors intervene in the teaching of BE.

Dell Hyme's contribution in the 1960s introducing the notion of communicative competence, which focuses on the learner's ability to grasp and use the language appropriately to communicate in an authentic environment, together with Canal's and Swain's model of the components of communicative competence, including grammatical, sociolinguistic, and strategic competences, open up a new era of approaching ESP in general and BE specifically. Frendo (2005) in his book Teaching Business English, BE teachers need to consider three competences, namely, linguistic competence, discourse competence, and intercultural competence. Thus, teachers of BE need to consider the integration of communication dimensions in their teaching process. Furthermore, communicative language teaching (CLT) puts emphasis on the learners' ability to use the language in order to communicate in real-life situations. Interaction develops as an important teaching strategy. Additionally, CLT considers the teacher to be a facilitator rather than a holder of knowledge. For Frendo (2005: 8), "the teaching of business English has been influenced by a variety of disciplines, including linguistics, general language learning and teaching, and management training. Because business English is not only about language, b u t about language use…"

Knowledge of English is one of the major criteria for hiring people in multinational companies. Lack of business English and general language proficiency constitutes a real problem. And so to speak, learners must improve their command of English and get acquainted with business-related vocabulary and content as well as the development of the necessary language skills. In general, teaching BE requires a focus on the language, on the learner, on the needs, on the discipline and the skills.

2.2.1 Focus on The Language

The role of language in Business is as important as any other factor that contributes in the success of a business. In organizations, language is valuable, Erika Darics and Veronika Koller (2018:3) distinguish several functions of language at the workplace; they report that "Apart from adding the symbolic added value[11], language plays a constitutive role[12] in the life of organizations, it functions as a tool[13], it provides access[14] and it is an industry[15] in itself (Heller, 2010)". When it comes to teaching BE, it differs from teaching GE in terms of purpose, content, and target learners (Rod Ellis and Christine Johnson, 1994). The purpose of BE courses is to improve various business skills and effective communication. The GE learner will not require extra skills related to a specific context, whereas in BE the focus, the content, and the vocabulary differ. In the early stages of ESP teaching, the focus was on the grammatical and lexical varieties (Barber, 1962; Lackstorm, Selinker and Trimble, 1972; Swales, 1985). Analyzing the language USED in Business is seen through the development of analyzing the English language in general, that is; the Register Analysis in business, the

[11] "Symbolic added value: Through branding strategies, marketing and other forms of corporate communication, language provides symbolic added value to industially produced resources and intangible such as services. Brande names, verbal identity and corporate tone of voice are now crucial elements…" (Erika Darics and Veronika Koller, 2018: 3)

[12] "Constitutive Role: Language is the glue that holds work groups together and helps to distinguish the members from outsiders" (Erika Darics and Veronika Koller, op cit: 4)

[13] "Tool: Language is a tool for managing the flow of resources, which now often happens in international transactions and under increasing time pressure with greater need for precision." (ibid)

[14] "Access: Language provides access to niche markets. This means different languages or varieties of a language help develop approaches specific to geographical location or social group rather than an undifferentiated global market."(ibid)

[15] "Industry: Translation, language teaching, communication training or call centre work, for instance, rely on language as means of ongoing work processes…"(ibid)

business discourse, and the business genres (Hopkins & Dudley-Evans, 1988; Thompson 1993; Salager-Meyer 1990; Holmes & Stubbe, 2003; Bargiela-Chiappini *et al.*, 2007; Bhatia, 1993). The upcoming discussions will cover language analysis, as well as provide an overview of an interconnected element of BE instruction: Vocabulary.

2.2.1.1 Language Analysis

Language description is important in the teaching process. For Dudley-Evans (1998: 9) "Genre analysis provides the teacher/ materials designer with an approach to the analysis of text that will provide the linguistic data needed for the preparation of teaching materials". Since the three language levels are related, it is important to discuss them as part of the pedagogical perspective. Thus, the coming discussion is related to language analysis at its three levels: register, discourse, and genre. From a general perspective, as there is no difference in the grammar between BE and GE "there are no language categories specific to Business English. Business English can utilise all the language forms which exist in General English: the nouns, verbs, adjectives, adverbs, prepositions and determiners; none are excluded." (Nick Brieger, 1997: 36) The difference, then, lies in the more frequent use of certain grammatical structures in BE than they are in GE.

2.2.1.1.1 Register Analysis

One of the earliest studies in the history of ESP is Register Analysis, as English for Science and Technology (EST) appeared, where the focus was on the primary elements of the sentence (vocabulary and grammar) (Swales, 1985; Barber, 1962; Lackstorm, Selinker and Trimble, 1972). At that time, the intention was to find an alternative to teaching English as a humanities subject and prepare the students to use English for scientific experiments. The first textbooks of EST were published in that period (John Swales, 1985). In discussing Barber (1962), Swales (1985: 1) says "Barber chose to express his findings in terms of traditional grammar" yet he believes that the work served as a model for future analyses. Lackstorm, Selinker and Trimble (1972) present a crucial paper on the progress of EST, which emphasized the significance of rhetorical considerations by the author and, more importantly, opened the door to further studies on discourse analysis.

There were other works in the field, such as (Ewer and Lattore, 1969; Ewer and Hughes-Davies, 1971 and 1972; Benesch, 2001). The main idea assumed from this research is that there is no difference between the grammar of GE and Technical English, but certain grammatical forms are frequently used in EST. Another main point drawn is the notion of ‘semi-technical’ lexis which occurs in scientific English more than elsewhere (Dudley-Evans and St. John, 1998: 82). The most remarkable work is Alfred J. Herbert’s (1965) which is criticized for its difficulty being used because of "the restricted range of grammar and vocabulary" (Dudley-Evans and St. John, op cit: 22). Nigel Harwood and Bojana Petric (2011: 244) state "The primary goal of register analysis was to identify the lexical and grammatical features occurring more frequently in scientific English than in general English…" However, according to Elke Teich (2003:23)…

> The notion of register is typically described as functional variation (quirk *et al*. 1985: 15-33), i.e. variation according to the type of situational context (rather than region, as in the case of dialectal variation, or social group, as in social variation)….More technically, registers are said to be realized by a relatively high or low frequency of occurrence of particular lexico-grammatical features; cf. for instance (Halliday *et al.* 1964; Matthiessen 1993; Biber 1988).

The influence of register analysis developed in the 1960s and 1970s on the selection of language teaching materials cannot be neglected. It paved the way for linguists to distinguish between ‘Scientific English’ or ‘Business English’ and ‘General English’. The pedagogic purpose of register analysis is to create a course that is "more relevant to the learners’ needs" (Hutchinson and Waters, 1987: 10) In the case of BE, the register covers areas that are not used by GE speakers but rather specialized ones. Brieger (1997) forecasts the use of a register by identifying the types of interactions in Business. He summarizes it in four main categories:

Figure.2.2.Types of Interaction in BE forecasting the use of Register

1. specialist → specialist
2. a. specialist → non-specialist
3. b. specialist → specialist
4. generalist → generalist

Source: Nick Brieger (1997: 38)

First, specialist-to-specialist interaction includes a precise range of lexis about professional issues, "the precise lexical items will depend on the topic under consideration" (Brieger, 1997: 38). Secondly, the growth of multi-disciplinary teamwork in business increased the need for multi-skilled managers that have not only the required management skills but also the business language knowledge required to work in such a milieu. They will need a business lexicon related not only to their business area but to other business areas they are working with. Lastly, the generalist register in business "refers to the wider contexts in which professionals communicate outside the strict confines of corporate offices and boardrooms" (ibid). This may include their informal and personal communication, upon which successful businesses are built. He also explains that communicating outside a business about personal, economic, political or even environmental subjects is a required competence that should not be ignored. It is where the maximum opportunity of building good business relationships lays.

Register analysis is the initial step in language analysis; it helps ensure the appropriateness of content and preparation of materials in order to motivate students. However, register analysis studies the smallest elements of the sentence and how they are related to each other, but does not go beyond this level. Consequently, it was criticized for its lack of authenticity when Dudley Evans and St. John (1998: 22) claim "Most material used under the banner of Register Analysis followed a similar pattern, beginning each chapter with a long specialist reading passage." The reason why, in the subsequent years, new research related to a more contextual analysis in certain disciplines appeared to study discourse and genre in professional activities. Vijay Bhatia (2014) thinks that in business communication, more important than using adequate grammatical and lexical forms is the way a professional community views and negotiates it.

> …communication is not simply a matter of putting words together in a grammatically correct and rhetorically coherent textual form, but more importantly, it is also a matter of having a desired impact on how a specifically relevant discourse or professional community views it, and how the members of that community negotiate meaning in professional contexts. (Bhatia, 2014: 4)

The discontent with register analysis impulses the rise of discourse analysis, Allen and Widdowson (1974: 74) criticize register analysis to "do little more than provide exercises in the manipulation of the linguistic forms." They went on to explain:

> We take view that the difficulties which the students encounter arise not so much from a defective knowledge of the system of English but from an unfamiliarity with English use, and that consequently their needs cannot be met by a course which simply provides further practice in the composition of sentence, but only by one which develops a knowledge of how sentences are used in the performance of different communicative acts.

The move then from almost limited concern for grammar and lexis to a more expanded approach that includes the consideration of rhetorical functions arose. Studies done in the 1980s and 1990s on Discourse in English have been valuable to the ESP field and BE. These studies have provided valuable insights and have helped to enhance the understanding of how the language is used in different professional and academic contexts. By taking into account the rhetorical functions, BE practitioners can better equip learners with the necessary communicative skills to succeed in the Business fields.

2.2.1.1.2 Business Discourse

Discourse analysis started to develop steadily in the late twentieth century. Swales (1985) *Episodes in ESP* is a collection of key papers in the area where Discourse analysis appears to be an emerging area of study. With the work of Munby (1978) which focuses on the content and the learner's needs, the link between teaching LSP and discourse study was also developing. Business discourse has been developed and viewed from different perspectives, including discourse analysis, conversation analysis, pragmatic interactions, ethnography, genre, organizational and intercultural communication, management and business studies, and sociology (Francesca Bargiela-Chiappini, 2007), power of politeness in the workplace (Janet Holmes and Maria Stubbe, 2015), the digital genres and multi-models in Business (Inger Askehave and Anne Ellerup Nielsen, 2005), education (Bhatia, 1993).

The term 'Business discourse' also called 'workplace discourse', 'professional discourse', or 'institutional discourse' is used in linguistics and the related fields to refer to any business communication between people at work (Fatma Al-Haidari, 2018:20). According to Bargiela-Chiappini *et al.* (2007: 3), it is "all about how people communicate using talk or writing in commercial organizations in order to get their work done." The following discussion is about the discourse in the business field as regarded from a discourse analysis perspective. The movement of discourse analysis under the trend of a communicative approach is led by Henry Widdowson in Britain and Louis Trimble, Larry Selinker, John Lackstorm and Mary Todd-Trimble in the United States. Register Analysis which is clearly influenced, as mentioned before, by structuralism, is rapidly shifted to the next stage that goes beyond the elements of the sentence. According to Brian Paltridge (2006: 3);

> discourse analysis considers the relationship between language and the context in which it is used and is concerned with the description and analysis of both spoken and written interactions. Its primary purpose as Chimombo and Roseberry (1998) argue, is

> to provide a deeper understanding and appreciations of texts and how they become meaningful to their users.

Allen and Widdowson (1947: 47) in explaining the role of language use in discourse, claim that "Language considered as communication no longer appears as a separate subject but as an aspect of other subjects. A corollary to this is that an essential part of any subject is the manner in which its ‘content’ is given linguistic expression." Linguistically speaking, there is disagreement in defining ‘Discourse’, Nunan (1993: 5-6) discusses different opinions on the term ‘discourse’, he reports that the term can be used almost interchangeably with the term ‘text’, for (Crystal, 1992), or is seen as a language in use as opposed to ‘text’, which is a written language (Crook, 1989). So, obviously, there are two main views describing discourse analysis. On the one hand, there are studies of discourse at the level of text that focus on the stretches of language that are naturally occurring. Deborah Cameron and Don Kulick (2003: 29) see that textually oriented language is also socially oriented and needs to be analyzed in terms of its social meanings.

> It is in *discourse*-the use of language in specific contexts- that words acquire meaning. Whenever people argue about words, they are also arguing about the assumptions and values that have clustered around those words in the course of their history of being used. We cannot understand the significance of any word unless we attend closely to its relationship with other words…

Furthermore, discourse is also viewed as language in use;

> through the use of language, people achieve certain communicative goals, perform certain communicative acts, participate in certain communicative events and present themselves to others. Discourse analysis considers how people manage interactions with each other, how people communicate within particular groups and societies, as well as how they communicate with other groups and with other cultures. It also focuses on how people do things beyond language… (Brian Paltridge, 2006: 9).

James Paul Gee and Michael Handford (2012: 1) broaden the meaning of ‘discourse analysis’ to cover “both pragmatics (the study of contextually specific meanings of language in use) and the study of ‘text’ (the study of how sentences and utterances pattern together to create meaning across multiple sentences and utterances).” They went on to claim that “We do not just mean things with language: we also do things with language.” For Gillian Brown and George Yule (1983: 1), Discourse analysis “cannot be restricted to the language description of the linguistic forms independent of the purposes or the functions which those forms are designed to serve in human affairs…The discourse analyst is committed to an investigation of what that language is used for."

Hutchinson and Waters (1987) claim that the meaning of one sentence can change completely according to the context; they explain that the meaning of one sentence is related directly to many factors. First, the sociolinguistic factor: who is speaking with whom? Second, the relationship between the participants of the dialogue and the reason for speaking. Third, the position of the utterance within the discourse influences the meaning of the utterance that precedes or follows. Hence they introduce the term 'discoursal meaning'. "All communication has structural level, functional level and a discoursal level. They are not mutually exclusive, but complementary..." (Hutchinson and Waters, 1987: 37) According to Bhatia (1993: 3), discourse analysis "has been given several names such as: text linguistics, text analysis, conversational analysis, functional analysis, rhetorical analysis, clause-relational analysis. The main object of all these studies has been to understand the structure and the function of language use to communicate meaning."

Some of the shortcomings of Discourse Analysis are that the study remains incomplete; studying the functional units of discourse at the sentence or utterance level is not enough, yet there is a limited emphasis on how functions and sentences/utterances are related together to form a text. In this, Dudley-Evans and St. John (1998: 98) say: "there is a danger that the findings of discourse analysis, which are concerned with texts and how they work as pieces of discourse, fail to take sufficient account of the academic or business context in which communication takes place." Bhatia (1993: 10) also explains that discourse analysis…

> lacked adequate information about the rational underlying various discourse types, which in other words; meant insufficient explanation of socio-cultural, institutional and organizational constraints and expectation that influence the nature of a particular discourse genre. Second it paid little attention to the conventionalized regularities in the organization of various communicative events.

2.2.1.1.3 Genre Analysis

The need to study the functional units of the sentences or utterances related together in a text led to Genre Analysis. Since Swales (1981) work was revised in (1990), there have been many studies such as (Hopkins and Dudley-Evans, 1988; Thompson 1993; Salager-Meyer 1990) both in the academic and Business fields. The studies are mainly held in the written genres as they are more palpable (Myers, 1989), but some works on the spoken genres are done as well, such as conferences, presentations (Dubois, 1980 and 1987), and sales negotiations in Business (Charles, 1996) (from Fortanet and Dudley-Evans, 1998). Dudley-Evans and St. John (1998) claim that Discourse Analysis and Genre Analysis are two overlapping words. They consider Discourse Analysis to be an umbrella that includes Genre Analysis. Yet, they distinguish between them as follows:

> Any study of language or, more specifically, text at a level above that of sentence is a discourse study. This may involve the study of cohesive links between sentences, of paragraphs, or the structure of the whole text. The results of this type of analysis make statements about how texts -any text-work. This is 'applied' discourse analysis. Where, however, the focus of the text analysis is on the regularities of structure that distinguish one type of text from another type, this is genre analysis and the results focus on the differences between text types, or genres. (Dudley-Evans and St. John, 1998: 87)

Swales (2011:17) speaks about 'genre' and defines it as "a more or less standardized communicative event with a goal or set of goals mutually understood by the participants in that event and occurring within a functional rather than a personal or social setting". But perhaps one of the most comprehensible definitions of the term genre is that of Paltridge (2022: 68) as he distinguishes between the spoken and written genres and speaks about the common features and functions between genres,

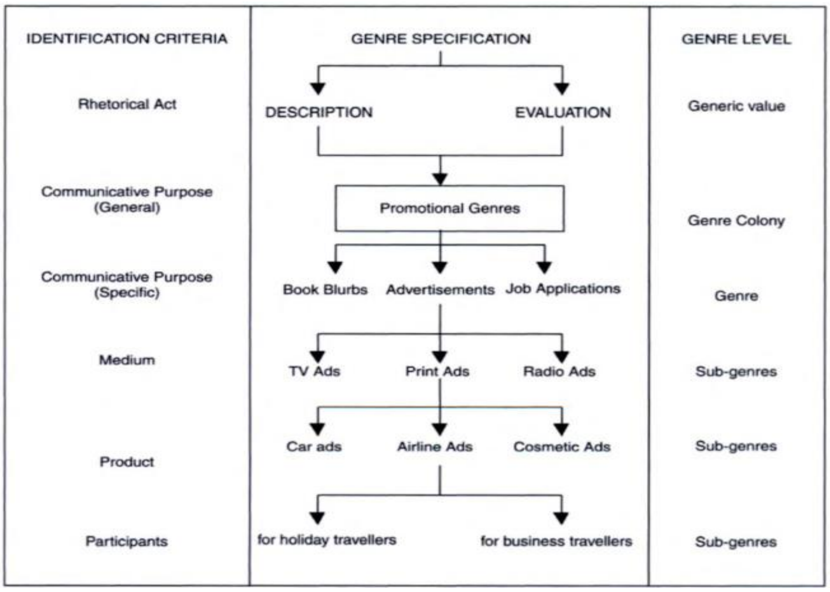
> Genres are ways in which people 'get things done' through their use of spoken and written discourse. Academic lectures and casual conversations are examples of spoken genres. Newspapers reports and academic essays are examples of written genres. Instances of a genre often share a number of features. They may be spoken or written in typical, and sometimes conventional, ways. They also often have a common function and purpose (or set of functions and purposes)…Genres change through time. This may, for example, be in response to changes in technologies or it may be as a result of changes in values underlying the use of the particular genre.

Jack Richards and Richard Schmidt (2002: 245) define the term 'genre' as "a type of discourse that occurs in a particular setting, that has distinctive and recognizable patterns of norms of organization and structure, and that has particular and distinctive communicative functions." If we project this definition onto BE, we will find that the different business situations such as meetings, presentations, telephone conversations, business letters, reports, etc. are manifestations of those recognizable patterns in a particular business setting that serve specific communicative functions.

2.2.1.1.3.1 Bhatia's grouping 'sub-genre' and 'genre colony'

In his turn, Vijay Bhatia (1993: 13) defines genre as "a recognizable event characterized by a set of communicative purpose(s) identifies and mutually understood by members of the professional or academic community in which it regularly occurs." He went on to speak about the 'sub-genre' and stated "any major change in the communicative purpose(s) is likely to give us a different genre; however, minor changes or modifications help us distinguish sub-genres." (Bhatia, op cit: 13). The major distinctive difference between genres is ruled by the difference in the communicative purpose; however, other minor differences will separate the 'sub-genres, for instance, "their disciplinary and professional affiliations, contexts of use and exploitations, participant relationships, audience constraints and so on." (Bhatia, 2004: 57). But in explaining the complexity of genres in professional and academic contexts, Bhatia (op cit :58) goes for the 'genre colony'. He refers to it as "a grouping of a number of genres that within and across disciplinary domains which largely share the communicative purpose that each one of them tends to serve…". 'A genre colony' entails different genres that share the same 'general' communicative purpose, and each genre will in turn contain different sub-genres that have the same 'specific' communicative purpose.

Figure.*2.3. Generic Description of 'Genre Colony' (e.g. promotional genres)*



Source: Vijay Bhatia (2004: 59)

2.2.1.1.3.2 Moves and Steps

There is a standard prototype of what is called ‘moves’ and ‘steps’ that are ordered in a certain way to form a genre. A ‘move’ is "a discoursal or rhetorical unit that performs a coherent communicative function in a written or spoken discourse" (Swales, 2004: 228). It relates both the writer or the speaker aim and the context of communication. A ‘step’ represents a lower level unit than the ‘move’, which opens the door to some detailed options to construct the ‘move’ (Swales, 1990: 141). In BE, each genre has its own group of modeled sentences or utterances that are organized in a specific way directly related to the context of occurrence. Similarly, Anna Trosborg and Poul Erik Flyvholm Jørgensen (2005: 8) claim that "each professional genre used in the service of corporate communication is characterised by its own set of patterned communicative utterances whose order and content are immediately sensitive to changes in the situational context." In an attempt to exemplify Swales’s (1990) model in academic research articles in the field of business communication, Bhatia (1993) illustrates Business letters and legal documents, and Aud Solbjørg Skulstad (2006) proposes an example of the introductory ‘letter’ of a corporate annual report; his example is named Relationship and Confidence (RECON), *Table 2.1*, which demonstrates the move-step model by Swales (1990) extended to the area of business.

Table.2.1. Move-Step Model in Business (RECON Model)

MOVE 1: ESTABLISHING RELATIONSHIPS	
Optional Step A:	Salutation
Optional Step B:	Providing the background for the present scene
Step 1:	Summary statement
Step 2:	Providing figures describing company performance
Step 3:	Selecting aspects of the past financial year
MOVE 2: MAINTAINING CONFIDENCE	
Step 1:	Projecting the future
	by
Step 1A:	Announcing corporate strategies, policies and objectives
	and/or
Step 1B:	Predicting the future/looking ahead
Optional Step C:	Signalling honesty
Optional Step D:	Providing reassurance
MOVE 3: REINFORCING THE RELATIONSHIPS	
Step 1:	Reviewing board changes (if any)
Step 2:	Acknowledging credit to management and employees
Step 3:	Closing statement of reassurance
Step 4:	Signature

Source: Aud Solbjørg Skulstad (2006: 92)

However, in their analysis of these models, Dudley-Evans and St. John (1998: 91) criticize them for being ‘very much text-based’; "It undoubtedly offers the ESP teacher a way into these texts, both for preparing reading and writing materials…, but there is a danger of becoming ‘stuck’ in the text, by which we mean being interested only in the surface features rather than the context and other outside influences on the text." They claim that in a genre we can relate the text to the ‘discourse community’. Then, it would be interesting to have a clear distinction between hierarchical language analyses: register, rhetorical and discourse, and genre. As these concepts often overlap and are closely related, making a clear distinction is not easy. What matters for this research is gaining an overview of these concepts and their interrelationships. Other related aspects of teaching the language in BE might need a broad overview, such as the business vocabulary, metaphors in business, and the use of corpus.

2.2.1.2 Teaching Business Vocabulary

One of the main aspects in teaching BE is teaching vocabulary. “While in general we agree that it should not be the responsibility of the ESP teacher to teach technical vocabulary, in certain specific contexts it may be the duty of the ESP teacher to check that learners have understood technical vocabulary appearing as carrier content for an exercise.” (Dudley-Evans and St. John, 1998: 81). Another concept, ‘sub-technical’ vocabulary, which appears to be of much importance, has been studied as early as 1965 by many scholars (Herbert, 1965; Ronayne Cowan, 1974; Mona Baker, 1988; Dudley-Evans and St. John, 1998). Cowan (1974: 391) distinguishes three types of vocabulary: "highly technical," "sub-technical," and "non-technical." He defines the ‘sub-technical’ vocabulary “as context independent words which occur with high frequency across disciplines. Examples would be items like: function, inference, isolate, relation, basis…” Baker (1988: 91) claims that “The term sub-technical covers a whole range of items which are neither highly technical and specific to a certain field nor obviously general in the sense of being everyday words which are not used in a distinctive way in a specialized texts”. In their turn, Dudley-Evans and St. John (1998: 83) speak about ‘core business vocabulary’ or ‘semi-technical’ vocabulary, which entails all the words that are used in many disciplines but with different meanings; it can also refer to general notions that are used in many specialized disciplines.

The concept of ‘sub-technical vocabulary’ is considered elusive by teachers as well as linguists because it is not clearly or consistently defined in the literature. Moreover, understanding a specialized text does not mean automatically understanding the given terminology (Baker, 1988). Being in that area, where the term is neither specialized nor general at the same time, only common sense and the experience of the teacher indicate that it is an area that requires a specific way of teaching. Baker (1988) claims that an ESP teacher is not required to explain every single ‘sub-technical’ word but rather to help the learner develop the sense of questioning and analyzing the texts and identify the repeated words and their relevance to the context.

> What the ESP teacher would ideally hope to achieve by teaching rhetorical/organizational lexis is to develop in his foreign students a sense of style relevant to various text-types used in their specific discipline and an ability to interpret, evaluate and later make use of an argument or piece of specialist information. This necessitates the study of real texts in order to identify the relevant items, the patterns in which they occur and the restrictions applying to their use in any particular genre. (Baker, op cit: 93)

For Dudley-Evans and St. John (1998,)," In terms of teaching ESP, it is the first category that should be given priority, and this is the area that we shall refer to as semi-technical or core business vocabulary." Similarly, Cowan (1974: 391) claims that "what we need to focus on instead is sub-technical vocabulary". The ‘Core business vocabulary’ differs from the GE vocabulary in its meaning; the same word may refer to different meanings both contexts.

The words (Asset, Encumbrance, and Yield) are an illustration of the difference in meaning between GE and BE respectively from (Advanced Learner's Dictionary. Oxford: OUP, 2000 and Online Business Dictionary.2020.Web. 8 May 2020. www.businessdictionary.com)

- **An asset (n.)**: A useful or valuable quality, skill, or person: He’ll be a great asset to the team.

  Assets (n.pl): Average amount of accounts receivable, cash, inventory, etc., which can be converted easily into cash or is expected to be sold within one year. Formula: (Current assets of current year + Current assets of previous year) ÷ 2.
- **Encumbrance (n.):** A person or a thing that prevents somebody from moving easily or from doing what they want.

  Encumbrance (n.): Mortgages, claims by other parties, court judgments, pending legal action, unpaid taxes, restrictive deed or loan covenants, easement rights of the neighbors, or zoning ordinances.

— **A yield (n.):** A product

A yield (n.): The annual income earned from an investment, expressed usually as a percentage of the money invested.

The learners' awareness of these differences is key to building a consistent Business vocabulary. Crina Herţeg (2016: 434) says:

> The main aspect of teaching English for business purposes is related to teaching vocabulary. One step in our approach to teaching business English would be increasing students' awareness of the business English vocabulary and of the differences existing between general English lexicon and business English one.

In Business, it is usually required to go beyond the literal definition of words to comprehend more than just their meaning. Hence, teaching students to deduce meaning from context is essential. Much research has shown the importance of using metaphors in business and their impact. For Baramee Kheovichai (2015: 93), "Metaphor is an important tool for developing business theories and communicating ideas in a business context." Understanding how to effectively use and interpret metaphors can greatly enhance a person's ability to communicate and understand complex ideas in a professional environment. By incorporating the study of metaphors into business language instruction, students will be better equipped to navigate the nuances and subtleties of business communication.

2.2.1.2.1 Word Meaning and Business Metaphors

Early studies on the use of metaphor in Business (Willie Henderson, 1982; James Nattinger, 1988) and more recent ones (Jonathan Charteris-Black, 2000; Veronika Koller, 2004; Honesto Herrera-Soler and Michael White, 2012; Hanna Skorczynska and Alice Deignan, 2006) attempt to study metaphor in Business from different perspectives. Dudley-Evans and St. John (1998) support James Nattinger (1988) view on the cognitive process of learning vocabulary, revealing that the meaning of the words is essential to the capture of new words and their memorization. The cognitive process of recalling the vocabulary leans on the regrouping of words according to their meanings. The vocabulary grouping can be 'semantic', 'situational', or 'metaphor sets' (Dudley-Evans and St. John, 1998: 84). Semantic groups include synonyms such as (to shift, to move, to change, to alter, etc.), antonyms like (rocket, plummet), and subordinates like (vehicle, car). The situational groups refer to all the vocabulary related to a given situation or context; the vocabulary related to the construction site, for instance, is (hard hat, isolating gloves, forklift, scaffold, etc.) Metaphors, on the other hand, are used in business to refer to specific situations and are well known among business people; such as *'cash cow'* which refers to "a well-established brand or business that provides positive cash flow" (Business Dictionary, 2020), and *'a dead cat bounce'* which refers to "Wall Street term of a small, brief recovery in the price of a declining stock" (Business Dictionary, 2020). Herţeg (2016: 435-436) suggests strategies in the teaching of BE metaphors:

> The strategies applied in teaching the basic meaning of business vocabulary differ from those applied in introducing figurative meanings. In teaching figurative language to business English students teachers have to resort to an array of methods and strategies: the first stage includes raising students' awareness of metaphors, drawing on the entailment between general meaning and figurative meaning, as well as resorting to visual images. The relationship establishing between the basic meaning and the figurative one is often based on polysemy, this facilitates students' retention of business English terms.

2.2.1.2.2 Using Corpus

The increasing popularity of corpus in teaching languages has generated a need to give it a clear definition. Several definitions are given to the concept, and herewith is a presentation of some of the authoritative ones:

(1) "a corpus is a collection of a naturally-occurring language text, chosen to characterize a state or a variety of a language" (Sinclair, 1990: 171 cited in Tognini-Bonelli, 2001: 53).

(2) The Expert Advisory Group on Language Engineering Standards (EAGLES, 1994:1) defines a corpus as "a collection of pieces of language that are selected and ordered according to explicit linguistic criteria in order to be used as a sample of the language."

(3) A corpus is "a subset of an ETL (Electronic Text Library), built according to explicit design criteria for a specific purpose, e.g. the Corpus Révolutionnaire (Bibliothèque Beaubourg, Paris), the Co-build Corpus, the Longman/Lancaster corpus, the Oxford Pilot corpus." (Atkins *et al.*, 1992:1)

> (4) a corpus has come to be regarded as a body of text made available in computer-readable form for purposes of linguistic analysis. The first computer corpus ever created, the Brown Corpus, qualifies as a corpus because it contains a body of text – one million words of edited written American English

> made available in an electronic format (the ICAME CD-ROM, 2nd ed.) that can be run on multiple computer platforms (Macintosh, DOS/Windows, and Unix-based computers). (Charles Meyer, 2002: 8)
>
> (5)…a collection of naturally occurring examples of language, consisting anything from a few sentences to a set of written texts or tape recording, which have been collected for linguistics study: More recently the word has been reserved for collections of texts (or parts of text) that are stored and accessed electronically. Because computers can hold and process large amounts of information, electronic corpora are usual larger than the small, paper based collection previously used to study aspects of language. (Susan Hunston, 2002: 2)

(6) "A large principled sample of texts designed to represent a target domain of language use (e.g., a language, dialect, or register)" (Jesse Egbert *et al.*, 2022: 7)

In BE the use of corpora seems to prove its usefulness not only in facilitating the student's BE vocabulary acquisition but also in providing the teachers with a background to explore the Business vocabulary as opposed to the GE vocabulary. As for Herţeg (2016: 434):

> For the business English teacher corpora represent an advantage and at the same time an opportunity as they can facilitate students' acquisition of the business English vocabulary, they encompass genuine, authentic material. Corpora prove to be very useful tools for teachers, as, based on them teachers can better exploit the lexical differences arising between general English and the business English genre.

"A specialized corpus is particularly useful for understanding how language is used in a particular register of the language" (Tribble, 1990) cited in (Hou, 2014: 27). It is considered as a beneficial resource in teaching BE in developing the reading and writing skills. According to Dudley-Evans and St. John (1998: 84-85), "the corpora provide the opportunity to draw up lists of key lexical items in general EAP or EOP texts, or in specific disciplines." In the same way, a computer corpus does not show new information, but the 'software packages' enable the users to experience a new perspective in the research. Research can be done in different ways: by showing the frequency, phraseology, and collocations (Hunston, 2002).

2.2.1.2.3 Collocations and Lexical phrases

One way of manipulating the data in corpora is through the number of collocations or words that tend to co-occur repeatedly in a given context. Nadja Nesselhauf (2005: 11-12) refers to it as "some kind of syntagmatic relation of words.", and pinpoints two main views;

> In one of these two views, a collocation is considered the co-occurrence of words at a certain distance, and a distinction is usually made between co-occurrences that are frequent (or more precisely, more frequent than could be expected if words combined randomly in a language) and those that are not…In the other view, collocations are seen as a type of word combination, most commonly as one that is fixed to some degree but not completely.

A computer corpus can show more information and more accurate statistics on collocates of a given word than that found by a human. In BE some words collocate with a long list of other words, such as the word *product* that can collocate with; (*placement, endorsement, launch, line, range, type, package, development, design, sector, category, price, quality).* Or the word *media* that can collocate with (*audio-visual, broadcast, broadcasting, electronic, mass, news, print, visual , foreign, international, local, national | mainstream, official, popular.)* This takes us to the co-occurrence of more than two words which may be referred to as 'lexical phrases' or 'chunks of language' that are memorized by the learner rather than single words of vocabulary. They are simply "short set phrases that are frequently used in certain situations" (Dudley-Evans and St. John, 1998: 86). In BE, short sets of words are recurrently utilized such as; '*stick to the agenda'*, *'getting down to business'*, *'as the figures show'* and so on.

2.2.2 Focus on The Learner

According to Hutchinson and Waters (1987), the learner's role in learning a language for a specific purpose turns out to be central in affecting the learning process. "Learners were seen to have different needs and interests, which would have an important influence on their learning. This lent support to the development of courses in which 'relevance' to the learners' needs and interests was paramount." (Hutchinson and Waters, 1987: 8) They explain that the learner's role must be taken into consideration at every point in the course design without neglecting the Target situation analysis, henceforth TSA, the skills, and the learning strategies. They also assume that including the learners in the learning process will increase their motivation toward the language, which will consequently result in more efficient learning. "The assumption underlying this approach was that the clear relevance of the English course to their needs would improve the learners' motivation and thereby make learning better and faster" (ibid). Maryellen Weimer (2002) and Phyllis Blumberg (2009) emphasize the creation of a learning environment and opportunities for the learner to assume responsibility and take a central role in the learning process. Many factors are considered in the learner-centered approach, such as the diversity of activities, the learners' attitude toward the methodology, and the topic of the course. The combination of these elements can insure or at least maximize the learning chances. As the role of the learner is focal in this approach, we cannot ignore creativity; thus, the course should be handled very carefully and flexibly at the same time in order to sustain this creativity. When it comes to teaching BE, the autonomy of the learner seems to be the best choice, as communication is more required in business. Mark Ellis and Christine Johnson (1994: 35) stress the role of 'performance objectives' in BE, they focus on "training learners to become operationally effective", and stand on the communicative approach in order to reach this end.

2.2.2.1 Communicative Language Teaching in Business English

As a reaction to the traditional methods of teaching such as Audiolingualism where the centrality of grammar is the main focus; Communicative Language Teaching, henceforth (CLT); came with a more functional view of language. William Littlewood (1981) points out some features of the Communicative approach to language teaching and relates it to the important role the learner plays in the learning process;

> (1) A communicative approach opens up a wider perspective on language. In particular, it makes us consider language not only in terms of its structures (grammar and vocabulary), but also in terms of the communicative functions that it performs.
> (2) A communicative approach opens up a wider perspective on language learning. In particular, it makes us more strongly aware that is not enough to teach learners how to manipulate the structures of the foreign language. They must also develop strategies for relating these structures to their communicative functions in real situations and real time. (Littlewood, 1981: x-xi)

In ESP, the CLT supporters find it "more efficient to teach them the specific kinds of language and communicative skills needed for particular roles, (e.g., that of nurse, engineer, flight attendant, pilot, biologist, etc.) rather than just to concentrate on more general English." (Jack. C. Richards, 2006: 12). In his work, Evan Frendo (2005) determines what is special about BE, he argues that what distinguishes it from other fields is the set of activities the business people have to accomplish in groups rather than individually; considering the situations of cooperation, negotiation, conflicts, persuading, controlling, and explaining, etc. "In short, business English is communication with other people within a specific context" (Frendo, 2005: 1). He also states that "because Business English is not only about language, but also about language use, it is worth first considering the issue of communicative competence." (Frendo, op cit: 9). More than that, he emphasizes the importance of 'spoken grammar'[16] which entails different features that affect the way the language is communicated and therefore affect the meaning.

"One of the most characteristic features of communicative language teaching is that it pays systematic attention to functional as well as structural aspects of language, combining these two into a more fully communicative view" (Littlewood 1981:1). It encourages the learners to create the learning methods that help them to communicate better. "It was argued that learners learn a language through the process of communicating in it and that communication that is meaningful to the learner provides a better opportunity for learning than through a grammar-based approach."(Richards, 2015: 69). Along similar lines; Brieger (1997: 41) claims in his work about teaching BE that "Effective communicators will develop their own strategies and techniques - personal styles which transcend the use of a foreign language, but which can enhance the message of many less fluent and less accurate language users" Interestingly, he considers effective professional communication in BE as one important part of Business communication skills[17]; including presentations, meetings, telephoning, negotiations, and written documentation. The communicative approach is the approach that focuses not only on more cooperative learning but also on similar approaches such as the Task-based Approach.

[16] "Spoken grammar is normally used in real-time interaction…It is not only *what* is said, but *how* it is said that is for interest for business English learners. **Phonology** is about how we use our voices to make the sounds of utterances. We use **stress**, **rhythm**, and **intonation** (sometimes called **prosody**) to convey meaning. **Chunking** involves grouping words together, with a pause, or a change in pitch, or a lengthening of a syllable to signal the end of the chunk. Combined with stress, intonation, and rhythm, chunking can alter the way the listener understands the message." (Evan Frendo, 2005: 9)

[17] Brieger (1997) devided communication skills in Business as follows: Accuracy of language knowledge: words, grammar, and pronunciation. Fluency of communication: spead of speaking, effort of speaking. Effectiveness of professional communication: impact of delivery, variety of media, concisness of communication. (Brieger, op cit: 39-40-41)

2.2.2.2 Task-based Approach

The Task-based approach, henceforth (TBA), does not focus on the linguistic items but rather emphasizes the learning experience itself. "Both task-based and procedural syllabuses share a concern with the classroom processes which stimulates learning. They therefore differ from syllabuses in which the focus is on the linguistic items…" (Nunan, 1988: 42) The TBA has been defined by Richards and Rodgers (1986: 223) as "an approach based on the use of tasks as the core unit of planning and instruction in language teaching". Thornbury (2005: 119) reveals that it is "an approach that foregrounds the performance of task, and which only afterwards focuses attention on the linguistic components of that task…" Predictably, CLT is a theoretical approach to the curriculum design here, and the TBLT is the concretization of this philosophy in practice, that is, methodology.

The TBA considers the idea of 'task' as the primary element of the learning process. Richards and Rodgers (1986) refer to it as an 'activity' or a 'target' to achieve using language. Nunan (2004: 4) explains that a task is

> …a piece of classroom work that involves learners in comprehending, manipulating, producing or interacting in the target language while their attention is focused on mobilizing their grammatical knowledge in order to express meaning, and in which the intention is to convey meaning rather than to manipulate form. The task should also have a sense of completeness, being able to stand alone as a communicative act in its own right with a beginning, a middle and the end. Nunan (2004: 4)

The TBA aims at integrating the learner into interactive and meaningful tasks with a well-defined objective that enhances collaboration and encourages competitiveness. In order to reinforce his previous knowledge and acquire new information, the learner is required to start from his own experience and go through a learning cycle to reach an end that, in turn, will be another starting point for another cycle putting his own experience into practice and building up his own knowledge. It goes with the sense of learner-centeredness using one's own experience as a departure point. Nunan (1993: 133) reports Kohonen (1992) view on experiential learning;

> Experiential learning theory provides the basic philosophical view of learning as part of personal growth. The goal is to enable the learner to become increasingly self-directed and responsible for his or her own learning. This process means a gradual shift of the initiative to the learner,

> encouraging him or her to bring in personal contributions and experiences. Instead of the teacher setting the tasks and standards of acceptable performance, the learner is increasingly in charge of his or her own learning.

The principle element is active learning, which is learning through experience, taking the learner's experience as the point of departure. Nunan (1993: 12) summarizes the advantages of experiential learning as follows:

- Encourage the transformation of knowledge within the learner rather than the transmission of knowledge from the teacher to the learner.
- Encourage learners to participate actively in small, collaborative groups…
- Embrace a holistic attitude towards subject matter rather than a static, atomistic and hierarchical attitude.
- Emphasize process rather than product, learning how to learn, self-inquiry, social and communication skills.
- Encourage self-directed rather than teacher directed learning.
- Promote intrinsic rather than extrinsic motivation.

The rise of the communicative view in teaching ESP came with the development of NA as a fundamental part of course design. The communicative approach places a strong emphasis on the importance of communication in the target situation, which was developed in parallel with the communicative approach (Nelson, 2000). The communicative view of ESP aims to provide learners with the communicative competence they need to function in their respective professional or academic fields. As such, NA plays a key role, as it helps to identify the specific learners' communicative needs in order to tailor instruction to meet those needs.

2.2.3 Focus on the Needs

The need to learn BE is growing in importance as the world connects through language, and the need to use it in an excellent way is even more prominent. Both companies and employees require distinctive skills in order to communicate well in the business field. The different language features, skills, lexis, and genres that are needed differ to a great extent from one company to another and from one group of employees to another, and using general programs and materials that are not meant for a particular group in teaching language to those people will be inadequate and wasteful. Each group needs a tailor-made analysis in terms of language, pedagogy, communication, and maybe other factors that match its needs "Just as no medical intervention would be prescribed before a thorough diagnosis of what ails the patient, so no language teaching program should be designed without a thorough needs analysis" (Michal Long, 2005: 1).

The language and skills required in a particular domain of business vary greatly for the management staff of a company, sales personnel, marketing, finance, etc. The difference in their roles underlies the differences in the required language, skills, and texts. Hutchinson and Waters (1987: 53) claim that the awareness of the learners' needs "will have an influence on what will be acceptable as reasonable content in the language course and, on the positive side, what potential can be exploited". Thus, the starting question for any BE course is, Why do these learners need to learn English? NA is the 'corner stone' of ESP and leads to a very accurate course (Dudley-Evans and St. John, 1998). NA is the first step in any course design; it can refer to all the activities meant to gather information about the learning situation in order to design an adequate syllabus that matches the learner's needs (Tomoko Iwai *et al.*, 1999: 6). For Ken Hyland (2019:339),

> …needs analysis is a defining element of its practices and a major source of its interdisciplinarity (e.g., Upton 2012). The systematic investigation of the specific sets of skills, texts, linguistic forms, and communicative practices that a particular group of learners must acquire is central to ESP. It informs its curricula and materials and underlines its pragmatic engagement with occupational, academic, and professional realities.

According to Iwai *et al*. (1999), formal NA is relatively new to the field of language teaching. Conversely, informal needs analyses have always been carried out by teachers to be able to distinguish which language aspects their students need in order to master the language. Indeed, the motive behind the emergence of several approaches and then their substitution is that teachers have always tried to meet their students' needs throughout the learning process. According to Dudley-Evans and St. John (1998), the perception of NA has developed and broadened throughout years of practice and research. In the 1960s, there was little or no knowledge of what needs were as literature teachers were introduced to the teaching of English for Science and Technology with a superficial knowledge of needs. Later, studies witnessed a shift from the very basic aspects of language analysis relying on linguistic approaches and register analysis, which embodied a key to the study of needs as the fundamental item in grammar and vocabulary. With the influential publication of Munby's *Communicative Syllabus Design* (1978), two new concepts were seen as fundamental as grammar and vocabulary: situations and functions. Munby outlined a comprehensive framework for the learner's communicative needs in the learners' target situation, which he called the 'Communicative Needs Processor' (CNP). The latter categorizes the different communication situations under eight major headings, which were summed up by (Marjatta Huhta *et al.*, 2013: 3) as follows:

> 1) Purposive domain-the type of LSP, the purpose for which the language is needed. 2) Setting-details for time, place, event. 3) Interaction-the roles, relative status, relationships, etc. of the learner with other people. 4) Instrumentality-the channel and mode of communication. 5) Dialect-the language varieties that will be encountered. 6) Target level-the level of proficiency that is needed for the learner in the target situation.7) Communicative event-what learners will need to be able to do with language in the target situation.8) Communicative key-similar to Halliday's tenor, including attitudes and levels of formality

This initiative was considered revolutionary as it opened a new era of research in language learning. A good example of linguists who support the work is Coleman (1988) who thinks that "Probably the most influential of all needs analysis procedures currently available is Munby's "communication needs processor" (1978)" (Coleman, 1988: 155). Munby provided a mechanism that facilitates determining an accurate language learner profile. However, the CNP was discussed and even criticized as being the final model to operate by the course designers in NA. In this, Hutchinson and Waters (1987: 54) say that "it showed the sterility of a language-centered approach to Needs Analysis". Other linguists consider that the CNP is 'complex', 'inflexible', and 'time consuming' (West, 1994: 9). Perhaps the most important limitation encountered was that CNP does not involve the learner in any way as it collects data 'about' the learner and not 'from' the learner (Nunan, 1988: 24).

2.2.3.1 Needs Analysis Definition

Various studies and practices were undertaken by linguists in the 1980s with regard to the definition of the term 'needs'. Some find it ambiguous because "Concepts of needs are almost never clearly defined" (Johnson, 1989: 58). There have always been disagreements concerning what is meant by 'needs' and 'needs analysis'. All the directions and thoughts are of educational value and deserve consideration and careful study as they represent aspects and perspectives that influenced the development of Needs Analysis, henceforth NA. One way to look at the term 'needs' is to make a distinction between 'present knowledge' and 'required knowledge'. The difference between them goes back to the gap between the actual know-how and the demands (John Macalister and I.S.P. Nation, 2010: 25). It is also seen by Geoffrey Brindley (1989) as 'objective needs' (the needs identified by the analysts) and 'subjective needs' (the needs experienced by the learners). He also goes for using the distinction between

'Process-oriented' "how the learning is carried out" and 'product-oriented' "the final outcome of the course" (Huhta *et al.*, 2013:11-12). In the same line of thought, another nomination appears to make the distinction between 'perceived' and 'felt' needs (Richard Berwick, 1989:55). The 'perceived' needs come from outsiders and can be measured, whereas the 'felt' needs come from cognitive and affective factors, i.e., from the learner. In Richards and Schmidt's (2010: 389), the definition of NA is used interchangeably with 'needs assessment'. It is defined as "The process for determining the needs for which the learner or group of learners requires a language and arranging the needs according to priorities. Needs assessment makes use of both subjective and objective information (e.g. data from questionnaires, tests, interviews, observation)". In his turn, Dean Brown (2016: 3-4) provides what he presumes to be 'very elaborated and detailed' definition of NA when he says, "NA is a systematic collection and analysis of all subjective and objective information necessary to define and validate defensible curriculum purposes that satisfy the language learning requirements of students within the context of particular institutions that influence the learning and teaching situation. (Brown, 1995, p.36)"

In conclusion, the process of NA is of utmost importance in the teaching of BE. It helps to determine the specific needs and requirements of the learners, which can then be addressed through the curriculum design. The information gathered during the NA process provides valuable insights into the learners' strengths, weaknesses, and areas for improvement, which can then be used to design lessons that are relevant, engaging, and meaningful to the learners. Furthermore, conducting NA also helps to identify any potential barriers to learning, which can then be addressed in the curriculum design. This leads to a more effective and efficient learning experience for the learners and helps to ensure that the objectives of the course are met. In short, NA process is a crucial step in the BE teaching and should not be overlooked.

2.2.3.2 Business English: Fundamental Questions in Needs Analysis

NA is about reaching specific goals and designing a matching course. It investigates what the learners already know and what they need to learn. In order to gather the necessary information, it is important to ask a series of fundamental questions which help to provide a clear understanding of the learners' needs and the areas in which they require support. The information gathered through these questions forms the basis for the design of a tailored and effective learning experience that meets the learners' needs and helps them reach their goals.

In the following section, we will explore the fundamental questions that should be asked when conducting NA based on Richard West (1994) classification.

When should Needs Analysis be conducted? The answer to this question is divided into three main points in time: firstly, an ‘offline’ analysis should be performed prior to the start of the course. This is done to gather information about the target audience and their specific needs to design the syllabus. Secondly, an ‘online’ analysis should be conducted at the beginning of the course to gain insight into the participants' current level of knowledge and skills. Finally, the analysis should be performed during the course to continuously monitor the effectiveness of the training and make necessary adjustments. By conducting NA at these three key points, you can ensure that the training program is tailored to meet the participants’ needs and achieve the desired outcomes.

The ‘offline’ analysis is proposed by Chambers (1980), and it "involves analysis in advance of the course so that the course designer has ample time to prepare a syllabus and select or develop appropriate training materials." (West, 1994: 5) The teacher or the course designer conducts an analysis in advance in order to prepare the syllabus. This analysis can be seen as a TSA that includes questions for the employers or sponsors and, if possible, includes the learners’ perceptions through a questionnaire administered in advance. However, he criticizes the learners’ participation in the analysis of their own needs as "ill-founded, inaccurate or incomplete."(ibid)

Unlike the ‘offline’, ‘online’ or ‘first day’ analysis is held at the beginning of the course (West, 1994). The teacher in this situation is capable of having a better insight into the needs of the learners. However, West acknowledges that due to time constraints, it may not be possible for the teacher to prepare a complete and detailed course. Nonetheless, the online analysis provides the teacher with enough information to make informed decisions about their teaching strategies. This can result in more effective and engaging lessons that are better suited to the learning needs of each student.

Coleman (1988), in his criticism of Munby’s model of TSA, explains that the learner’s perception of the learning process changes throughout the course, a fact that must be taken into consideration. He says: "But this process does not take into account changes which occur over time as learners become more or less motivated and as they develop or fail to develop effective learning strategies." Coleman (op cit: 156-157). Hutchinson and Waters (1987: 61) speak about the 'lacks' and 'wants' of the learner and introduce what they call 'the learning needs'. A continuous analysis of the potential and constraints of the learning process must not be neglected in order to obtain a useful NA. "A process of on-going needs re-analysis is therefore required in response to these changing perceptions, so that both learner and teacher can identify new or short-term priorities" (West: 1994: 5).

Who provides the data? Or who can decide what language needs are? Dudley-Evans and St. John (1998: 132) list the main sources of data collection including "the learners, people working or studying in the field, ex-students…clients, employers, colleagues…" In BE, it is relevant to talk about three main sources: the sponsors or employers, the teacher and the learner. By obtaining information from the employer, the teacher can gain insight into the specific language skills that are required in the workplace. Additionally, by involving the learner in the process, the teacher can gain a deeper understanding of the learner's own language needs and goals. This collaborative approach ensures that the language needs of all stakeholders are addressed, resulting in a more effective language learning experience.

In BE, we speak about clients (sponsors or learners). The sponsor, the company, or the employer is the client to be satisfied. "The course designer, participants, and sponsors can specify and negotiate their needs."(Ron Howard and Gillian Brown, 1997: 73-74) They are considered to be the 'specialist needs analysts' (West, 1994) who provide the course designer information about the required needs for the potential market. However, using the information of a 'specialist needs analyst' is a "trend towards isolating needs analysis from other aspects of teaching and learning" (Swales, 1985: 177). In this, Hutchinson and Waters (1987: 54) insist on the learners' role in NA and criticize any ignorance of pedagogic implications.

Certain specialists attribute full responsibility for determining the needs to the teacher, as Richards and Rodgers (1986: 78) claim that the "… teacher assumes a responsibility for determining and responding to learner language needs". The teacher's role as 'needs analyst' can be fulfilled in a formal or an informal way. In a formal setting, the teacher may conduct assessments, surveys, or interviews to gather information about the language needs of their students. Whereas in an informal setting, the teacher may simply observe the students as they participate in class activities, paying attention to their strengths and weaknesses in order to make informed decisions about their teaching methods. In either case, it is important for the teacher to gather as much information as possible in order to accurately determine the language needs of their students.

In listing different procedures of NA, Robinson (1991:14) proposes the learners' participation through an open discussion; stating their perception of their own needs and goals. She called the method a 'Participatory Needs Analysis'. David Nunan (2007) speaks about sensitizing the learner to what is to be learned. He claims that when sharing the objectives of the course:

> (a)… learners came to have a more realistic idea of what can be achieved in a given course. (b) learning came to be seen as the gradual accretion of achievable goals. (c) learners developed greater sensitivity to their roles as language learners, and their vague notions of what it is to be a learner became much sharper; (d) self-evaluation became more feasible; (e) classroom activities could be seen to relate to real-life needs; and (f) development of skills was seen as a gradual rather than all-or-nothing process (Nunan, 2007: 424)

Collecting data can be done in different ways in BE; many specialists suggest a list of instruments that differ from one situation to another and from one teacher to another. They speak about checklists and questionnaires, interviews, observations (Hutchison and Waters, 1987; Dudley-Evans and St. John, 1998; West, 1994), discussions, assessments, analysis of authentic spoken and written texts (Dudley-Evans, 1998), Surveys, Language audits[18] (Nickerson and Planken, 2016; West, 1994), learner diaries, case studies, self-placement tests, previous lessons, and final feedback (West, 1994). But perhaps the mainly used methods in collecting data are questionnaires and observations[19].

All of the above instruments are useful ways of collecting the data; however, the questionnaire seems to play an important role in the process of NA. For Halina Sierocka (2014: 50) "All of the techniques contribute to gathering the data necessary to plan an ESP syllabus but it may be stated that questionnaire play a central role in the process. The advantages of conducting questionnaires and their role in the course planning, are not in doubt". Even though questionnaires are used on a large scale; "striking the balance between enough answers and data, and time/boredom for responders is difficult" (Dudley-Evans and St. John, 1998: 133).

Observations are considered to be more advantageous than questionnaires because of their "completeness of coverage and opportunity to clarify and extend because of the physical presence of the analyst." (Mackay, 1978 cited in West, 1994: 7) Observations embrace

[18] Language Audits in Business are discussed in Chapter II

[19] Other data collection methods are not discussed in details as they do not seem relevant to the present research.

watching a variety of events. The latter can be smaller tasks performed by the learners in the classroom, as it can be 'shadowing' the language users at the workplace. It is assumed that observing people at the workplace is a 'sensitive issue' unless a confidentiality assurance is given, as explained by Dudley-Evans and St. John (1998: 135)

> People in business may feel the content of events are commercially sensitive; anyone may feel a personal threat at having their movements watched and their words noted or recorded. Good groundwork beforehand is a crucial part of the process so as to explain the purpose, give confidentiality assurance, possibly show the results of previous observations…

As previously discussed, selecting an appropriate data collection method is dependent on its applicability. More than that, it is also important to consider the changing needs. Ongoing analysis is required in most cases; thus, changing the data collection method can be useful. In this, Howard and Brown (1997: 72) say that "It is also important to use methods which can take account of changing needs… It is inevitable that priorities will change as current needs are satisfied or modified, and new needs emerge". Another interrelated factor determining the choice of data collection method is the NA approach followed.

2.2.3.3 Approaches to Needs Analysis

In organizations that require assistance with the language, particularly when there is a lack of documentation, the course designer has not only to identify the adequate input to be taught but also to select and prioritize the input units according to the needs of the learners. For this, the language specialist may need to conduct an investigation on the functional activities in the organization as well as the needs of people working there, thus, conducting NA. The latter experienced a process of development from the 1970s; West (1994) presents this process in his work through four steps that embrace the detailed changes through time as follows: TSA, Deficiency Analysis, Strategy Analysis, Means Analysis, Language Audits and integrated/ computer-based analyses[20] and materials selection. The following table sums up the main studies in NA.

[20] It is an unpublished work of Nelson (1992, 1994) which tackles "a more sophisticated picture of needs through computer analysis (Jones, 1991) and to link perceived or identified priorities to a database cataloguing potentially suitable teaching materials (Nelson, 1992, 1994). Nelson's model integrates placement testing, needs analysis and materials selection" (West, 1994: 14)

Table: 2.2. Approaches to Needs Analysis

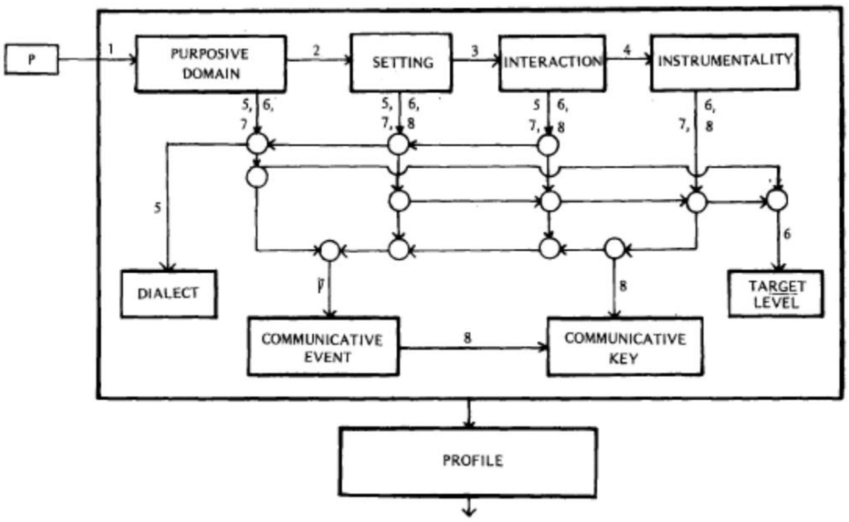
Period	Scope of analysis	Examples
1970's	Target Situation Analysis	Munby (1978)
1980's	Target Situation Analysis **Present Situation Analysis** Deficiency Analysis Strategy Analysis Means Analysis Language Audits	Chambers (1980), Richterich (1984) **Richterich & Chancerel (1980).** Allwright & Allwright (1977), **Robinson (1991)** **Nunan (1988)** Holliday & Crooke (1982) Pilbeam (1979)
1990's	Integrated/ computer-based analyses Materials selection	Jones (1991) Nelson (1992, 1994)

Source: Adapted from Richards West (1994: 1)

2.2.3.3.1 Target Situation Analysis

The dominant approach to NA in the 1970s was TSA which primarily focused on "how much" and "what" English language to use. The highest marker of NA studies conducted on TSA was Munby's (1978) approach, which established NA. To design a syllabus, Munby in his 'Communicative Needs Processor' (CNP) takes "account of variables that affect communication needs by organizing them as parameters in a dynamic relationship to each other…The parameters, therefore, are ordered in this way for both theoretical and operational reasons" (Munby, 1978: 32). The CNP clearly put the learner's purposes in a central position within the framework, thus, TSA became paramount.

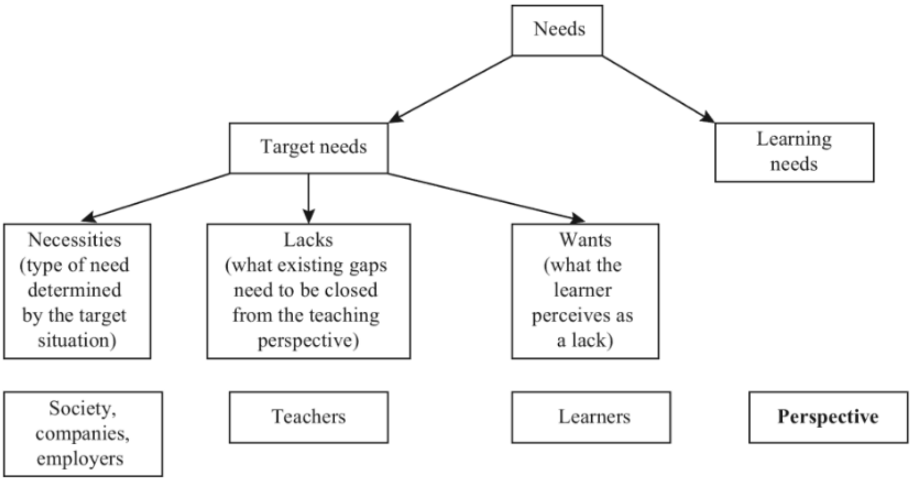
Figure.2.4. Communicative Needs Processor.



Source: John Munby (1978: 33)

Chambers (1980: 29) first introduces the term *Target situation Analysis* when he writes: "Thus needs analysis should be concerned primarily with the establishment of communicative needs and their realisations, resulting from an analysis of the communication in the target situation - what I will refer to from now on as target situation analysis (TSA) to identify this more restricted sense of needs analysis." Moving on from Chambers' concept of TSA, Hutchinson and Waters (1987) take a closer look at the definition of "need" in language learning as an umbrella covering three main categories. The first category pertains to the essential requirements or demands of the target situation, in other words, what the learner must know to effectively perform in the said situation. However, simply identifying these necessities is not enough, as language learning is an individualized process. Thus, Hutchinson and Waters emphasize the importance of pinpointing the specific requirements that the learner 'lacks' in order to conduct a more precise analysis. The third category is the learner's 'wants'. "…a need does not exist independent of a person. It is people who build their images of their needs on the basis of data relating to themselves and their environment."(Richterich (1984) cited in Gilabert Guerrero and Castellevi Vives, 2000: 171) In fact "what distinguishes ESP from General English is not the *existence* of a need as such but rather an *awareness* of the need" (Hutchinson and Waters, 1987: 53). The learner has certainly a view on what are his necessities and what are his actual lacks, but his awareness about it does not certainly overlap with the teacher's or the course designer's perceptions. Therefore, the objective view of the two first categories needs to give the learner an active role and include a sense of subjectivity.

Figure 2.5. Classification of needs based on Hutchinson and Waters (1987)



Source: Marjatta Huhta et al. (2013: 11)

For Hutchinson and Waters (1987: 62)

> The target situation, in other words, is not a reliable indicator of what is needed or useful in the ESP learning situation. The target situation analysis can determine the destination; it can also act as a compass on the journey to give general direction, but we must choose our route according to the vehicles and guides available (i.e. the conditions of the learning situation), the existing roads within the learners' mind (i.e. their knowledge, skills and strategies) and the learners' motivation for travelling.

Most of the research that followed Munby's work on TSA is based on the CNP since it represents comprehensive data on learner target performance. However, his work has been widely criticized. West (1994) mentions the shortcomings of Munby's model in terms of four different elements. First, 'Complexity'; he claims that "Munby's attempt to be systematic and comprehensive inevitably made his instrument inflexible, complex, and time-consuming" (West, 1994: 9) and compared it to the simplicity of Holliday and Cooke (1982) work. Second, the CNP is portrayed as "learner-centered," despite Munby's claims to the contrary. However, his work gathers information 'about' the leaner rather than 'from' the learner. Third, 'constraints' should be examined at the start, not at the end, of the NA procedure. Lastly, 'language', as "Munby fails to provide a procedure for converting the learner profile into a syllabus (Richards, 1984)" (West, op cit: 9). Similarly, Hutchinson and Waters (1987: 54) say that the CNP "showed the ultimate sterility of a language-centered approach to needs analysis" because it does not go beyond the syllabus designer's point of view and other important parts such as the learner are not taken into consideration. Thus, it does not distinguish between the ‘necessities’, ‘lacks, and ‘wants’.

Although Munby’s model paved the way for further developments and progress in NA, it has been condemned on several floors including being time-consuming and complex, excluding learners’ views, neglecting socio-political, logistical, and administrative constraints, and marginalizing skills specification from social English (Hutchinson and Waters, 1987 ; West, 1994) . After the realization of Munby’s approach deficits, several analysts enlarged the scope of the NA to take account of some concerns beyond the syllabus specification. In fact, NA was broadened to include not only the "what" of language but also the ‘how’ of language learning.

2.2.3.3.2 Present Situation Analysis

Arguments among linguists resulted in broadening the concept of TSA even further by introducing the term ‘Present Situation Analysis’, henceforth PSA. The latter was first introduced by Richterich and Chancerel (1980) as cited in (Haseli Songhori, 2008: 10) and is considered complementary to TSA putting emphasis on ‘lacks’ and 'wants'. PSA entails aspects, among which are “personal information about the learners ; factors which may affect the way they learn such as previous learning experiences, cultural information reasons for attending the course and expectations of it and attitude to English; information about the language teaching environment” (Sue Starfield and Brian Paltridge, 2012: 326-327)

While TSA attempts to establish what the learners are expected to know at the end of the language course, PSA tries to determine what they actually know at the beginning of the course. For Dudley-Evans and St. John (1998: 125) a PSA is “what their current skills and language use are”. They also acknowledge that “PSA estimates strengths and weaknesses in language, skills, learning experiences." (Dudley-Evans and St. John, 1998: 124) In a more detailed view, Michael Byram (2004: 493) states that the PSA aimed to identify:

> …students’ present level of competence, their aims and hopes regarding future proficiency, and details of their situations (for example, what time they have available).This is complemented by a Target Situation Analysis (TSA), looking at the participants’ jobs or studies: which of the language **SKILLS** has most priority, what do participants actually have to do in the foreign language, what more might they be enabled to do, what level of competence is required for success in work and study?

The PSA, then, can be piloted by means of placement tests. However, the background information, e.g., the number of years spent learning English and the educational level of the learners cannot provide us with sufficient data about their present capabilities. NA may be considered a compromise between TSA and PSA. As for Michael Byram and Adelheid Hu (2013: 224)

> …while target situation analysis aims to identify the types of language-based tasks entailed in working or studying in the area and the linguistic skills and knowledge the students will need to function in it. PSA aims to reach an understanding of the students' current knowledge and linguistic proficiency in relation to the level needed for effective participation in the target language.

Within the BE territory, as in any ESP course, one cannot rely on either TSA or PSA as a dependable parameter of what is needed to enhance learning and reach the objectives. A combination of both methods of analysis is necessary, and the difference between them is also referred to as a 'Deficiency Analysis'. This kind of analysis takes into account any missing elements that need to be addressed in order to create a comprehensive and effective curriculum. In conclusion, it is essential to consider both TSA and PSA and evaluate the gap between them in order to design an optimal language course that addresses the specific needs and objectives of the learners.

2.2.3.3.3 Deficiency Analysis

In order to estimate the gap between the present and the target language proficiencies, additional considerations were added, known as 'Deficiency Analysis'. The latter can be matched to the so-called 'lacks' described by (Hutchinson and Waters, 1987: 56). It is called a "combined target-situation analysis and present-situation analysis" process (Robinson, 1991: 9). "Other aspects of deficiency analysis may include discovering whether students are required to do something in the target language which they cannot do in their mother tongue" (West, 1994: 10). Deficiency Analysis helps identify the gap between PSA and TSA, but more importantly, it shows how to narrow this gap. Strategy Analysis delves into the specific strategies employed by the learner to reach this end.

2.2.3.3.4 Strategy Analysis

It is obvious from its name that Strategy Analysis has to deal with the strategies followed in order for the learner to learn. It is concerned with how to bridge the gap between PSA and

TSA. It mainly deals with how the learner wants to learn rather than what to learn (Haseli Songhori, 2008). Hutchinson and Waters (1987) adopted the learner-centered approach, where the learner's learning needs play a vital role in the success of the learning experience. The TSA focuses on what learners need to do with the language, whereas the learning NA is about "what the learner needs to do in order to learn" (Hutchinson and Waters, 1987: 54). According to them, it is not possible to think that a journey can be planned only in terms of the starting and destination points without taking into consideration the "needs, potential and constraints of the route (i.e. the learning situation)" (Hutchinson and Waters, op cit: 61). Dudley-Evans and St. John (1998) prioritize the teaching of skills to learners as the key factor in enabling them to attain proficiency in the target language. However, they emphasize the importance of taking into account the learning process, motivation, and individual learning styles of the learners. They claim that learning analysis "includes subjective, felt and process-oriented needs" (Hutchinson and Waters, op cit: 124). In his turn, Nunan (1988) reveals that there is a clear focus on the methodology in strategy analysis; "there is a growing recognition within the profession that specification of the end products (the syllabus design component of the curriculum) must also be accompanied by specifications of methodology (that is indications on how to reach that end point)" (cited in West, 1994: 10)

2.2.3.3.5 Means Analysis:

Means analysis, henceforth MA, is an important part of course design that considers external factors such as resources, attitudes, materials, and methods available, and helps to ensure that the design of a course is feasible and practical. Munby's model was criticized for different reasons, as mentioned earlier, and one of the aspects that are discussed (West, 1994; Holliday, 1994) is the consideration of the learning 'constraints' that were left at the end of the course. It is this failure in Munby's model that led to the concept of MA.

> These are the external factors which may include the resources (staff, accommodation, time) available, the prevailing attitudes or culture, and the materials, aids and methods available. These were all areas deliberately ignored in early approaches to needs analysis (e.g. Munby, 1978) but they are now seen as central to the process of course design and have come to be known as means analysis (Holliday & Cooke, 1982; Holliday, 1984). (West, 1994: 4-5)

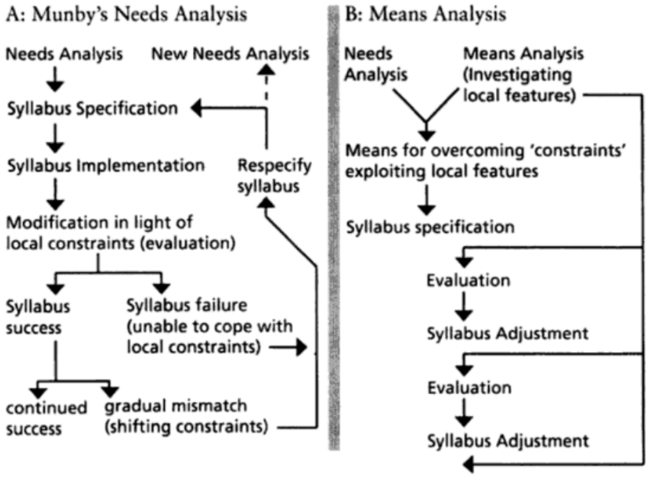
For Byram and Hu (2013: 224) "Means analyses aim to understand the opportunities and constraints of the teaching context, such as how much time is available for the course and the teachers' level of background knowledge in the work or study area. This information allows the course developer to set realistic goals for the programme of study." For James E. Purpura and Janine Graziano-King (2004: 4), it "examines those factors that impede or facilitate curriculum implementation or change. A means analysis is not so much concerned with the language or the learner per se, but with the contextual variables of the learning/teaching environment (Jordan, 1997; Richterich, 1983)".

In order to design a syllabus or select the appropriate material, the ESP teacher is required to conduct NA. Information about the discipline, the learners' needs, and the learners' environments is needed. At this stage, the teacher is also called upon to select materials. Bocanerga-Valle (2010: 159) states that "ESP practitioners are more often faced with the task and responsibility of developing learning materials." More than that, the BE teacher is required to keep up with the latest changes in the business field to be able to select the authentic and most appropriate materials for an effective learning process. In this situation, the BE teacher is entirely responsible for the language, while the learner is, without question, the subject matter holder, but a different level of analysis identified in MA is the setting where the language learning will take place. According to Dudley Evans and St. John (1998: 124), "Means analysis looks at the environment in which a course will be run or, as in the original metaphor that generated the term, the environment in which a project will take root, grow healthily and survive." The external factors such as the resources and materials, the attitudes, and the culture constitute the PSA, and a more contextual and social analysis is more related to MA (Holliday, 1994), and the BE syllabus should be careful to the specific cultural environment in which the course will be given.

> Curriculum developers working in language projects are often expected to observe classes, interview a large variety of host personnel, visit offices, departments, staffrooms, travel on institutional transport, attend social gatherings in and out of the work setting, carry out questionnaire surveys, and generally collect information.(Holliday, 1994: 206)

Holliday (1994) also distinguishes the difference between Munby's model and MA as shown in *figure 2.6*. In his explanation, he highlights that MA incorporates continuous evaluation, which results in the adjustment of the syllabus, whereas in Munby's model the evaluation of 'constraints' is addressed only after the syllabus has been identified. This means that in MA, the external factors that impact the course design are constantly considered and evaluated, leading to a more dynamic and adaptive syllabus. In contrast, Munby's model focuses more on identifying the syllabus first and then addressing any constraints that may arise, which could result in a more rigid and inflexible approach to course design.

Figure.2.6. Holliday and Cooke (1982) Means Analysis Model



Source: Andrian Holliday (1994: 200)

Howard and Brown (1997) list four main areas of study in MA:

> (a)Classroom culture/learner factors- what is or is not possible within a particular educational culture or tradition
> (b) Staff profiles / Teachers profiles- what is or is not possible with the staff available, considering numbers, language level, LSP background, training, etc.
> (c) Status of language teaching / institutional profiles- what is or is not possible given the status of LSP within the organisation or institution, considering timetables and resource allocations, etc.
> (d) Change agent/ change management- an assessment of what innovations are necessary or possible in order to establish an effective LSP programme.
> (Howard and Brown, 1997: 71-72)

NA is a crucial component of curriculum design, as it provides a systematic approach to identifying the needs and goals of the learners and ensures that the course design is aligned with those needs. It is also a comprehensive concept that encompasses all other analysis that pertains to the learning process: TSA, PSA, Deficiency Analysis, Strategy Analysis, MA, and in Business in the context of large organizations, Language Audits. The latter is a comprehensive evaluation of the language abilities of employees in a large business context.

2.2.3.3.6 Language Audits

The needs analyses discussed earlier are pertinent and mutually supportive, applicable not only in educational settings but also in the context of business institutions and organizations.

However, language audits are for larger-scale operations related to companies and ministries (Howard and Brown, 1979). The pioneer of the language audit is (Pilbeam, 1979) as cited in (Marjatta Huhta, 2010: 49); another remarkable work in language audits is the work of Nigel Reeves and Colin Wright (1996) where they provide five detailed stages followed in a language audit. West (1994: 5) distinguishes Language Audits from NA in scale; he claims "needs analysis is used to determine the various needs of an individual or group; a language audit defines the longer-term language-training requirements of a company, country or professional sector, and can thus be seen as a strategy or policy document." He went on to explain that Language Audits are about "(a) analysis of needs based on the job tasks; (b) assessment of current staff capabilities by means of a sophisticated placement test; (c) a training specification drawn up to bridge the training gap between present performance and required performance in the target language" (West, op cit: 12). They are then tailored in order to evaluate the strong and weak points of a given organization. In the same vein, Frendo speaks about the budget implications related to language audits; he says that the process of Language Audits "may include gathering information about future markets, customers, suppliers, and even competitors. Clearly in any company there will be budgetary implications, in terms of the expense of data collection and analysis"(Frendo, 2005: 15). Howard and Brown (1997) state that the language audit embraces all levels of analysis because it includes analysis of:

> (1)the target languages to be learnt and possibly the skills priorities within those languages.
> (2) the current deficiencies in terms of, for example, the proficiency levels of those leaving schools and entering LSP programmes.
> (3) an evaluation of current teaching methods and alternative methodologies available elsewhere.
> (4) an assessment of the opportunities provided by an effective LSP policy and resource implications of implementing such a policy. (op cit, 1997: 72)

A language audit is a valuable tool for large businesses looking to assess the language proficiency of their employees. By identifying areas of strength and weakness, it provides a solid foundation for language training and development programs aimed at improving the overall language competence of the organization. Among the benefits of language audits is that they help the course designer (which can be the teacher) decide on the number of teaching hours and the priority of courses, skills, or timing, especially when training is limited in time (Dudley-Evans and St. John, 1998). In short, Language Audits are more comprehensive NA related to large organizations that will inevitably entail all approaches to NA.

2.2.4 Focus on the Discipline

In LSP teaching in general, the discipline is what differentiates one branch from another. Focusing on the discipline in question is, then, of major importance. As discussed in the previous chapter, content specificity is an essential part of BE. One way to focus on the business content as a language teacher is to collaborate with the subject teachers at various levels under a multi-disciplinary approach. By integrating language instruction with subject-specific content, the teacher can ensure that the students have a strong foundation in both language and content, making them well-equipped to perform in the business environment.

2.2.4.1 Multi-disciplinary Approach

It is important to understand the nature of the relationship between the teacher and the learner in BE. The role of a BE teacher as the sole holder of knowledge in the classroom is no longer viewed as the norm because BE learners are content holders and know more about their subject of study than the teachers themselves. In fact, there is a ‘symbiotic’ relationship between them (Howard and Brown, 1997); they are both going to exchange information from their knowledge and experience. "The traditional approach to TESP is based on striking a bargain forming a symbiotic relationship between teacher and learner: you know about the specialism, I know about the language. Let’s work together."(Howard and Brown, op cit: 131). A BE teacher adopts the multi-disciplinary approach in relation to his or her role; he or she is regarded as a researcher of the information in other disciplines in order to develop adequate materials. In BE, the teacher is also considered a ‘collaborator’ with experts from other disciplines (Paltridge and Starfield, 2013: 204). The multi-disciplinary approach is a core element of the BE teaching because it relates the ‘language instruction’ to other content areas such as business, or what is called ‘content-based instruction' (CBI) (Dan Kim, 2008: 11). Dudley-Evans and St. John (1987: 17) are interested in two basic needs in the multi-disciplinary approach: "the need and willingness to engage with other disciplines through teaching, and the need and willingness to draw on the insights of researchers in other disciplines". The BE teacher has to understand how certain Business documents are used at the workplace and how businessmen think before implementing them in the classroom. This is why knowledge about the content is important. Perhaps one way to do it is through research and business experts' collaboration. The exchange of knowledge between the BE teachers and their learners is actually assumed to be 'nontraditional language-teaching' (David Beer, 2003: 380). Moreover, this exchange of information is inevitable; Hutchinson and Waters (1987: 165) say in this context that "Many ESP teachers are surprised at how much knowledge of the subject matter they 'pick up' by teaching the materials or talking to students."

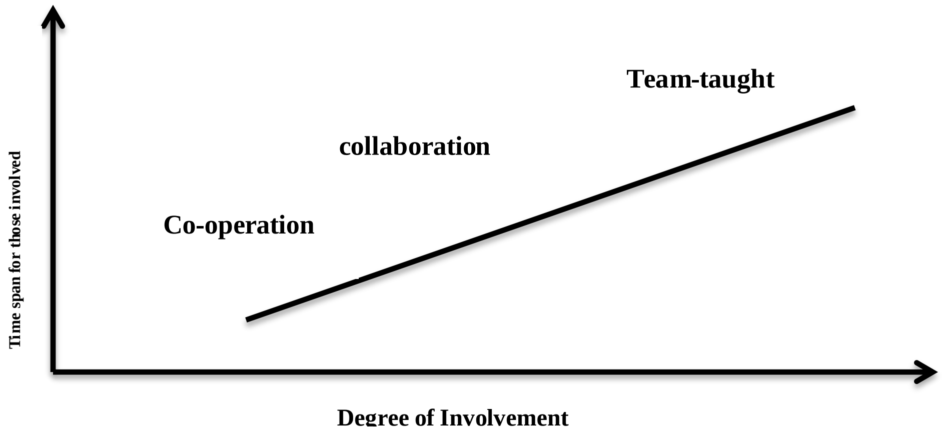
The learner-centered approach in BE is not considered a one-directional movement, as BE has to study business-related subjects as well. It is rather a kind of negotiation between the subject of study and the teacher's knowledge in terms of the materials used in BE. A good example of interdisciplinarity is in meetings, teleconferencing, or telephoning. In BE, listening skills are of great importance; participants should be 'active listeners'. This concept is taken from management skills training (Dudley-Evans and St. John, 1998: 106). Thus, it is important to dismiss the idea that there is only 'the specialist knowledge' and let the teacher build a certain confidence towards the subject matter (Hutchinson and Waters, 1987).

In a multidisciplinary approach, the focus is not only on the relationship between the ESP teacher and the learner but also between the ESP teacher and teachers of other disciplines since it raises a sense of cooperation among teachers, resulting in a more positive and supportive learning environment for students. Collaboration opportunities between the subject teacher and the language teacher are regarded as a benefit to the learning process (Maggie St. John, 1999; Andrea Honigsfeld and Maria Dove, 2010; Catherine Nickerson and Brigitte Planken, 2016). In a more mature stage, this collaboration is called team teaching, which can lead to a more personalized learning experience for students as teachers from different disciplines can work together to meet the individual needs of each student.

2.2.4.2 Team Teaching

In teaching ESP, team teaching is a situation where "English language teachers team up with teachers in other relevant disciplines, that is with subject specialists, to inform their course design and in some cases to actually teach the course (Nickerson and Planken, 2016: 138) By having the language teacher work closely with subject teachers, the language teacher can better understand the language needs specific to that subject, leading to more relevant and targeted language instruction. This 'interdisciplinary partnership' (Nickerson and Planken, 2016), co-teaching' (Honigsfeld and Dove, 2010), or 'team-taught session' (St. John, 1999) encompasses three stages as shown in the following figure.

Figure 2.7. Team Teaching Stages



Source: Maggie St. John (1999: 16)

At the stage of cooperation, the teachers may cooperate at the level of administration, where they can agree on the timetable and the grouping of the students, suggesting suitable input. A step further in the involvement of both parts is called collaboration; at this level, they are engaged in the joint preparation of teaching materials as well as assessment (St. John, 1999). In the case of teaching BE in-company, for instance, the BE teacher may collaborate with the employer, the owner, or the sponsor to design and organize a suitable targeted course. A higher degree of involvement might be found in team-taught sessions, "that is those in which two or more tutors present take responsibility for a session….team-taught sessions involve cross-discipline activity and the presence of a language tutor and a subject tutor" (St. John, 1999: 17).

Some of the pros and cons of team teaching have been discussed by St. John (1999), such as costs, time, and personnel. She mentions that costs can be a drawback for BE because of the hiring of two teachers for the same course: "When participants are on a course they are not occupied with core company activities; that in itself is a substantial cost. So, where a team-taught course reduces the total training time needed, the additional cost of a second tutor can be justified. If a course can maximize learning opportunities, the client will be happy to pay." (St. John, op cit: 17), However, as far as the time span is concerned, team teaching may require extra work for the teachers to plan for the course and agree on the materials. Same thing for the personnel finding: many teachers can be unenthusiastic about the idea of having another teacher present in their classes. Consequently, finding teachers who are willing to share the same class and the same course can be a challenge. More than that, other parts of the educational system are involved because "Successful implementation of team teaching demands time, patience, honest reflection, reevaluation, and response by faculty and administrators. Every teacher should continuously be developing his or her pedagogy. Administrators should schedule time and channel activities into a program of continuous professional development." (Jack Richards, Thomas S. C. Farrell, 2005: 169)

2.2.5 Focus on The Skills

In the skills-centered approach, it is rather about the underlying strategies that enable the learners to manage the meaning behind the form of the language. It is more about developing those basic skills needed for the learner to be a better 'information processor' which will last even after an ESP course (Indo Bena, 2019: 515). In this, Hutchinson and Waters (1987: 13) state:

> The principle idea behind the skills-centered approach is that underlying all language use there are common reasoning and interpreting processes, which, regardless of the surface forms, enable us to extract meaning from discourse. There is, therefore, no need to focus closely on the surface forms of the language. The focus should rather be on the underlying interpretive strategies, which enable the learner to cope with the surface forms, for example guessing the meaning of words from context, using visual layout to determine the type of text…"

Pauline Robbinson (2011) relates the Skills-centered Approach to the behavioral aspect rather than the linguistic one and acknowledges that it is the most appropriate approach to adopt in ESP in the sense that it takes into account the results of NA that assesses the specific language needs of the students. This analysis can often reveal that students have a specific need for only one language skill, such as writing, speaking, or listening.

> Here language learning is seen as training and development in the four skills with the emphasis on the behavioral rather than the linguistic aspects…This is an approach more obviously suited to ESP than the structural and functional approaches, since needs analysis can often reveal that students have a particular need for only one of the skills. (Robbinson, 2011: 408)

Similarly, Brian Tomlinson (2014: 309), in discussing the various studies conducted on the Skill-based Approach in South Africa, specifically on reading-skill development, says that "Rather than 'mastering' the language needed for particular contexts within the course period, the objective was to develop skills (e.g., using dictionary effectively and selecting appropriate reference materials) which could be utilized to increase language ability in the target area after the completion of the course." Hermi Zaswita, M.Pd. and Meladina, M.Pd (2020: 23) claim that the Skill-centered Approach takes more the learner in account as it "approaches the learner as a *user* of language rather than as the *learner* of language. The processes it is concerned with are the processes of language *use* not of language *learning*."

Since this approach is much suited to ESP, as mentioned earlier (Robbinson, 2011), it is assumed that BE seems to be the fit domain for the skills-centered approach, for among its objectives is to prepare the learners to be able to deal in English in different business situations effectively. According to Ellis and Johnson (1994: 37), skill training is an ‘effective way’ to achieve performance objectives in BE. However, when we teach one skill, such as speaking, this does not exclude the integration of other skills, as speaking does not exist in isolation (Thornbury, 2005), the first other skill that comes to mind is listening, yet many other skills are included as well. For example;

> In business meetings, for instance; the participants will not only speak but might read some documents, take notes, might listen to an audio visual presentation or might make a conference call which includes listening as well. Even in non-interactive speaking genres such as public speaking, it involves preparation like reading some documents, writing the main points of the speech, and listening to the questions at the end of the speech. (Chaalane, 2014: 28)

Teaching one skill “therefore, needs to be practiced in conjunction with other skills, which suggests an integrated-skills approach” (Thornbury, 2005: 118). The language skills work together, and teaching one language skill in isolation is impossible as there is always a need to integrate at least another one.

It is necessary to practice that skill in the context of other language skills, leading to an integrated-skills approach. This is because language skills are interdependent. In other words, there is always a need to incorporate at least one additional language skill when teaching a single skill.

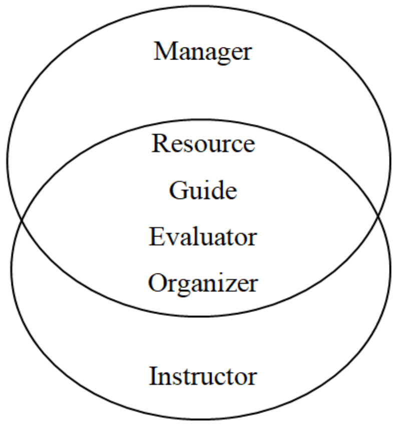
2.3 The Business English Teacher

The role of a BE teacher is multifaceted, requiring a combination of knowledge and personal skills. In addition to providing clear instruction and guidance, a BE teacher must also be able to manage their classroom effectively and interact with a variety of people from different cultures. Ellis and Johnson (1994) list a set of personal skills that a BE teacher should have, including an outgoing personality, good negotiating skills, and a curiosity and interest in all aspects of business. In this context, the following paragraphs explore the different roles and skills required of a BE teacher in more detail.

2.3.1 A Multifaceted Role

In the general sense, the teacher has many roles to perform separately or simultaneously (William Littlewood, 1981). We cannot reduce the role of the teacher into one role, which is an ‘instructor’. In fact, it is much more than that; the teacher is a ‘facilitator of learning’ (Littlewood, 1981: 92). Some educational theorists view the role of a teacher as having two complementary roles, ‘managerial’ and ‘instructional’, that cannot be distinguished from each other within the classroom (Tony Wright, 1987). The relationship between these two roles is best described as complementary, as shown in *figure.2.8* meaning that each role supports and enhances the other. To put it simply, a teacher must have the ability to manage their classroom effectively while also providing clear instruction and guidance to their students. This balance between the two roles is key to ensuring that students receive a well-rounded education and have the best opportunity to succeed.

Figure.2.8.The Teacher Role in The Classroom



Source: Tony Wright (1987: 52)

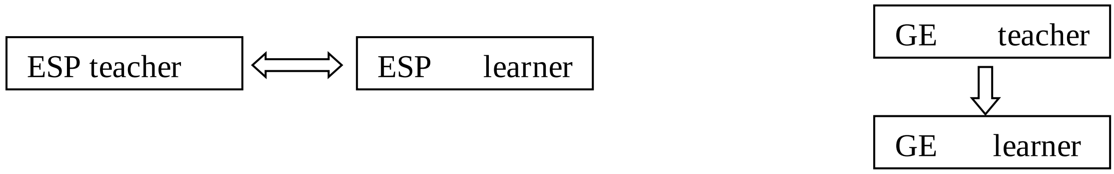
Even though the teachers are viewed as practitioners of a syllabus provided by a linguistic authority and their role is executing, they can also be seen as course designers, and they are in a situation where they are considered masters (David Nunan, 1988). The teachers’ awareness of the learners’ needs in terms of objectives and learning styles makes them better placed to evaluate each situation's requirements and adapt the course and materials accordingly. Between the roles of an executer and a designer, teachers are split into two categories: those who are quite happy managing the content and the methodology of their own courses and those who believe that designing syllabi is further than their real traditional role.

In ESP, teachers are considered ‘practitioners’ (Swales, 1985) as they perform different roles simultaneously. The ESP practitioner is called "to deal with needs analysis, syllabus design, materials writing or adaptation and evaluation" (Hutchinson and Waters, 1987: 157) as well as adapting the adequate methodology. As explained previously, content is a very important element in BE, a fact that brings much more to the teacher’s role in terms of material choice and methodology. However, the BE teacher is not required to be an expert in business-related fields; only a positive attitude toward the subject and familiarity with it will be quite enough. By way of explanation, the teacher is required to be able to raise ‘intelligent questions’ in relation to the area of study (Hutchinson and Waters, op cit: 163). Indeed, the BE teacher will turn out to be an interested apprentice of the business content.

The role of a BE teacher, pedagogically speaking; differs from that of an EAP teacher, for example. EAP teachers deal mainly with lectures provided to a large number of learners, whereas the BE teacher will probably deal with smaller groups and/or sometimes with one-to-one classes. More focus is then given to the method and the techniques. Another difference is that content consideration is crucial in BE; there is a need to have basic business knowledge as well as a positive attitude toward it. In fact, both the BE teacher and the learner are going to submit an exchange of knowledge, skills, and experiences in order to enhance communication for better learning in the so-called ‘Symbiotic relationship’ (Howard and Brown, 1997: 131). According to Dudley-Evans and St. John, the BE teacher:

> …is not in the position of being the ‘primary knower’ of the carrier content of the material. The students may in many cases, certainly where the course is specifically oriented towards the subject content or work that the students are engaged in, know more about the content than the teacher. It is often stated that this provides the ESP teacher with the opportunity to draw on the students’ knowledge of the content in order to generate genuine communication in the classroom. (Dudley-Evans and St John, 1998:13)

Figure 2.9.The ESP Teacher and Learner Relationship



Source: Dudley-Evans and St. John (1998: 189)

The BE practitioner also conducts NA as a primary step in designing a syllabus. When BE teachers are required to develop a course or a syllabus, they will rather select and/or adapt materials, modify and adjust them if they are not adequate, or totally create materials if there are no suitable ones available in the market (Dudley-Evans and St. John, 1998). Conducting NA is then vital to determining the goals of the course or the syllabus. Designing the syllabus goes hand in hand with developing the appropriate materials and then evaluating them. All this process cannot be attained unless collaboration with content specialists is there: teachers of other disciplines, employers (if it is the case of a company), and administrators (e.g., for time scaling purposes) in order to develop the materials.

In BE teaching, the will and motivation of the teacher are important because learners are difficult to satisfy since they come to the class with their business knowledge and experience and would be fastidious toward both the content and teaching method (Ellis and Johnson, 1994). Therefore, the BE teacher is clearly required to have the will and the motivation to be able to overcome the challenges that can be encountered in the classroom. More than that, the personality of the BE teachers is another element that determines their role. Ellis and Johnson (1994: 27) claim that "More important than qualifications and a background in business is the right balance of personal skills. This is the ingredient that is common to all good Business English trainers."

2.3.2 Personal Skills

Ellis and Johnson (1994: 27) list a set of characteristics that reflect the personal skills a BE teacher should have. In the first place, the BE teacher should have an ‘outgoing personality’ and be able to interact with a variety of people from different cultures. Another personal skill is to be ‘a good negotiator’ and know how to settle reliability and integrity in organizing the course, especially when job-experienced learners believe it to be correct. If the

BE teachers are professional and know exactly when and how to impose the course organization, they will lose credibility. A good balance between sociability and professionalism is tactfulness. The third one is "to be curious and interested in all aspects of business." (Ellis and Johnson, 1994: 27) The main purpose behind this skill is to unlock the learners' motivation towards learning the language. When the teacher is genuinely knowledgeable about business, drawing the learners' attention will be much easier. Despite the fact that having a business background is not quite common among BE practitioners, and the domain is quite odd to a language teacher, it can be acquired through time, experience, readings, and maintaining contact with individuals in the business world. According to Pilbeam (1992: 3) the trend in teaching in-company is towards "shorter, highly job-specific courses and an increasing emphasis on skills courses" (cited in Dudley-Evans and St. John, 1998: 60). The following figure is an attempt to sum up the different roles of the BE practitioner: knowledge and personal skills.

Figure 2.10.The Business English Practitioner Model

Pedagogical Level (TO DO)

- Needs Analysis
- Syllabus Design
- Material selection and development
- Teaching
- Evaluation

Professional Level (TO HAVE)

- Language Knowledge
- Basic knowledge in the Business field
- Cultural awareness

Personal Level (TO BE)

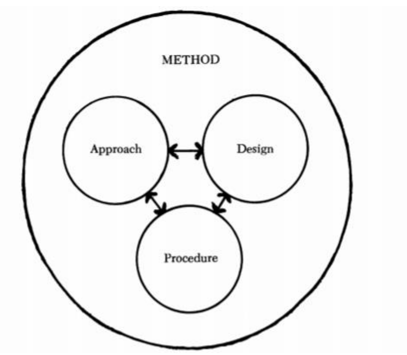
- to be Sociable [between flexibility and seriousness]
- To be tactful [Integrity and reliablity]
- To be interested in Business

2.4 Methodology

Methodology constitutes an important part of the syllabus design. Jack Richards and Theodore Rodgers (1982) use the term 'method' as an umbrella covering the 'approach', 'design, and 'procedure'. The approach refers to all the theories and beliefs on language teaching that are considered to be a reference and 'a theoretical foundation' to help out the teachers in their practices. A design "includes specifications of 1) the content of instruction, i.e., the syllabus, 2) learner roles in the system, 3) teacher roles in the system, 4) instructional materials types and functions" (Richards and Rodgers, op cit:157) The procedure includes all the practices of a particular method in the classroom, and "the focus is on the actual moment-to-moment techniques, practices, and activities that operate in teaching and learning a language according to a particular method."(Richards and Rodgers, 1982: 157) Following these definitions, methodology would be an area of diversity which gives much space to use all the concepts contributing to language learning. It is a holistic manner to consider all the variables in language teaching and learning (*See figure. 2.11)*

In ESP, methodology has no specific definition; Hutchinson and Waters (1987) demonstrate the methodology implications in ESP and state that "There is, in other words, no such thing as an ESP methodology, merely methodologies that have been applied in ESP classrooms, but could just as well have used in the learning of any kind of English." (Hutchinson and Waters, 1987: 18) The teaching in ESP has the same principles as in any GE classroom. The same opinion about methodology in ESP emerges throughout the publications in relation to ESP. Robinson (1991: 47) points out that the 'methodological options' that are being considered in ESP are just the same as in GE; "there is very little difference form general ELT". However, Dudley-Evans and St. John (1998: 187) differentiate GE methodology from ESP methodology, mainly because the ESP learners bring their specialty knowledge and professional experience to the classroom, and somehow the classroom is no longer the teacher's ground. This is why strategies and techniques may differ in ESP. In the case of BE, Ellis and Johnson (1994: 12) state, "Many learning tasks and activities will be the same as on a General English course, especially for teaching structures, vocabulary, and social English." Similarly, Sylvie Donna (2000: 69) says, "Business English courses seem more successful when a range of methods are used and when methods are carefully selected to suit individual students…Using different methods at different times might well maximise the learning which actually takes place in class since individuals themselves seem to vary enormously in terms of learning styles…"

Figure: 2. 11. Methodology Model



Source: Jack Richards and Theodore Rogers (1982: 155)

2.5 Authentic Materials

Materials play a significant role in the teaching process; in fact, they are a key element in most language syllabuses (Richards, 2001: 251). For novice teachers, instructional materials constitute the background on which they plan, organize, and improvise the different parts of the lessons. For the learners, they constitute the major contact with the target language apart from the teacher. In BE programs; as part of ESP, materials are seen as "a source of language, a learning support, for motivation and stimulation, for reference" (Dudley-Evans and St. John, 1998: 170-171). However, the definition of authentic materials is not clear-cut and varies among specialists; some specialists define them as opposed to 'created materials' (Alan Maley and Brian Tomilson, 2017: 105). It is common that the term 'authentic' is given to materials that are so-called 'real' and not created for pedagogical purposes. What makes the standard classroom text books differ from authentic materials is that they are written with the idea of a well-defined purpose, which is teaching the language (Susan House, 2008: 53). On the other hand, materials authenticity is defined according to their relevance to the learning process; in other words, it is accorded to the manner in which they are utilized to reveal true situations. Authenticity is about the interpretation and the contact between the reader/hearer and the exposed materials (Widdowson, 1986). Dudley-Evans and St. John (1998: 28) support this view when they say: "An unsimplified text on a science topic designed for school pupils just beginning to study science is a genuine text, but is not an authentic text for university level students, as these students will not be able to use it to confirm or extend their knowledge…" In his turn, Richards (2001: 253-254) reports (Phillips and Shettlesworth 1978; Clarke 1989; Peacock 1997) distinction between advantages and limitations of authentic materials, on the one hand, authentic materials are found to be advantageous because, first, they are related to the subject area and respond directly to the learners' interests. Second, they contain authentic cultural aspects of the target language culture. Third, they are naturally rich in so-called 'real' language rather than artificial structures. Moreover, they match the learners' needs. Finally, authentic materials enhance the sense of the teachers' innovation because they are ceaselessly adapting and creating to meet the target needs. On the other hand, authentic materials are presumed to have limitations as well. The very first limitation is that there is no attraction for the learners; authentic materials are not formally attractive in terms of pictures, colors, or quality of papers. The second disadvantage of authentic materials is that, unlike the created materials, they entail difficult language that is considered an obstacle for the learners. Lastly, it is time-consuming for the teachers since they have to spend a considerable amount of time in order to find out the appropriate authentic texts that meet the learners present and target needs, as well as in the materials adaptation (Richards, 2001: 253-254).

Some specialists claim that in some specific teaching contexts, adapting materials is concerned primarily with the reasons why a teacher is adapting (McDonough *et al.*, 2013). There are some variables that must be considered in this operation, and these variables change from one situation to another depending on the teaching and learning priorities. However, for them, "it is worth bearing in mind that priorities are relative, and there is no absolute notion of right and wrong, or even just one way of interpreting such terms as 'communicative' and 'authentic'" (McDonough *et al.*, op cit: 67) Nevertheless, if teachers are going for material adaptation, they must follow some principles [21]and shift from one technique of adaptation to another. They reveal the techniques to be as follows: "-Adding, including expanding and extending. -Deleting, including subtracting and abridging-Modifying, including rewriting and restructuring-Simplifying. –Reordering" (McDonough *et al.*, op cit: 70)

In BE, as part of ESP, the term 'authenticity' is not an absolute characteristic of a given text; it is rather a feature of the text in a specific context. The text in itself has no value or relevance unless it is used in the context it is meant to be used in (Hutchinson and Waters, 1987). The text can be 'authentic' only if it is used in the context it is written for; otherwise, we cannot talk about text authenticity. Material authenticity is always related to pedagogical aspects, such as the learning purpose. A BE practitioner must be aware of the purpose of using the 'authentic' text in the lesson; the purpose will determine its appropriateness to the learning process. The relevance of the materials is intrinsic to the context and learning goal. In order to speak about authentic materials, there must be a role for these materials in relation to the subject studied and the purpose of the learning process. Therefore, a BE practitioner is required to be knowledgeable and skilled in selecting, adapting, and developing authentic materials.

Authentic materials can stimulate the language learner in general to discover the language independently; "In the language learning context, autonomy and authenticity are essentially

[21] According to McDonough *et al*. (2013), there are four principles in adapting a text: first, the choice of the technique must be in relation to the aspect of the materials that need change. Second, one content can be adapted using many techniques and vice versa. Third, the adaptation can be quantitative and/or qualitative, i.e. in the amount or in the method, respectively. In last, techniques can be employed individually or in combination to each other.

symbiotic. The ‘ideal’ effective autonomous learner will utilize a wide variety of authentic sources in his/her learning.”(Freda Mishan, 2005: 9) Authentic materials play an important role in BE learning, according to Quang Xie (2016: 31); “the effectiveness of English language training programs in the workplace can be influenced by the types of materials used in the teaching process.” By utilizing authentic materials, students are able to better understand the practical applications of the language and its use in real-life business scenarios. This, in turn, can lead to more effective language acquisition and better outcomes for the students.

2.6 Other Versions of Authenticity

Authenticity was first studied in relation to text (Hutchinson and Waters, 1987; Nunan, 1989). However, according to Goodith White (2006: 113), other versions of authenticity have developed alongside by (Breen, 1985; Taylor, 1994; Lee,1995) who point out four other concepts in authenticity: they speak about ‘Teachers’ authenticity’, ‘Learner authenticity’, ‘task authenticity’, and ‘classroom authenticity’. Teachers’ authenticity is about the teachers’ contribution in making the text used authentic or not, that is; the way the teacher intervenes in the classroom impacts the materials authenticity, for Nematulla Shomoossi and Saeed Ketabi (2007: 145), it is about

> …the role of teachers in the classroom as a leader and the central element who gives the teaching material its authenticity. In other words, it is the teacher who helps learners understand the materials, feel positive towards it, approach it with a communicative purpose, and finally respond positively such that classroom communication develops and a real negotiation of meaning occurs.

White (2006: 114), in explaining the importance of the role played by the teacher in materials authenticity, states, "*Teacher* authenticity refers to the fact that teachers can make inauthentic materials more authentic, by being culturally aware,…Conversely, teachers can damage text or task authenticity by being overly authoritarian, and thus interfering with the genuine response of the learner." The learners’ authenticity, however, rests on their own motivation and will to learn; using authentic materials does not mean that the learners will be automatically motivated. Although we cannot deny that text authenticity plays an important role in their motivation, the two concepts (learner and text authenticity) work simultaneously. Task authenticity is about the learner’s interaction with the task and with other learners. This means that the task recommendations should be near-life recommendations. Brian Tomlinson (2013:77) points out

> Materials should be based on authentic texts, that is texts which have been written for any purpose other than language teaching. At the same time, the activities used with such texts should also be authentic since using tasks such as filling the gaps or answering comprehension-testing questions would make the text not authentic either. The tasks, therefore, should be based on realistic situations in order to expose the learners to realistic input

William Guariento and John Morley (2010: 349-350) identify four different schools regarding task authenticity;

- Authenticity through a genuine purpose.
- 'Authenticity through real world targets'…From this perspective, a task might be said to be authentic if it has a clear relationship with real world needs 'Authenticity through classroom interaction'- classroom activities are considered so, if they are well positioned during the learning process.
- 'Authenticity through engagement': task authenticity might be measured by the engagement of the learner by the task. If the task seems relevant and authentic, the learner will be engaged to learn.

In demonstrating the relationship between task and classroom authenticity White (2006: 113) reports (Breen, 1985: 66) and says: "Task authenticity also implies that there should be genuine communication between the student and the text, the student and others in the classroom and that task should lead to learning." He explains further that classroom authenticity "refers to the fact that classrooms are part of real like too; they are social contexts in their own right." (White, op cit: 114). It is about the overall setting in which the learning process is taking place. For Nadezda Stojković (2019: 58),"when students try to make decisions in relation to some problems, the classroom plays a pivotal role acting as a place where authentic texts, tasks, and learners converge to create a real-like world within the walls of the classroom."However, direct relation between classroom authenticity and the learners authenticity is also drawn by Leo Van Lier (2014: 125), who claims; "In the classroom, authenticity relates to process of self-actualization, intrinsic motivation, respect and moral integrity in interpersonal relations, and so on".

2.7 Conclusion

Throughout this chapter, we explored the different approaches to BE teaching, shifting from one focus to another. The focus has moved from language with its different layers of analysis (Register, Discourse, and Genre) to more learner-focused approaches (Hutchinson and Waters, 1987) giving the learner a prominent role in the learning process. In BE, being related to ESP, the 'corner stone' of such an approach is NA (Dudley-Evans and St. John, 1998). NA is the first step to be conducted in any BE classroom, and conducting Needs Analysis allows the teacher to select the appropriate approach (es) to the teaching conditions. Even though approaches to NA are complementary and overlap most of the time, it was worth discussing and delving into each one individually as they form an important part of our theoretical foundation in the research. Attention was also given to skills and strategies (through the Skill-centered Approach) and Discipline (through the multi-disciplinary approach and Team teaching). Other important basic elements related to the BE teaching process, such as methodology and the notion of authentic materials, are broadly viewed in relation to BE. The subsequent chapter, though, will be devoted to the empirical side of the study. To analyze the learners' needs, it was deemed that a combination of various NA approaches would be the most appropriate methodology.

CHAPTER III:

FIELD STUDY DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

The main goal of this chapter is to provide the reader with an overall view of the research design and the methodology that were employed in conducting the study. It also attempts to carefully describe the content and purpose of the selected instruments for collecting the data. Moreover, it endeavors to comprehensively describe the population and the process of selecting the sample, as well as the methodology of analysis. It is important to note that the main aim of this chapter is to provide a clear understanding of the various elements of the research process and how they all contribute to the ultimate conclusions of the study.

3.2 The Research Methodology

The current study employs a scientific method[22] based on a broad approach, which may be used in all fields to arrive at logical conclusions. In fact, it consists of a set of guidelines to be followed in order to obtain relevant and reliable results. For George Taylor (2005) "All research methods follow a similar format regardless the type…All research demands standards and the employment of scientific and systematic procedures such as the identification of the problem, formulating and testing the hypotheses, collecting, organizing, validating and interpreting data, and generating the final report." (George Taylor, op cit: 98). A case study, then, is selected among a specific research type because it allows the researcher to focus on the case chosen within a real-world context, providing a comprehensive insight into the investigation.

3.3 The Research Type

Case studies often involve an in-depth examination of a single case or a small number of cases and rely on multiple sources of data, including both primary and secondary sources, to provide a comprehensive understanding of the case. These sources of data can include documents, interviews, observations, and other forms of data collection that allow the

[22] The development of the scientific method is usually credited to Roger Bacon, a philosopher and scientist from 13th-century England, although some argue that the Italian scientist Galileo Galilei played an important role in formulating the scientific method. Later contributions to the scientific method were made by the philosophers Francis Bacon and René Descartes. Although some disagreement exists regarding the exact characteristics of the scientific method, most agree that it is characterized by the following elements: • Empirical approach • Observations • Questions • Hypotheses • Experiments • Analyses • Conclusions • Replication" (Marczyk *et al.*, 2005: 5)

researcher to build a rich and detailed picture of the case being studied. There are numerous definitions of case studies, most of which mention the context, the "bounded system", and the availability of inquiry sources; the following are some available definitions:

(1) “A case study is an empirical inquiry that investigates a contemporary phenomenon in depth and within its real-life context, especially when the boundaries between phenomenon and context are not clearly evident.” (Robert Yin, 2009: 18)

(2) “As the product of an investigation, a case study is an intensive, holistic description and analysis of a single entity, phenomenon, or social unit. Case studies are particularistic, descriptive, and heuristic and not to be confused with case work, case method, case history, or case record.”(Sharan Merriam, 2009: 46)

(3) “A case study is an exploration of a “bounded system” or a case (or multiple cases) over time through detailed, in-depth data collection involving multiple sources of information rich in context.”(Creswell, 1998 cited in Patricia Duff, 2008: 22)

(4) Case studies will have temporal characteristics which help to define their nature (i) have geographical parameters allowing for their definition (ii) will have boundaries which allow for definition (iv) may be defined by an individual in a particular context, at a point in time (v) may be defined by the characteristics of the group (vi) may be defined by role or function (vii) may be shaped by organizational or institutional arrangements (Louis Cohen *et al.*, 2007: 245)

(5) “Case study research comprises an intensive study of the background, current status, and environmental interactions of a given social unit: an individual, a group, an institution, or a community…” (James Dean Brown and Theodore Rodgers, 2002: 21)

Many specialists have distinguished different types of case studies (Hancock and Algozzine, 2017; Duff, 2007; Merriam, 1998; Yin, 2003) based on different factors. First, the number of cases can include either a single case or multiple case studies. The variation in case studies as a research method gives a way to compare them (Yin, 2014). Second, the motive for case choice: the case is chosen for its particularity, e.g., for its particular features and specific factors that are relevant for the research or instrumental in serving the research to refine a theoretical explanation. Third, based on the purpose, a case study can be exploratory, descriptive (Yin, 2003; Duff, 2007, Merriam, 1998), relational (Duff, 2007), explanatory (Yin, 2003), or evaluative (Hancok and Algozzine, 2017; Duff, 2007, Merriam, 1998). The following table is an overview of the discussed case study types.

Table 3.1: Case Study Types

Factors	Type
Number of Cases	• Single-case study • Multiple-case study (two or more cases for the same study)
Motive for case choice	• **Essential**: the case is chosen for its primary concern. • **Contributory**: the case is used as a tool to refine a theoretical explanation.
Purpose	• **Exploratory**: defines the research questions and hypotheses, or determines the feasibility of the chosen procedures.(Yin, 2003; Duff, 2007, Merriam, 1998) • **Descriptive**: generates a complete description of the phenomenon within its context.(Yin, 2003; Duff, 2007, Merriam, 1998) • **Relational**: goes beyond the description and traces the causal and relational patterns among observations. (Duff, 2007) • **Explanatory:** explains how things happen based on cause-effect relationship (Yin, 2003) • **Evaluative:** evaluates the effectiveness of a phenomenon (Hancok and Algozzine, 2017; Duff, 2007, Merriam, 1998)

The current study being conducted is a blend of various types of research methodologies. Specifically, it can be classified as a *single-case* study as it focuses on a well-defined and specific group of individuals (the engineers working for the British Petroleum/Sonatrach/Statoil JV). The choice of this particular group of individuals is *essential* as it represents a segment of the real-world population that is relevant and aligns with the overarching objective of the study. Furthermore, the study is *exploratory* in nature, meaning that its primary aim is to explore and assess the validity of the research questions and hypotheses that have been proposed. Through this approach, the researcher aims to gain a deeper understanding and uncover new insights into the topic being studied.

3.4 The Study Design

The researcher's aim in this study is to suggest a holistic syllabus for the engineers working for the British Petroleum/Sonatrach/Statoil Joint Venture, henceforth; (BP/SH/STATOIL JV) based on their needs. To this end, NA is carried out in order to investigate their linguistic needs, pedagogic needs, and Business skills needs. In this vein, it is necessary to conduct a preliminary investigation. A PSA is then conducted by first consulting the JV policy in order to have a global view of the teaching of the English language coupled with a broad observation [23] to figure out the degree of importance of both using and teaching English within the JV and the informants' job description analysis. Dudley-Evans and St. John (1998: 124) consider PSA a tool "from which we can deduce [the] lacks... a PSA estimates strengths and weaknesses in language, skills, and learning experiences."

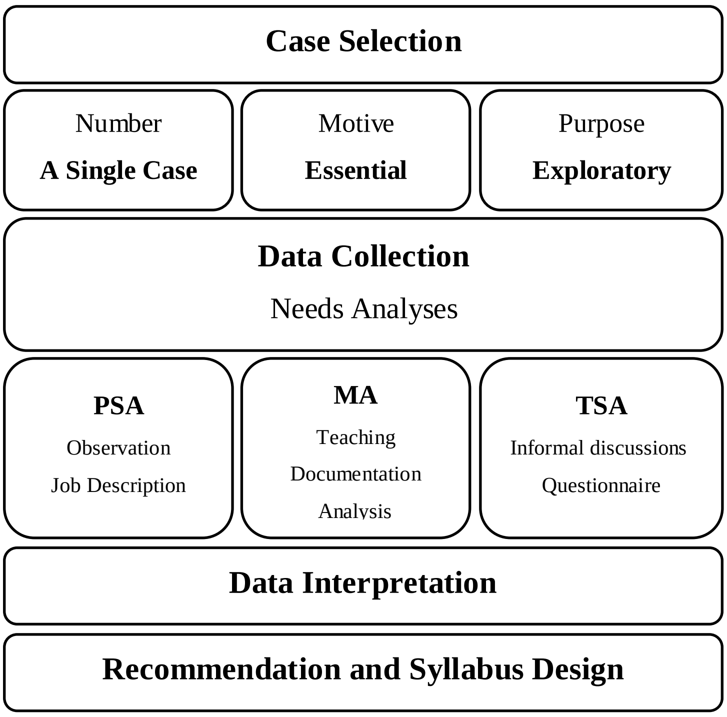
Basing his observation on EST program, James Dean Brown (2016: 22) notes "…present-situation analysis might mean using established tests to gather general proficiency information about the students like their strengths and weaknesses in terms of the four skills." This was reinforced by consulting the teaching documentation used in the JV, i.e. MA, which according to Brown (op cit: 25) "…explore[s] what the contextual constraints and strengths are. This usually means that the analyses examine issues like the availability of funding, facilities, equipment, materials, and other resources, as well as cultural attitudes that might affect instruction, and the teachers' proficiency in English, training and teaching ability". It is also "suggested (Holliday and Cooke, 1982:133) as an adjunct to needs analysis. Means analysis looks at the environment in which a course will be run…" (Dudley-Evans and Maggie, 1998: 124) Furthermore, the current study incorporates a comprehensive TSA as an essential part of the research methodology, which is designed to examine the 'objectives', 'perceived needs',

[23] An important component in any scientific investigation is observation. In this sense, observation refers to two distinct concepts—being aware of the world around us and making careful measurements. Observations of the world around us often give rise to the questions that are addressed through scientific research. For example, the Newtonian observation that apples fall from trees stimulated much research into the effects of gravity. Therefore, a keen eye to your surroundings can often provide you with many ideas for research studies.(Marczyk, 2005: 6)

and 'product-oriented' requirements of the group being studied (Dudley-Evans and Maggie, 1998: 124). To further supplement TSA, informal discussions are also undertaken with the heads of various departments within the JV. These discussions provide an overview of any specific needs or requirements that may have been identified, and help to ensure that the study is comprehensive and covers all relevant aspects of the subject matter. By combining all of the PSA, the MA, and the TSA, this study aims to gain a holistic and in-depth understanding of the needs and informants' requirements.

Following the initial investigation that relied on PSA (observation and job description analysis), MA (a review of the teaching documentation[24]), and informal discussions as part of the TSA, it was determined that a customized instrument was necessary to effectively address the specific needs of the population—the engineers. For this purpose, a questionnaire is administered to them and their corresponding heads of departments who are concerned with this research. This aims to examine their motivation level, their lacks, and their wants. The questionnaire was piloted in November 2017. It will be the principal subject of discussion in this chapter. To conclude, it is worth summarizing the steps undertaken in designing this study, as shown in figure 3.1.

Figure.3.1. Steps in Conducting the Research



[24] First, consulting all the materials used throughout the contact with the language tutor working for the JV. Second, contacting the HR department in order to get the engineers' job descriptions.

3.5 Quantitative Vs. Qualitative Research

Quantitative research tends to be based on numerical and statistical measurements of a specific subject matter. A special concern is given to the sampling and the experiment, as they generally aim at generalizing the results. "In quantitative research, the researcher's role is to observe and measure, and care is taken to keep the researchers from 'contaminating' the data through personal involvement with the research subjects." (Murray Thomas, 2003: 2). However, in the qualitative research, there is a more naturalistic and interpretive approach to the subject matter, which involves an interpretation of things in the natural setting and attempts to make sense of the phenomena. Qualitative research involves the collection of empirical materials, such as personal experience, based on observational and interactional situations that describe both routine and problematic situations (Thomas, 2003: 1-2). Natacha Mack *et al.* (2005) state that the main difference between qualitative and quantitative research is flexibility; quantitative research tends to be inflexible as it generally relies on surveys and questionnaires with closed-ended questions. Mack *et al.* (2005) provide a comprehensive comparison between both types, not only in terms of flexibility but in other areas as well. See *Table 3.2*.

Table.3.2. Quantitative Vs. Qualitative Research.

	Quantitative	Qualitative
General framework	Seek to confirm hypotheses about phenomena	Seek to explore phenomena
	Instruments use more rigid style of eliciting and categorizing responses to questions	Instruments use more flexible, iterative style of eliciting and categorizing responses to questions
	Use highly structured methods such as questionnaires, surveys, and structured observation	Use semi-structured methods such as in-depth interviews, focus groups, and participant observation
Analytical objectives	To quantify variation	To describe variation
	To predict causal relationships	To describe and explain relationships
	To describe characteristics of a population	To describe individual experiences
		To describe group norms
Question format	Closed-ended	Open-ended
Data format	Numerical (obtained by assigning numerical values to responses)	Textual (obtained from audiotapes, videotapes, and field notes)
Flexibility in study design	Study design is stable from beginning to end	Some aspects of the study are flexible (for example, the addition, exclusion, or wording of particular interview questions)
	Participant responses do not influence or determine how and which questions researchers ask next	Participant responses affect how and which questions researchers ask next
	Study design is subject to statistical assumptions and conditions	Study design is iterative, that is, data collection and research questions are adjusted according to what is learned

Source: Mack et al. (2005: 3)

Although case studies are perceived as qualitative research, in many cases they might be related to the quantitative method, as in the present research. According to Yin (2014: 19), a case study can be both qualitative and quantitative in nature "…the case study method is not just a form of "qualitative research," even though it may be recognized among the array of qualitative research choices (e.g., Creswell, 2007). Some case study research goes beyond being a type of qualitative research, by using a mix of quantitative and qualitative evidence." The present study is a mix of quantitative and qualitative research. Both the questionnaire and the observation are used for generating reliable data that will help the researcher determine the specific engineers' needs to be matched in the intended syllabus. A variety of qualitative methods are used, such as the engineers' job profile analysis, exploring the kinds of text materials related to the professional requirements, and the teaching conditions analysis in the JV. All the data gathered from the qualitative methods was employed in the construction and organization of the questionnaire, which serves as the primary source of quantitative data for the study. The combination of both qualitative and quantitative research techniques provides a well-rounded and comprehensive understanding of the subject matter, allowing the researcher to make more informed conclusions and recommendations.

3.6 Instrument Selection and Organization

The researcher used a well-structured, regular questionnaire to make the informants feel at ease when answering questions or expressing their ideas. The researcher's goal in elaborating the questionnaire consists to collect data in two major areas: respondents were asked to offer their opinion on the relevance of a certain language talent and provide information about their proficiency level in that skill as well. When it comes to selecting and structuring the questions, the researcher drew on a variety of resources, including her previous experience as an English teacher in the JV and at University of Oran, Munby's work (1978), Needs Analysis by Tarone and Yule (1989: 81–84); Brace's work on questionnaires (2004), Frendo's work on BE needs analysis in businesses (2005), and a talk with the BP/SH/STATOIL JV's language tutor about the linguistic and business skills engineers require.

3.6.1 Converting Concepts into Variables

In the present research, the primary focus is to measure the participants' perceptions of the degree of 'importance' and 'satisfaction' with different language skills. However, measuring such subjective concepts can be a challenging task, as they represent mental reflections and do not have a tangible, rational unit. Concepts such as 'importance' and 'satisfaction' are inherently subjective and can vary greatly from person to person. As a result, simply comparing participants' perceptions may not provide a clear and accurate picture. To address this issue, the researcher has utilized the process of converting these concepts into measurable *variables* through the use of *indicators*. The latter are a set of criteria related to the concept being measured, and their choice depends on the researcher's perception of relevance. However, it is important to have a logical connection between them, as this will ensure the data collected is meaningful and accurate.

Taking the case of ‘importance’, the researcher determined a set of criteria that are measured with a number of points attributed to each criterion. It is meant to be a gradation of points classified steadily from ‘extremely important’ to ‘not important'. Four points are attributed to ‘extremely important’ and nil for ‘not important'. This way, the researcher can calculate the number of points given to each determined degree. Similarly, for the concept of ‘satisfaction’ about the mastery level, the indicators are as follows: ‘very satisfactory’, ‘satisfactory’, and ‘not satisfactory’. Each criterion is given a number of points, for example, ‘very satisfactory’ is given one point, and ‘not satisfactory’ is given three points. The reason for reversing the gradation of the points is to place emphasis on the ‘not satisfactory’ indicator, giving higher priority to the skill rated as such when analyzing data and, thus; when constructing the syllabus. Likewise, if the participants are ‘very satisfied’ with their level in a specific skill, the latter will be given less consideration. *See table.3.6.*

3.6.2 The Content and the Purpose of the Questionnaire

It is a six-page questionnaire *(see Annex 2)* with information about the researcher and her contact information on the front page in case any of the respondents wants to contact her for more information or clarification. The title of the study is included, as well as a brief explanation of the goal and the importance of the study. The informants are also assured that their responses will be kept private and solely utilized for research purposes. It is also stated clearly that their participation is voluntary yet crucial to the research. The informants to whom the questionnaire has been submitted work for the JV (BP/SH/STATOIL) staff from both plants: In Amenas (INA) and In Salah Gas (ISG). The questionnaire is divided into two parts:

a) Personal data

The purpose of this section is to learn about the engineers’ backgrounds and experiences, as well as their English proficiency. We believe it is fundamental to know the informants’ profiles, positions at work, professional experience inside the JV, their respective departments, and their job description. It is also useful to know about past English language programs and materials, the hourly volume of English teaching, and if the informants’ co-workers are native, non-native, or both. These could highlight the problems that the informants are facing. This section also asks about the informants' understanding of BE techniques because, in some manner, this will help determine their level of awareness of these techniques.

b) Language-relate data

The purpose of this section is to provide extensive information about the English language and skill level. For that purpose, 42 scale-type items were designed to cover all four skills: reading, writing, listening, and speaking. In this study, these skills are used to build the required foundation for the BE syllabus proposal. The 42 items are divided into categories based on their intended usage; some are intended for GE use, while others are intended for business use. The general language purpose items in the questionnaire are included to determine the extent to which the informants need to learn the fundamental aspects of English. The technical-specific purpose items are used to assess the informant's level of knowledge and willingness to learn about the item. It should be noted that it was difficult to categorize the items or sub-skills because many of them fit into both categories. *Table 3.3* displays the questionnaire construction, showing the items corresponding to each part.

Table 3.3: The Questionnaire Construction

Parts	**Personal-data part**	**Language-related part**			
		Reading	**Writing**	**Listening**	**Speaking**
Number of items	8	10	11	11	10

As the table shows, the researcher used a passive-active skill and written-spoken sequence, starting with receptive, then productive, and finally written and oral skills. The reading skill is tested with ten items, or microskills. Each of them treats a subject that must be taught to the informants. To avoid ambiguity, the terms "technical" and "text" have been clarified to help the informants understand the questions and provide appropriate answers. The word "technical" refers to any word that is relevant to the field of work or specialty, whereas the term "text" refers to technical texts such as e-mails, reports, faxes, contracts, and other similar documents. Furthermore, Table 3.4 shows the way the different skills are approached. The objective of each sub-skill is defined further in this chapter, and each sub-skill is then ranked and assessed in terms of importance and mastery. This aids in the development of courses that will be offered in response to the demands of the students. In addition, each part includes an open question that allows respondents to add any sub-skill not addressed in the questionnaire that they believe is relevant and should be evaluated.

Table 3.4: Description of the Four Language Skills Items (sub-skills)

Language Skills	Categories	Number of item	Observation
Reading	BE skill-related (technical purpose)	1, 2	Supposed to be in technical specific purpose or BE skills-related. It is rather related to the area of specialization.
	Language-related (general purpose)	5, 6, 7, 8, 9	They treat the very general basic skills that are usually learnt in the secondary and high schools in Algeria.
	Additional item	10	Open question for the informant to give ones' opinions or add a sub-skill that one may thought it is worth treating.
Writing	BE skill-related (technical purpose)	1, 2, 4, 5, 10	They deal with the techniques used in the business domain as well as with technical vocabulary.
	Language-related (general purpose)	3, 6, 7, 8, 9	They are about the general techniques of writing; such as writing to convey a general idea, writing for detailed information, or summarizing.
	Additional item	10	an open question to express freely additional sub-skills.

Listening	BE skill-related (technical purpose)	2, 7, 8, 9, 10	They examine the status of listening skill in pure Business contexts.
	Language-related (general purpose)	1, 3, 4, 5, 6	They present situations of basic listening strategies.
	Additional item	10	Left for the open question
Speaking	BE S kills-related (technical purpose)	1, 2, 6, 7, 8	They are all related to the Business skills such as meetings telephoning, etc.
	Language-related (general purpose)	3, 4, 9	Referring to general speaking conversations (especially the informal ones)
	Culture-related	5	Deals with the cultural awareness of the informants.
	Additional item	10	Open question

3.6.2.1 Section One: Listening Items

When a non-native English speaker is listening to a native English speaker, they may encounter several challenges due to differences in pronunciation, speed, idiomatic expressions, and accents. Native English speakers often speak quickly and may reduce sounds in words and sentences, leading to the assimilation of sounds. For instance, the phrase “I got you” can sound like “guchya” when spoken rapidly. Non-native speakers may struggle to catch these rapid changes in speech and could misunderstand or miss important information. They also frequently use idiomatic expressions that might not be familiar to non-native speakers. For example, saying “It’s raining cats and dogs” to describe heavy rain might confuse non-native listeners who are not familiar with this figurative language. Regional Accents and Dialects can also be challenging to a non-native speaker.

Item two, **three,** and **four** attempt to identify the different language issues the informants confront in the case of a conversation between native speakers on a technical subject or a general one. In Item two**,** the point is to know how well they understand the native speakers with their accent, word swallowing, vocabulary, and sometimes even the use of idioms. Item three is about knowing the degree to which they can listen to and understand a conversation between native speakers only. In this case, the native speaker tends to simplify the language and reduce the pace of speaking; they try to be explicit using simpler words.

Items **five, six, seven**, and **eight** address listening issues informants confront in face-to-face cases or on the telephone and the importance of body language to facilitate understanding. The researcher thinks that some will find it easier to listen to a native in a face-to-face situation as they can deduce the meaning from non-verbal elements such as body language, facial expressions, gestures, etc. On the other hand, some of them will find it more complicated to interact instantly. Item **nine** seeks to measure the informants' problems when using audio-visual, PowerPoint, or video facilities, and finally, item **ten** concerns taking notes while attending a presentation.

3.6.2.2 Section Two: Reading Items

Item one wheels around the technical register. I think, prior to conducting any language analysis, it is critical to ascertain whether the engineers have any issues with technical terminology that is directly related to their field of work. We believe that linguistic issues are minor in comparison to the technical register. The use of a general language simply aids the communication of technical information. It will only be GE instruction if they do not master technical terminology. Within the language-related special domain is the reading of graphs, charts, diagrams, etc. This is what **the second question** is expected to do. Certainly, understanding technical diagrams, including all possible acronyms and technical indications, requires a strong technical background. This is part of the technical reading, but the researcher's implicit purpose through this question is to see what language they use in the process. Because time is a very important factor, the learners need to develop skimming, which is the concern of **Item 3.** It is worth mentioning that skimming is a reading technique that is considered important by the researcher for the informants. Usually, the technical staff in the plant has little time to read for details. Most of the time, they have to skim lots of e-mails, reports, faxes, or any technical document to answer or act in cases of urgency. Thus, it is quite important to evaluate their level of skimming. In a similar vein, extracting specific information requires that the learners master extracting important information in the blink of an eye. The idea retained for i**tem 4** is to evaluate their capacity to extract specific information. It is a way of skimming to pick up the gist of a reading selection, or, in other words, to see if they are capable of discarding irrelevant ideas and retaining useful ones. The **items five and six** are, respectively, meant to test the learner's ability to scan texts and whether scanning is an important activity to develop. This will be revealed in the data interpretation and analysis, and six raises the problem of pronunciation mastery. Because it can confuse the listener and even change the intended meaning, pronunciation is a crucial part of reading. For example, if the word "filling" in the sentence "filling the tanks" is mispronounced with the diphthong /ai/ instead of the short /I/, it will be confused with the word "filing," which means to produce a smooth area, resulting in nonsense. Similarly, the words "steel" and "still" use the long /I:/ and short /I/, respectively. It is for this reason that proper pronunciation is crucial, as it has an impact on comprehension and communication. **Item 7,** in turn, is a skimming revisit of item three. In the event of a technical paper, the skimming strategy (item three) is revisited in order to assess reliability using GE content (item seven). This item is repeated to see if respondents instinctively responded to item three based on their technical knowledge or if they actually employed the skimming strategy, which we think is a critical technique that informants must master. **Item eight** is meant to test the informants' ability to read to get a general idea. Usually longer emails are exchanged when explaining an issue or proposing solutions; hence, the reader must understand the general idea behind it. **Item nine** evaluates the importance as well as the capacity to recall previously learned vocabulary and general knowledge to understand newly introduced texts. This item is included because we assume this task, which requires a lot of effort to grasp connotative meaning, is fundamental for the learners.

3.6.2.3 Section Three: Writing Items

Item one consists of learners' mastery of technical vocabulary to label different drawings. This is a technical skill that cannot be ignored since learners need to use specific vocabulary using words or phrases to be attached to describe the different technical drawings, among which are industrial drawings. **Item two** is almost similar to the first except that it assesses how capable the learners are of writing complete, meaningful sentences using the appropriate technical vocabulary they already know. Furthermore, **item three** checks the informants' ability to use accurate short sentences when writing e-mails or reports. **Item four** is included to assess their ability to describe a process using different types of sentences, focusing on declarative and explanatory ones. **Item five** recalls item 1; it measures writing from diagrams and charts using appropriate vocabulary and sentence types, this time using their own words. **Item six** is about developing the capacity for argumentation and giving opinions about matters related to their field work. **Item seven's** concern is to evaluate the techniques of report writing, organizing, and summarizing. Reports are used by the technical staff on a daily basis; they are used to prove the daily supervision or accomplishments of tasks. They are usually standard forms with gaps to be filled. However, in some cases, they are required to do occasional reports that they have to create by themselves to be presented to the heads of divisions, for example. In these cases, they need to know how to organize their writing, what information to start with, and how to finish. **Item eight** centers on note-taking during meetings and presentations; the objective is to appraise its importance as well as their mastery of the skill. Note-taking requires quick reflexes and high concentration; these two elements cannot be present unless there is a full comprehension of what is said in the talk. **Items nine** and **ten** focus on the necessary grammar structures used in BE, for example, the structures used in email writings and the use of abbreviation techniques when taking notes or e-mailing.

3.6.2.4 Section Four: Speaking Items

Item one is a skill-related question; participating in meetings requires not only the mastery of the language but the appropriate strategy as well. The informant may know the language but lack the appropriate skills to be efficient in meetings. A silent attendee in the meeting might be considered ineffective at work. Thus, asking this question is important to measure the difficulties they face in meetings. **Item two** focuses on another related skill: interrupting and showing disagreement. **Item three** investigates the informants’ ability to discuss informally with native speakers. The question is asked in a general way to include all aspects: the language, the body language, and the cultural aspect as well. **Item four** is a skills-related question evaluates the ability to maintain a discussion involving active listening skill, understanding and using body language, showing interest, and asking questions. In **item five,** the researcher evaluates the informants’ cultural awareness for its importance to language teaching. **Item six** is about articulation as speaking over the phone requires clear and precise speech to avoid confusion. **Item seven** and **eight** focus on business presentation skills, organizing a presentation is one of the pillars of delivering a presentation, as the goal of presentations is to convey the message without losing the attention of the audience. Question seven measures the informants’ knowledge about organizing and preparing their talks while question eight is more about their ability to attract the audience when presenting. Finally, **item nine** investigates the engineers' ability to sum up ideas.

3.7 Piloting the Study

In Amenas (INA) and In Salah Gas (ISG) sites are the focus of the present study. The same questionnaire was administered at both sites .Since access to the plant was not allowed for safety measures, the questionnaire was sent by email to the head of the maintenance department, He is chosen to organize and distribute the questionnaire to the 52 participants according to their availability. It should be noted that the questionnaire which was elaborated in three languages namely English, French, and Arabic in order to avoid problems of understanding, confusion and to check the language choice tendency was sent in November 2017, and answers were received by mail on January 30th, 2018. Surprisingly as it may be, only the engineers from the INA Project answered the questionnaire and selected the French version.

3.8 Population and Sample Selection

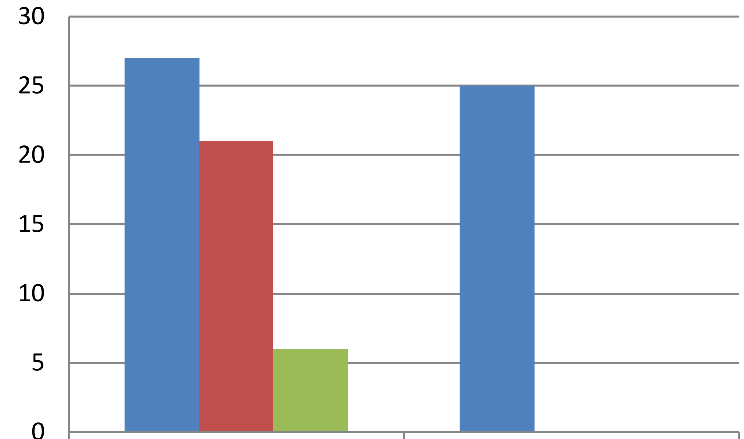
The population refers to the entire group of individuals or entities that the researcher is interested in studying and drawing conclusions about. In this research, the population includes all engineers working in the hydrocarbon sector in Algeria.

The sample, on the other hand, is a subset of the population selected for actual data collection and analysis. It represents the larger group and allows researchers to make inferences about the entire population without examining every individual. In this study, the sample is specifically drawn from engineers working on the In Amenas Project, providing a manageable yet representative segment of the larger population. This distinction is essential because studying an entire population is often impractical, whereas a sample enables more focused, accessible, and controlled research.

The purpose of utilizing the numerical implications in empirical research is to get feedback on a large segment of people or other research units from a reasonably small number of the same segment. More explicitly, the researcher cannot examine the larger groups in detail under controlled conditions, which is why sampling is the best tool to study such large sections. "The purpose of sampling a quantitative research is to draw inferences from the group from which you have selected the sample" Kumar (1999: 192). In the present research, the population consists of engineers working for the JV.

In order to ensure easy accessibility and maximize participant availability, the present study has specifically focused on the participants of the In Amenas Project, which accounts for approximately half of the working staff within the JV. This selection allows for a comprehensive representation of the target population involved in the study. To provide a visual overview, Graph 3.1 presented below illustrates the distribution of responses received from the participants, shedding light on the quantity of data gathered from this specific group.

Graph 3.1:Received Answers



	INA Project	ISG Project
The Engineers Total Number	27	25
Recieved Questionnaires	21	0
Unrecieved Questionnaires	6	0

3.9 Analytical Method

The first part of the questionnaire is designed to collect personal data to provide some background for the researcher's interpretations. The questions in this part include closed-ended questions, multiple choice questions, and three-point' likert-scale questions. The second part is designed to measure the participants' estimation of importance and mastery of different sub-skills. The questions are based on a likert-scale "… a summated rating scale used for measuring attitudes. The method was developed by Rensis Likert in 1932" (Victor Jupp, 2006: 161). It is used in questionnaires mainly to get the participants' degree of agreement with a declaration or a set of declarations. Likert scales measure only one dimension at a time on an ordinal scale. These scales are considered to have many strength points: they are easy to construct by the researcher, they are recognized to be highly reliable, and they are simple to answer and analyze. It also enables the researcher to describe the models with indicative scores (Thomas, 2003: 130).

The researcher takes into account two stages of analysis when conducting the questionnaire survey. The first stage is focused on analyzing the four language skills, and the second focuses on analyzing each sub-skill individually. It contains two categories of four-point Likert scales. The first category is intended to measure the degree of importance estimated by the informants. The second category is designed to measure their estimated mastery level of the sub-skills. The following table shows the values attributed to each degree for both categories of measurement. The values are given according to the concept of the research. As a result of analyzing each sub-skill in isolation, a sub-skill ranking is given in terms of importance and mastery level and then interpreted accordingly. The ranking will be demonstrated in the chapter devoted to the syllabus design.

Table 3.5: The Attributed Values for Each Indicator

The Importance		**The Mastery**	
	The Value		**The Value**
Extremely important	**4**	Very Satisfactory	**1**
Important	**3**	Satisfactory	**2**
Of a little importance	**2**	Not satisfactory	**3**
Not important	**1**	-------------------	---------

3.10 Conclusion

In this chapter, we delved into the methodology, which is a blend of both quantitative and qualitative techniques. The PSA involved the utilization of both questionnaires and observation methods. We also reviewed the research questions and hypotheses, and how they are connected to the proposed study. A significant portion of the chapter was dedicated to the selection and organization of the research instruments. We provided a comprehensive overview of the content and purpose of each question individually. Furthermore, we explained how the study was piloted among the population and shed light on the sampling process. Towards the end of the chapter, we elaborated extensively on the analytical and statistical methods used to scrutinize the collected data. We also explained why we opted for a particular method and how it aligns with the research objectives.

CHAPTER IV:

DATA ANALYSIS, INTERPRETATIONS, AND SYLLABUS PROPOSAL

4.1 Introduction

This chapter is devoted to the analysis of all the collected data gathered from different analyses, including observation and the questionnaire, i.e., Present Situation Analysis (PSA), Means Analysis (MA), and Target Situation Analysis (TSA). PSA includes the JV presentation as it is essential to know about the JV and its status in Algeria and also have a general idea of its organization, policies, and the different nationalities working for it as sub-contracted companies. There is also an analysis of the importance of English as well as the time scale devoted to its teaching. The informant's job description is also included to give a closer view of their needs. The second analysis, MA, focuses on the documentation used and its relevance to matching the needs of our informants. The last analysis, TSA, and perhaps the most important analyses, are the questionnaire data analysis, data interpretation, and recommendations. The latter are presented in broad lines as highlighted recommendations, which will be reflected further in the syllabus proposal. Later in this chapter, the syllabus will be presented. The researcher collected various ESBP courses that were available on the market and made efforts to customize the content, choose suitable approaches, and adjust the timeframe based on the information gathered during the investigation.

4.2 Sonatrach/British Petroleum/Statoil JV: An Overview

The present research is about the largest wet gas projects in Algeria. In order to have a full picture of what we are talking about we need to go throughout the Joint Venture Presentation. **Sonatrach[25]/British Petroleum[26]/Statoil[27]**Joint Venture involves the production as well as

[25] SONATRACH est la Société Algérienne nationale pour la recherche, la production, le transport, la transformation et la commercialisation des hydrocarbures. Elle est un acteur majeur au service de la satisfaction de la demande domestique en énergie. Première compagnie d'hydrocarbures en Afrique, elle est aussi un important fournisseur d'énergie dans le monde. Elle prépare l'avenir pour découvrir de nouveaux potentiels de réserves et valoriser les ressources énergétiques dans le cadre de ses projets en effort propre ou en partenariat.« Qui Sommes Nous ? » Abstract. *Sonatrach*. 2016. Web. 22 Jan 2018.

[26] British Petroleum or BP P.L.C. is a British multinational oil and gas company headquartered in London. It is one of the world's seven oil and gas "supermajors", whose performance in 2012 made it the world's sixth-largest oil and gas company, the sixth-largest energy company by market capitalization and the company with the world's twelfth-largest revenue (turnover). It is a vertically integrated company operating in all areas of the oil and gas industry, including exploration and production, refining, distribution and marketing, petrochemicals, power generation and trading. It also has renewable energy interests in biofuels and wind power. "BP" *Encyclopedia Wikipedia Online*. Wikipedia The free Encyclopedia, 2018. Web. 22 Jan 2018.

the development of natural gas and gas liquids. The JV plants exist in In Amenas (INA)[28], In Salah (ISG)[29], and the head quarter is in Hassi Messaoud (HMD)[30].

The operations in In Amenas are exploited from four gas fields in the Illizi basin in the South-East of Algeria: Tigentourine, Hassi Farida, Hassi Ouan Taredert, and Hassi Ouan Abecheu. The initial phase of gas production started in 2006. To increase this production, a crucial component of the JV's planned advancement, the compression project, was implemented. It was originally planned to start in 2011, but unforeseen circumstances, including a terrorist attack on the plant that year, necessitated a delay. As a result, the initiation of the compression project was rescheduled and ultimately realized in 2013.

The projects in both IAP and ISG are possessed and managed by a J between the Algerian state-owned oil company Sonatrach, the UK-based multinational British Petroleum (BP), whose interest is 46%, and the Norwegian Statoil (rebranded to 'equinor'[31]), whose interests are 45.9%. The project produces 9 billion cubic meters of natural gas and 50,000 barrels of condensate per single year, which is considered to be one tenth of the total Algerian gas

[27] Statoil is a Norwegian international energy company present in more than 30 countries around the world, including several of the world's most important oil and gas provinces. We operate in North and South America, Africa, Asia, Europe and Oceania—as well as Norway. "Who we are" Statoil. Abstract. 2018. Web. 22 Jan 2018.

[28] In Amenas Gas Project is located next to the lybian boarders in the Sahara desert. In Amenas (Arabic: إن أمناس , In 'Amanās) is a town and'commune in eastern Algeria, bordering with Libya. The town is located 30 kilometres (19 mi) west of the border. There is no border crossing in the area. The municipality had 7,385 inhabitants in 2008, up from 5.302 in 1998, with an annual growth rate of 3.4%[1] According to the Algerian novelist Mouloud Mammeri the name is a Tuareg word which means "lieu des méharis" or "place of camel drivers. It is 1,300 km far from the capital Algiers "Hassi Messaououd". *Encyclopedia Wikipedia Online*. Wikipedia the Free Encyclopedia, 2018. Web. 22 Jan 2018.

[29] In Salah or Ain Salah (Arabic: عين صالح is an (oasis town in central Algeria. It was once an important trade link of the trans-Saharan caravan route. As of the 2008 census it has a population of 32,518, up from 28,022 in 1998, with an annual growth rate of 1.5%, the lowest in the province. The village is located in the heart of the Sahara Desert region of northern Africa. The name *In Salah* comes from the term "good well" although the water is known for its rather unpleasant, salty taste. "In Salah". *Encyclopedia Wikipedia Online*. Wikipedia the Free Encyclopedia, 2018. Web. 22 Jan 2018

[30] Hassi Messaoud (Arabic: حاسي مسعود is a town in (Ouargla Province, eastern Algeria, located 85 kilometres (53 mi) southeast of Ouargla. As of 2008 it had a population of 45,147 people, up from 40,360 in 1998, and an annual population growth rate of 1.1%, the lowest in the province. Oil was discovered there in 1956 and the town's prominence has grown rapidly since then; it is considered as the First Energy town in Algeria where all the big oil and gas companies have offices and bases. It is an oil refinery town named after the first oil well. A water well, dug in 1917, can be found on the airport side of town. Today there are over 800 wells within a 25 kilometres (16 mi) radius of the town. "Hassi Messaououd". *Encyclopedia Wikipedia Online*. Wikipedia the Free Encyclopedia, 2017. Web. 22 Jan 2018.

[31] Statoil recently underwent a rebranding to 'equinor'. However, the researcher has opted to continue using the name 'Statoil' due to the fact that all documentation was received before the date of the change (18 March 2018) and bears the Statoil logo.

production[32]. Other sub-contractor companies of different nationalities work in corporation with the JV, some examples that reflect the variation in the races and the languages are: LEAD[33] which employed Indians for instance, Lloyd Register[34], JGC[35], and KBR[36] which employed Filipinos and Romanians, Honeywell[37], in addition to the catering services offered by the British multinational contract foodservice, property management and support services company ESS[38]. This multi-national cooperation imposes English as the official language of the JV after Arabic.

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[32] "BP in Algeria." *BP Global Corporate*. 1996. Web. 22 Jan 2018.

[33] LEAD is a privately owned large-scale industrial construction company operating in the Middle East and North Africa region, specializing in oil & gas and power plant contracting services, with particularly strong expertise in electromechanical, pipeline, and civil construction works. Due to its highly flexible project management system LEAD has proven its ability to undertake subcontracts for major International EPC Companies/Contractors across the Middle East and North Africa, and as Main Contractor to Owners, whether on its own or through partnerships and consortium. "Lead" Lead Official Website". Abstract. 2015. Web. Oct 2017.

[34] Lloyd's Register (LR) is a global engineering, technical and business services organisation wholly owned by the Lloyd's Register Foundation, a UK charity dedicated to research and education in science and engineering. Founded in 1760 as a marine classification society, LR now operates across many industry sectors, with over 9,000 employees based in 78 countries. Its areas of work are: Marine, Oil & Gas, Low Carbon Power, LRQA (Assurance services), Industrial Manufacturing, Utilities and buildings, Rules and regulations, Reseach and innovations. "Working together for A Safer World". *Llyod's Register*.2017. Web. Jan 2018

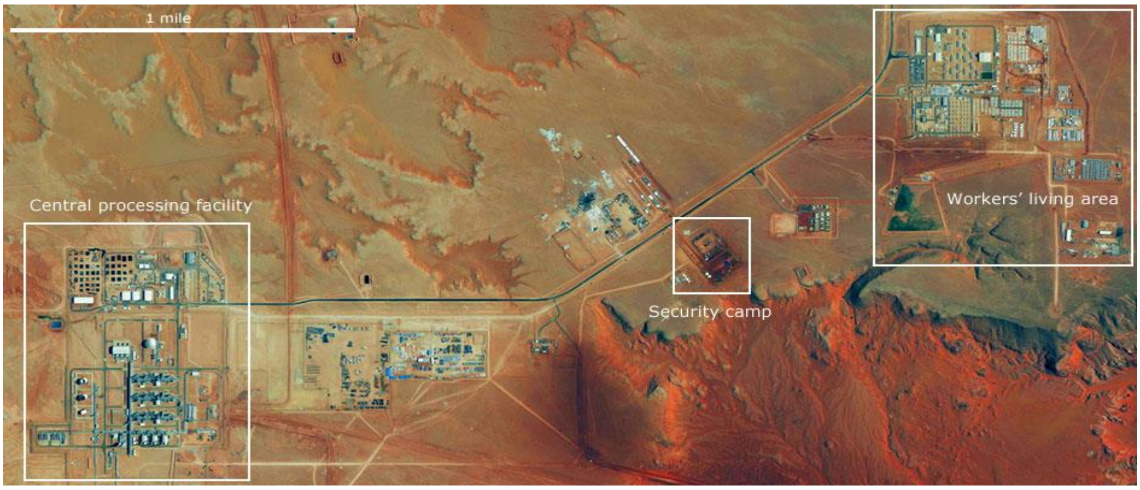
[35]JGC Corporation was founded in 1928 as Japan's first engineering contractor. During its almost 90-year history, the company has been actively engaged in providing Engineering, Procurement and Construction (EPC) services for plants and other facilities to customers in Japan and over 80 overseas countries. The company has dedicated its professional services to the engineering and construction of over 20,000 plants and facilities in an ever-expanding variety of business areas. These range from energy and chemical-related fields including oil, gas and resource development, petroleum refining, LNG and gas processing, and petrochemicals, to pharmaceuticals, medical services, nuclear power and non-ferrous metals. Masayuki, S. & Tadashi, I."Message form Top Management". *JGC Corporation.*2017. Web. Jan 2018.

[36] KBR (formerly Kellogg Brown & Root) is an American engineering, procurement, and construction company. It is a global provider of differentiated professional services and technologies across the asset and program life cycle within the Government Services and Hydrocarbons sectors. KBR employs approximately 34,000 people worldwide (including our joint ventures), with customers in more than 80 countries, and operations in 40 countries, across three synergistic global businesses: Government Services, technology and consulting, engineering and construction. "Our Company". Abstract .*KBR*. 2018.Web. Jan 2018.

[37] Honeywell International Inc. is an American multinational conglomerate company that produces a variety of commercial and consumer products, engineering services and aerospace systems for a wide variety of customers, from private consumers to major corporations and governments. The company operates four business units, known as Strategic Business Units – Honeywell Aerospace, Home and Building Technologies (HBT), Safety and Productivity Solutions (SPS), and Honeywell Performance Materials and Technologies. "Honeywell" *Encyclopedia Wikipedia Online*. Wikipedia the Free Encyclopedia, 2017. Web. 24 sept 2017.)

[38]Eurest Support Services (ESS) is a subsidiary of the catering company *Compass Group* PLC specializing in harsh-environment large-scale food service and facilities management. Its primary clients are military forces and other security services, major defense contractors, and construction, mining, and oil exploration and production facilities worldwide. "Eurest Support Services". *Encyclopedia Wikipedia Online*. Wikipedia the Free Encyclopedia. Oct 2017; Web. Jan 2018.

Map 4.1. In Amenas Project Satelite Picture



Source: http://www.warscapes.com/reportage/dirty-entanglements-excerpt

Map 4.2.In Salah Gas Project Satellite Picture

Source : http://i.huffpost.com/gen/4122770/images/n-12APR_INSALAH_468-large570.jpg

Map4.3.The Different Gas Fields in Both In Amenas and In Salah Gas Projects

Source : http://energy-cg.com/SmallPicsLinks_ECG/amenas_gas_facility_map.png

4.2.1 The English Importance in the JV

As mentioned previously, it is about one of the largest and most productive projects in the hydrocarbon sector in Algeria. It is imperative to master English as a means of communication in this field. As a matter of fact, the Algerian employees are in constant contact with the native and non-native English speakers' expatriates. In the field of hydrocarbons, people work in plants where hazards and danger are always present. JVs like SH/BP/Statoil provide the workers with the necessary equipment and outfits. However, they are also protected by certain rules of safety and security called 'The Golden Rules', which are introduced through inductions to every newly hired employee at the very first day in the INA, ISG, (Hassi Rmel) HRM plants. The golden rules entail a variety of elements, and communication is one of them. They are clearly shown in the following figure:

Figure 4.1.The Golden Rules of Safety in IAP

Source: From the Golden Rules of Safety (IAP) (see annex 1)

The policy[39] of the project emphasizes the importance of clear communication between employees to overcome any danger or conflict. Providing pertinent details ensures clear

[39] Good communication is crucial for success at work. It helps you to express your ideas clearly, learn from others and resolve conflicts. 1) Everyone is responsible for ensuring that the work they authorize or request is clear and precise. Use simple words and language to express your point. 2) Everyone is responsible for ensuring that the communicated request or authorization is fully understood, Listen actively and keep an open mind. 3) When authorizing or requesting work, always provide full details and information to help the performer do it safely. 4) Be sure to leave comprehensive written handover notes for your rotation partner at change out and, if possible, discuss these face to face or by telephone. 5) Consider carefully all the implications of work which you are authorizing or asking for from other teams. Be sure to communicate well with those team leaders and to provide all pertinent details. 6) As soon as changes are known or conditions of work change, be sure to communicate these to all parties concerned. 7) Make sure you understand someone's point before you react.

handovers, as communicating clearly with coworkers is essential, a point where training plays a crucial role in ensuring the best communication possible between the employees, impacting their productivity and motivation to improve their skills in services. The smooth running of the organization relies in the first place on effective management as well as the effective performance of its simple employees. Training enables employees to acquire the effective language skills and motivation that are necessary to carry out the tasks. In IAP, four kinds of training are provided: technical trainings, administrative trainings, management trainings, and communication trainings that involve the English language.

The technical trainings are granted to the technical support of the JV like engineers and technicians, or any employee that performs technical tasks with respect to the department he belongs to. The second kind is the administrative training that is provided to the administrative support staff, such as assistants, coordinators, advisors, and supervisors. On the other hand, management staff also benefits from another level of training to update their planning strategies, skills, and competencies. The last but not least is the communication training, which is provided within the JV, i.e., in-company training. It includes language trainings in French for English-speaking staff and English for Algerian staff.

As detailed before in the JV policy, communication is one of the important concerns and commitments of the organization, as the golden rules may reflect. The English language is the language used between the workers who come from different nations around the world; therefore, a good command of English is part of good communication, which is why English courses are significant and are planned to increase the employees' language proficiency. English is the medium of written communication in e-mails, reports, faxes, and official documents. Moreover, it goes without saying that the spoken language in the JV is English. Meetings, presentations, telephone conversations, etc. Speaking English is considered to be the immediate use of the language; hence, its development is of high priority. In contrast to writing, where the greater part of English users do not have great difficulties passing a message as they have enough time to think of the appropriate words and correct them, speaking is a real challenge to overcome by the Algerian employees. Thus, training to improve speaking skills is requisite.

Speak with self-control; do not just say the first response that comes to mind. 8) Be confident. Do not assume that what you have to say is not worthwhile". *(See annex 1)* "IAP's Golden Rules of Safety.

Based on my teaching experience in the JV, it was quite remarkable that an engineer is able to write an e-mail to communicate daily information or a technical report; the latter is a chart to be filled out with technical words and common abbreviations. *(See samples in annex 3)*. However, they struggle with using the language in real-time situations, such as phone conversations, teleconferencing, or impromptu discussions with English-speaking colleagues. Hence, my direct and constant observation led me to conclude that the greater part of the staff is in dire need of mastering the business speaking skill, the category that was chosen for the study, and the technical staff has been selected to present the informant group. They represent a principle section among the whole number of staff and for whom the use of speaking is crucial and highly appealing for an effective work performance.

Needs analysis may be considered a compromise between TSA and PSA. Within the ESP territory, one cannot rely either on TSA or PSA as a dependable parameter of what is needed to enhance learning and reach the objectives. As a matter of fact, PSA is important, as are the teaching conditions within the JV context (time, material, textbooks), and an analysis of the technical staff job description is needed to be able to distinguish in detail their daily tasks. This will drive us to TSA by using the questionnaire to determine the speaking language necessities, lacks and wants of the informants. Secondly, to determine the adequate time period and content, as well as the method to be used in designing the syllabus, The PSA can be piloted by means of placement tests. However, background information, e.g., the number of years spent learning English, the educational level, etc., about learners can provide us with sufficient data about their present capabilities. This information can be extracted from a questionnaire.

4.2.2 The Teaching Time Scale

Employees, including the technical ones in the IAP, are very busy; they actually start at 6:00 a.m. and finish at 6:00 p.m. in the winter and at 6:30 a.m. to 6:30 p.m. in the summer, with a break of one hour and a half for lunch. It is important to mention that they do not have weekends as they work seven days a week. The system in hydrocarbon sector JVs stands on the back-to-back (B2B) shift working system for all employees without exception, from the Chief Executive Officer (CEO) to the simplest cleaner. Each employee has his own B2B who replaces him after a period of, on average, 28 days.

As mentioned before, language training is highly important as it responds to one of the Golden Rules of Safety, which is effective communication. As a consequence, technical staff members are recommended to attend in-company English classes to maintain constant contact with the language. A language teacher is hired as a syllabus designer, a teacher, and a colleague. Many factors contribute to the planning of the English schedule. First, given the different language levels the learners have, the English classes should contain learners that have a similar or nearly similar level of English; this helps in the content selection and the smooth learning experience. In most cases, there are two levels of English: the elementary and intermediate levels. The elementary level involves the beginner level as well, and in the intermediate groups, we choose the pre-intermediate learners too. This is to minimize the number of groups so that the schedule can include them all. Second, the different departments' time availability is also a factor in choosing the hour of the class. Each department has its own responsibilities, and what is convenient for one department may not be for another. Hence, the teacher tries to find the best timing solution for each one; e.g., the HSE department has to rehearse specific safety scenario tests on a daily basis in the morning from 9:00 a.m. to 10:00 a.m.; this will exclude them from the English classes at this hour. Third, the rank of the position plays an important role in the time allocation. If it is a VIP class, it is given priority for choosing the appropriate time, but for a regular position, i.e., any position rather than a manager, it is considered so. CEOs, Operations (OPS) Managers, and the different departments' managers are given priority to choose their appropriate timing for their VIP classes, which will leave fewer chances for the others, but this is one rule in the in-company teaching. Last but not least, the frequency of the classes given for each single group within a week is also a scale to be considered in dividing the schedule. The average frequency of the English class for one group is two to three classes per week. Yet, it depends on the group of factors that should be considered. Two classes a week are the minimum for the employees to be in constant contact with the courses, but it is necessary in some cases to give only one class a week to be able to respond to a large number of groups.

In order to respond to the requirements of the schedule repartition, the teacher is called to be flexible in finding a compromise that satisfies all parts. Generally, each group takes two classes per week; it is considered to be the minimum number of classes as they have to create a certain continuation of courses. As a result of constant observation and concrete experience within the IAP, it is assumed that the SH managers, even though they have the same background as the supervisors and engineers, need to be taken into separate classes (one-to-one classes). The latter prevent any informal interaction with the subordinates; this case is, for sure, an interpretation of the Algerian cultural aspect that a teacher should be aware of.

4.3 Job Requirements Analysis

Engineers hold critical positions within the staff hierarchy of the Join JV and constitute a significant portion of the total workforce. The technical service provided by engineers in the hydrocarbon sector is essential for achieving the primary objective of the JV, which is production. The engineers frequently interact with expatriates of various nationalities during their inspection and supervisory tasks. In addition to their technical responsibilities, engineers also undertake administrative tasks such as composing emails and reports, attending daily meetings, making phone calls, participating in teleconferences, and delivering presentations *(see annex 4).* Engineers are present in various departments of the JV, including HSE, Maintenance, TAR, TS, DEP, and Construction, but not in supportive departments such as Training, Human Resources, and Logistics. Although Algerian engineers have the necessary technical expertise, they face difficulty communicating effectively in English with expatriates.

All language skills are of significant importance for engineers. As a language teacher in the JV and also a colleague of the engineers, the researcher has the opportunity for informal yet close observation of the engineers' real lacks, weaknesses and wants. As content holders, the engineers have no problem with technical words. The major problem is how to conduct these technical words whether in reading or writing. Among their job responsibilities, reading technical documents is a daily activity that requires efficiency. The other skill is writing reports, e-mails to their supervisors or managers every day. In the JV the intra network is used as a means of communication between the staff. Every employee is required to master the outlook[40] program starting from the warehouse man to the CEO.

The act of writing emails is a daily requirement as it serves as the official mode of communication. Although engineers may use dictionaries or seek help from colleagues, they still lack the essential basic skills for writing in English. For example, they may struggle with expressing general ideas using technical vocabulary, being concise when necessary, and knowing when to provide explicit details. Conversely, writing reports does not require

[40] Microsoft Outlook generates access to Exchange Server emails, it also entails calendar system and task management utility. It is an intra system that can serve as a platform to share documents within the same firm and send reminders and used for many other administrative functionalities.

mastery of English but rather the use of technical language. As technical language is universal, the majority of engineers do not face difficulties in this regard. However, at this level, the researcher is unable to assess the engineers' language proficiency.

It has been observed that the listening skill is a challenge for the engineers as they struggle with confusion and discomfort during meetings and conferences. Although engineers with elementary-level English can grasp the main idea of an English speaker's message, this is not always sufficient, as they need to fully comprehend the exact content. Native speakers typically make an effort to communicate effectively, but this is not always possible, and the engineers may need to rely on intonation and infer meaning. The listening skill comprises several techniques, and it appears to be complex for the engineers due to their lack of awareness of cultural nuances. Moreover, the informants are also expected to participate in meetings with expatriates of different nationalities. This demands a higher level of language proficiency, particularly in terms of oral production, as they need to express their ideas clearly and effectively in a business setting. However, as observed by the researcher, they seem to struggle with this aspect of language as well, highlighting the need for further language training and support in the JV. Various speaking tasks constitute their daily dealings. On the one hand, they are required to deliver daily five-minute presentations in English in order to describe their plan for the day or the issues they face in the CPF. The main challenge examined here is their discomfort, which results from their lack of proficiency in the language as well as the techniques affecting the quality of their presentation. The participants are expected to attend meetings where they must be quick, efficient, and tactful, while also being skilled in making effective presentations.

> (i) They deliver HSE weekly report in the form of an presentation to inform about accidents, incidents, slips, falls of scaffolding, chemical spills…etc. in addition, the results of weekly HSE surveys indicate the number of company workers who made the HSE observation.
> (ii) Technical presentations: to discuss the issues faced in the CPF inform about and the anticipated solutions and also the figures reflecting the amount of gas production in comparison to the plant capacity.
> (iii) Occasional presentations are given to senior management staff and are usually presented by team leaders who are engineers at the origin. These occasional presentations are given at different special operations such as the shutdown of the plant delivered by "Turn Around" (TAR) team, and *"FRAC"* operation, which is a process to extract gas. (Chaalane, 2014: 59)

The four skills in English go hand in hand with the business skills, pouring in strong communication skills. Consequently, the engineers need to have a certain mastery level to be able to confront any challenging situations. The researcher, in the engineers' job analysis, assumes that the four skills are required in a complementary way, together with the right business techniques that help reinforce their communication skills. In order to have a much clearer picture, MA is conducted to examine the documentation used in teaching the engineers as well as the frequency of courses and the distribution of hours. This is thoroughly discussed in the next section.

4.4 Teaching Documentation Analysis

The teaching documentation Analysis is quite important in conducting NA in this study. A detailed examination of the content and methodology used by the language tutor in the JV is held. To this end, the researcher consulted the placement test *(see annex 5)* and the textbooks used, which is the Language Solutions School test[41]; it is adapted from the Business Language Testing Service (BULATS). The test is authorized by the University of Cambridge ESOL examinations. It aimed at determining the learners' language proficiency level in the four skills. The second objective is to enable the teacher to group the learners for the repartition of the lessons. It has four separate tests sequenced as follows:

[41] Language Solutions is an international language organization providing training projects for companies around the world, it has open in Algeria since 2008, and recently it has opened a recruiting branch in Dubai.

Table 4.1. Language Solutions Test Construction

	Language Solutions Placement Test (Business Language Testing Service)		
	Parts	**Construction**	**Timing**
Part One	Writing test	Constructed of two sections the first one is obligatory In the second section, the learner has to make choice between two different tasks	45 minutes
Part Two	Listening test	Section 1: short recording Section 2: filling the gaps Section 3: matching the answers Section 4: Multiple Choice Questionnaire	45minutes
Part Three	Reading and Language Knowledge Test	Two sections about grammar, vocabulary, and reading.	60 minutes
Part Four	Speaking	The language tutor evaluation based on a selected topic.	About 15 minutes

The JV provides a business English program: 'the Market Leader' *(see annex 6)* textbooks for the teaching program. It is a collection of four levels (Elementary, pre-intermediate, intermediate, and upper intermediate). Each course is made up of twelve units, each of which is followed by a revision unit. The latter is devoted to reviewing the most important items dealt with to enable the students to make up for the deficiencies.

The elementary Market Leader is an introductory stage in BE; it is set up for those who have little to no knowledge of BE. By the end of the level, the students will:

- Distinguish the different business contexts like business travel, sales, finance, etc.
- Be able to introduce the talk and begin a conversation in a business context.
- Be able to use the basic tenses in English (present simple, past simple, and future).

The pre-intermediate level addresses learners who have basic BE knowledge and can understand and participate in business situations, but in a very limited way (with no creativity). The learners at this stage will develop the following:

- Using more complicated tenses such as past and present continuous
- Be exposed to authentic Business articles.
- Express issues and problems in Business.

The intermediate level is reinforcement for the previous one. Focusing on the mastery of language, it aimed to develop good writing and speaking skills. At this level, there is more emphasis on accuracy and fluency. The projected objectives are:

- Arguing and participating in complicated discussions.
- Use models and some idioms.

Through the examination of the materials, the researcher deduces that they are set for General Business Purposes where all the business skills are tackled equally and generally. There is no focus on each language skill separately. Moreover, the content does not respond directly to the engineers' needs. The positive aspect of the materials used is that the learners are thoroughly introduced to the context of business but still do not master each business skill on its own. According to the researcher, the engineers need to fully master business skills such as meetings, telephoning, presentations, and socializing. It is quite important for them to be proficient in those skills because, as mentioned before, they occupy key positions and must contribute efficiently. Therefore, it is assumed that the materials used must be adapted or replaced if possible.

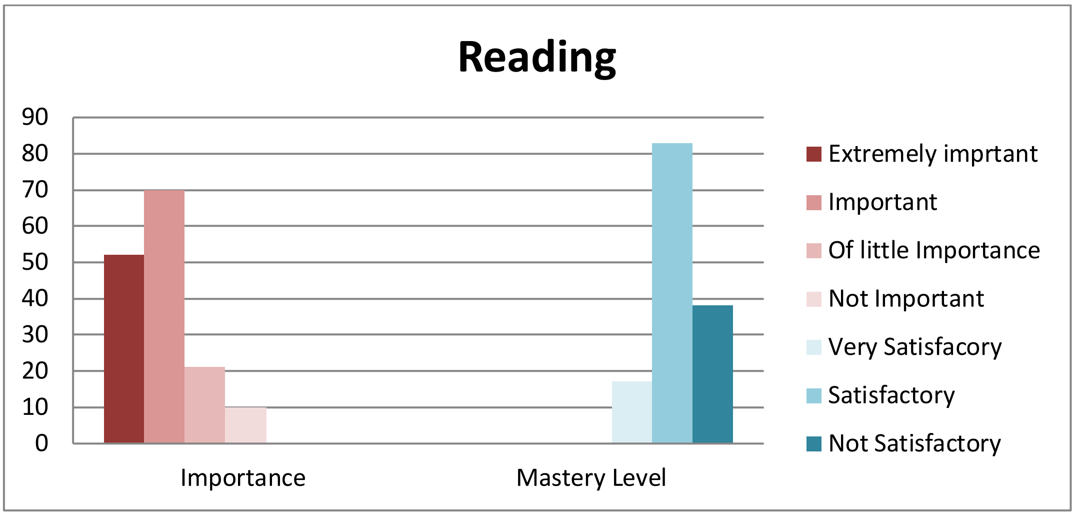
4.5 The Questionnaire Analysis

In order to conduct a thorough analysis of the language needs of the engineers in the joint venture, the researcher utilized a questionnaire as the principal instrument in the needs analysis. This approach enabled the researcher to collect quantitative data on the language skills of the engineers and identify areas where they need improvement. The analysis of the data was approached from two angles to gain a comprehensive understanding of the needs of the engineers. Firstly, the researcher conducted a comparative analysis of the four language skills to determine their ranking in terms of importance for the informants. This analysis enabled the researcher to prioritize the language skills that needed to be improved in order to enhance their communication abilities. Secondly, the researcher conducted an analysis of the language skills individually and their sub-skills to determine whether they were language-related or business skill-related (see table 3.5).

4.5.1 Language Skills Analysis

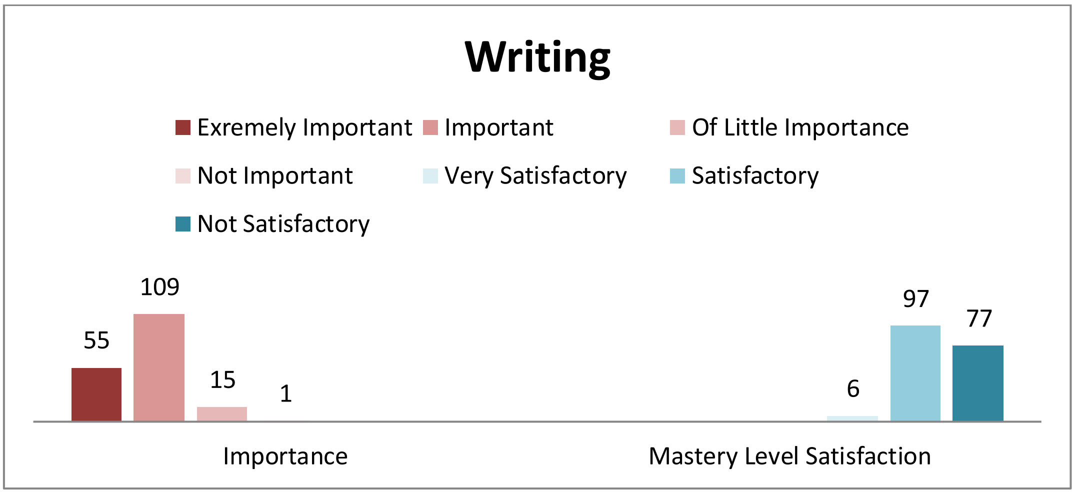
When conducting data analysis, it is important to have a structured approach to ensure that all pertinent information is taken into account. This is particularly true when examining language skills and their relative importance for informants. To accomplish this task, the first stage of data analysis involves considering a broad view of language skills and their mastery by informants. To begin, it is necessary to evaluate each language skill separately to determine its level of importance for the engineers. Once the importance of each language skill has been established, the next step is to analyze how well the informants perceive themselves mastering each skill. This has been carefully investigated through their language use in various contexts, such as in conversations and written communication.

Graph 4.1: The Reading Skill Analysis (Importance/ Mastery Level Satisfaction)



From the graph, we can assume that the reading skill has an important place according to the informants, but at the same time, there is satisfaction in terms of the estimated level.

Graph 4.2: The Writing Skill Analysis (Importance/Mastery Level Satisfaction)

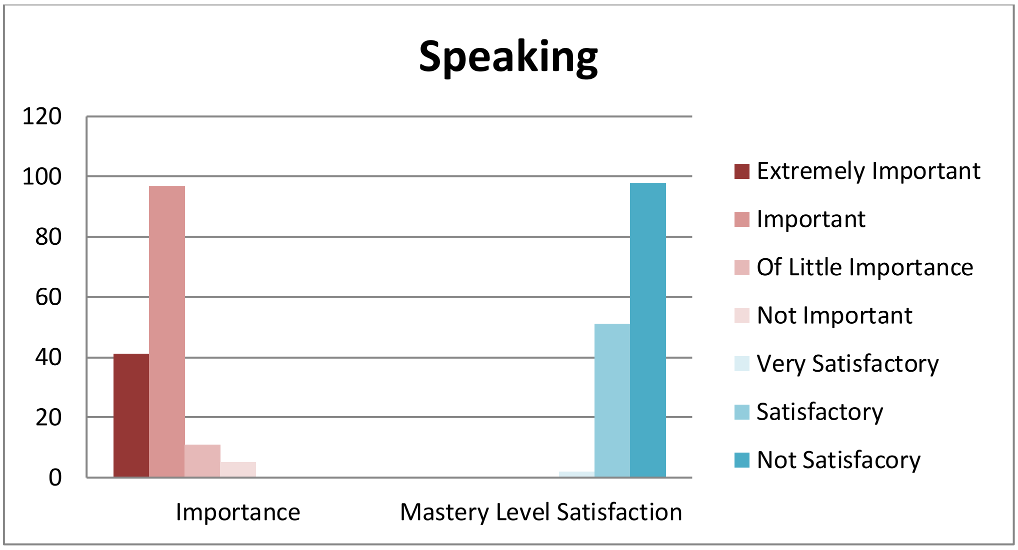


The statistics show that the writing skill is important, and at the same time, the engineers seem to be quite satisfied with their mastery level. But an important number are not satisfied with their abilities in writing.

Graph 4.3: The Listening Skill Analysis (Importance/Mastery Level Satisfaction)

The numbers shown in the graph explain to what extent listening skills are important. In the same vein, the majority of the engineers assume their level is satisfactory to not satisfactory, which means that they need support in this area.

Graph 4.4: The Speaking Skill Analysis (Importance/Mastery Level Satisfaction)



Form the speaking skill analysis, we deduce that, aside from the importance estimated by the informants, the latter are not satisfied in terms of level. Thus, they definitely require help in the area.

The highest score in each category is considered for analysis; e.g., in writing, the importance category is considered to be scored at 109 points, and the mastery level category is scored at 83 points. To be able to rank the skill, the difference in points between the two categories is ranked from the smallest one to the largest one. The difference reflects the relationship between the skill importance and dissatisfaction derived from mastering it, thus enables us to rank the skill. It is given a negative relationship with the priority of the skill; i.e., the smaller the difference, the higher priority is assigned to the skill. For instance, if the difference between the scores is relatively large, then it may indicate that the skill may not need great attention. On the other hand, if the difference is small, it may suggest a need to prioritize the skill when creating the course.

Table 4.2: Rank Table of the Informants Estimation of Language Skills Importance

The Language Skills	Importance (Points)	Mastery Level (Points)	The Difference	The Rank Order
Reading	70	83	13	4
Writing	109	97	29	3
Listening	100	80	20	2
Speaking	97	98	1	1

As per the figures, the speaking skill is ranked first in a list, followed by the listening skill with a significant difference. This ranking seems quite logical because the speaking skill is the most difficult to master; it is more of an outcome of learning the language. At the end of the list, the reading skill and the writing skill are the ones which require least attention.

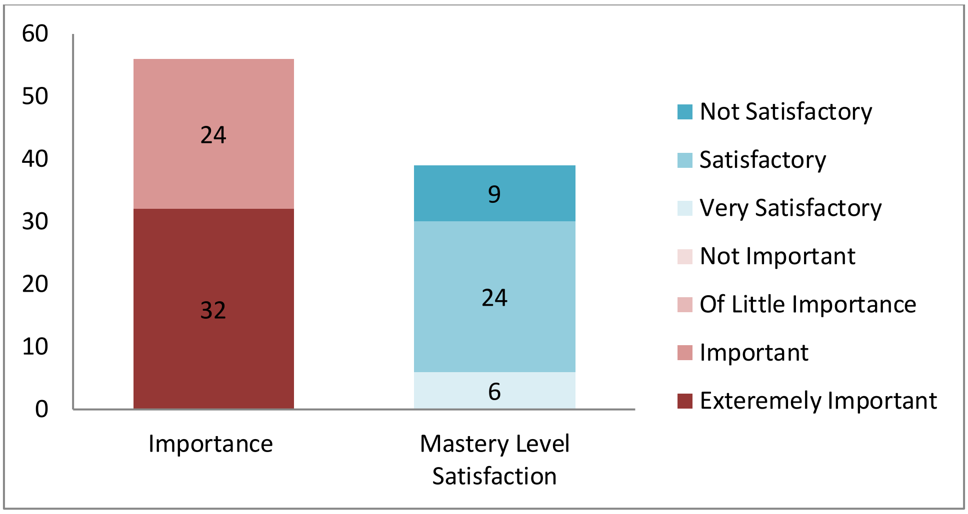
4.5.2 Sub-skills Analysis

By conducting both a broad and narrow analysis of language skills, researchers can gain a more comprehensive understanding of the intricacies involved in language learning. The broad analysis provides a high-level overview of the language skills, while the narrow analysis enables a more detailed examination of each sub-skill within a language skill. This approach allows for the identification of specific areas that require improvement, as well as the ability to prioritize certain sub-skills over others in the syllabus. Moreover, the narrow analysis can also help in streamlining the learning process by eliminating any sub-skills that may not be deemed necessary for achieving the desired proficiency level. By doing so, learners can focus their time and energy on the most critical sub-skills required for effective communication in the target language. Overall, the combination of broad and narrow analysis provides a well-rounded perspective on language learning and can be a valuable tool for educators and learners alike.

4.5.2.1 The Reading Section

Item 1: *Reading written instructions of a technical operation*

Graph 4.5: Reading Section Item.1



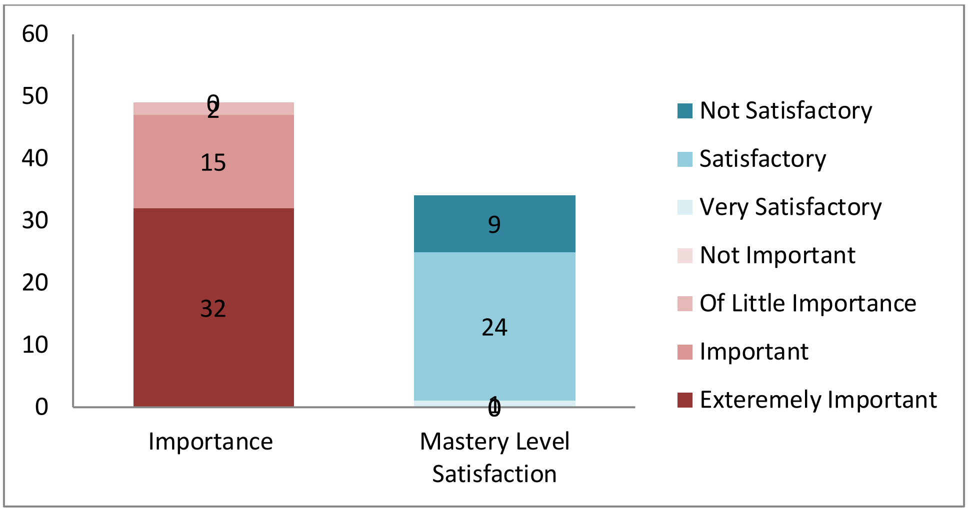
Considering the various levels of importance assigned to this particular sub-skill, the results clearly highlight its extreme significance. However, it is interesting to note that most informants express general satisfaction with their mastery of this skill. This intriguing observation suggests that informants might already possess a solid foundation for reading technical documents. Alternatively, it could indicate that they may not fully grasp the complexity of this skill, despite their satisfaction.

This situation prompts us to question whether current training programs adequately address the complexities of reading technical documents, given their evident importance. By understanding this balance between importance and satisfaction, we can better tailor educational approaches to enhance informants' proficiency in comprehending technical materials, ultimately improving their overall competence in this specialized area.

Recommendation 1: Reading technical documentation is not highly prioritized; thus, there is no urgent need to include it right from the beginning.

Item 2: *Interpreting technical information shown in graphs, charts, and diagrams.*

Graph 4.6: Reading Section Item 2.



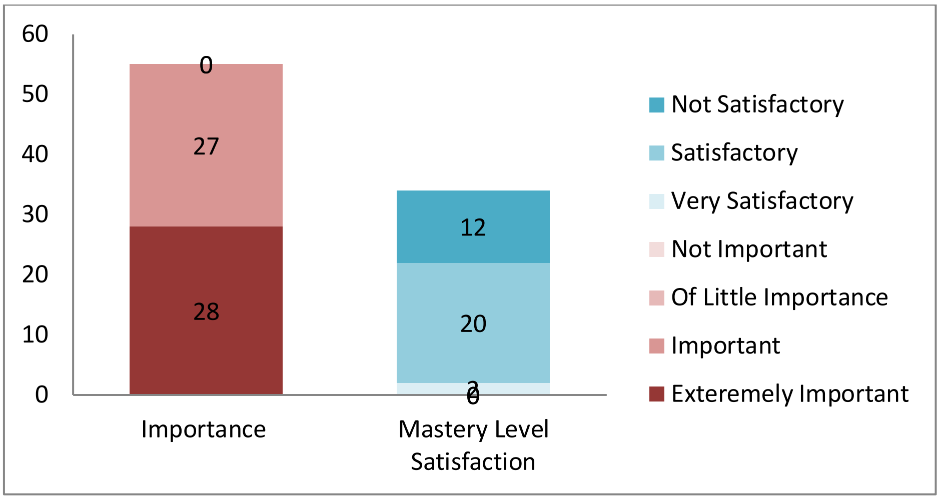
When we closely analyze the data, it becomes clear that the ability to interpret technical information presented in graphs, charts, and diagrams is incredibly important within the scope of our study. However, what's interesting is that the majority of participants seem quite satisfied with their skill level in this area.

This general satisfaction leads us to dig a bit deeper. It could mean that most participants already have a solid grasp of this skill, which is why they feel content.

Recommendation 2: Reading from graphs and charts is not highly recommended in the first place; it can be in a medium place, but it is still important.

Item 3: *Reading a technical passage or an e-mail text quickly and understanding the general meaning*

Graph 4.7: Reading Section Item.3



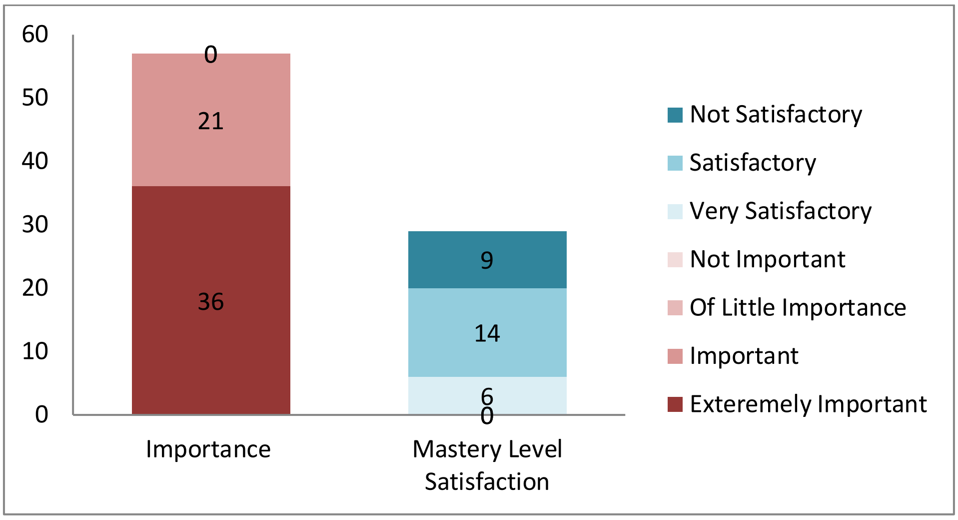
A similar interpretation can be extended to the third item, which involves the ability to rapidly read a technical passage or an email text and grasp its overall meaning. In this case, almost all of the participants acknowledge the significance of this skill, ranging from important to extremely important. However, it is important not to overlook the significant number of individuals who openly admit that their proficiency in this area falls short of satisfaction.

This finding can guide us in refining our educational strategies, ensuring that participants can enhance their ability to understand technical passages and email texts, thereby bridging the gap between recognition of importance and actual proficiency

Recommendation 3: Skimming is an important sub-skill to be included before the first two sub-skills because it has a notable percentage in the "not satisfactory" indicator.

Item 4: *Reading a technical passage or an e-mail text to extract specific information to do a given task*

Graph 4.8: Reading Section Item.4

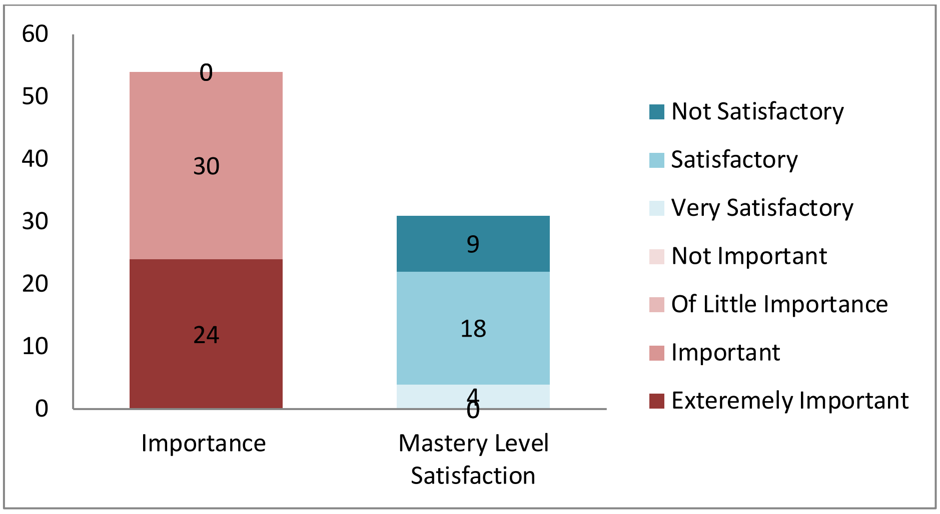


As shown in the figure, there is no doubt that this item is highly important, but at the same time, the participants are quite satisfied with their level; few of them consider themselves to be very satisfied, but others assume that they are not satisfied.

Recommendation 4: Reading to extract specific information is in a medium place in the reading skill.

Item 5: *Reading with high concentration and great care to understand exactly what is meant in the text*

Graph 4.9: Reading Section Item.5

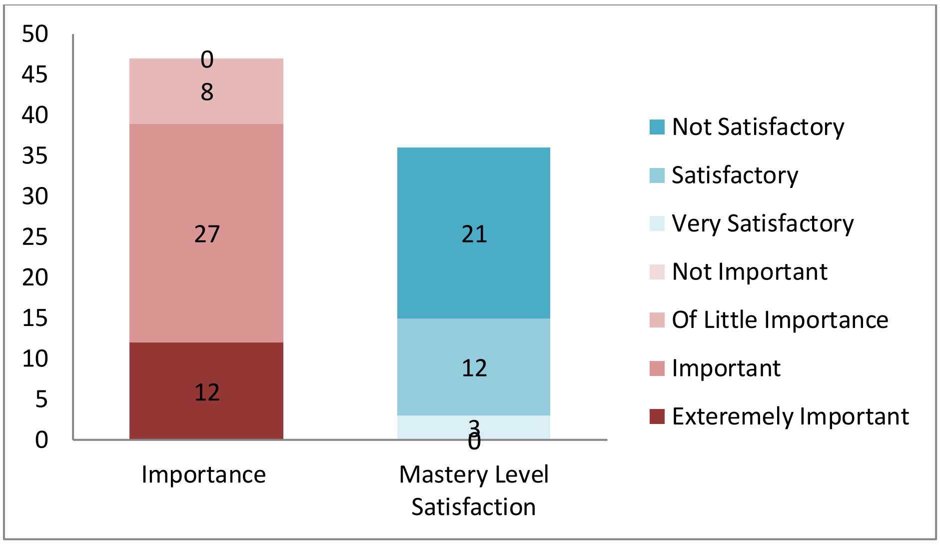


This was a repeated item, in other words, as explained in the previous chapter, and the result is quite similar to item 4.

Recommendation 5: Reading for details is of the same rank as scanning, as they reflect the same meaning and results.

Item 6: *Reading with the correct pronunciation*

Graph 4.10: Reading Section Item.6

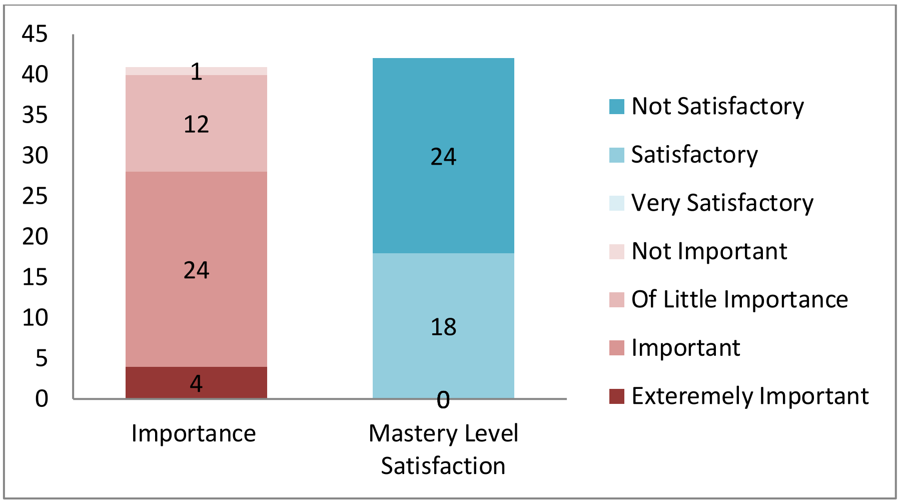


When we look at the numbers closely, it is clear that many participants aren't very happy with how well they read with correct pronunciation. They find it challenging. But interestingly, there are also some participants who do not see this skill as very important. However, overall, it appears to be important, as the data suggests.

Recommendation 6: Pronunciation comes right after skimming and scanning, referring to the numbers; the syllabus should contain more activities on pronunciation.

Item 7: *Reading for general meaning of non-technical texts*

Graph 4.11: Reading Section Item.7

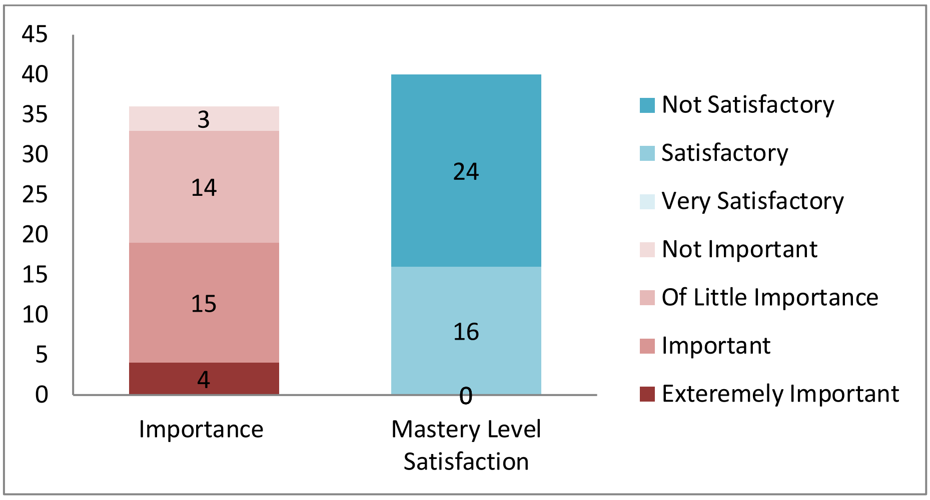


Many participants do not feel confident about their ability to understand non-technical texts for general purposes. What is noticeable is that quite a few of them do not see this skill as very important.

Recommendation 7: It would be prudent to allocate a certain degree of attention to general English proficiency while maintaining a careful balance with BE.

Item 8: *Reading to understand the writer view on a specific issue*

Graph 4.12: Reading Section Item.8



There is a linear relationship between the lack of importance and the dissatisfaction with mastery. The participants in this item express well that what is not important is not mastered.

Recommendation 8: There is no need to include reading to extract the point of view as it is expressed in the figure. What is important goes first, even if the level is low.

Item 9: *Reading a text using your own knowledge to understand what you do not know (read between the lines)*

Graph 4.13: Reading Section Item.9

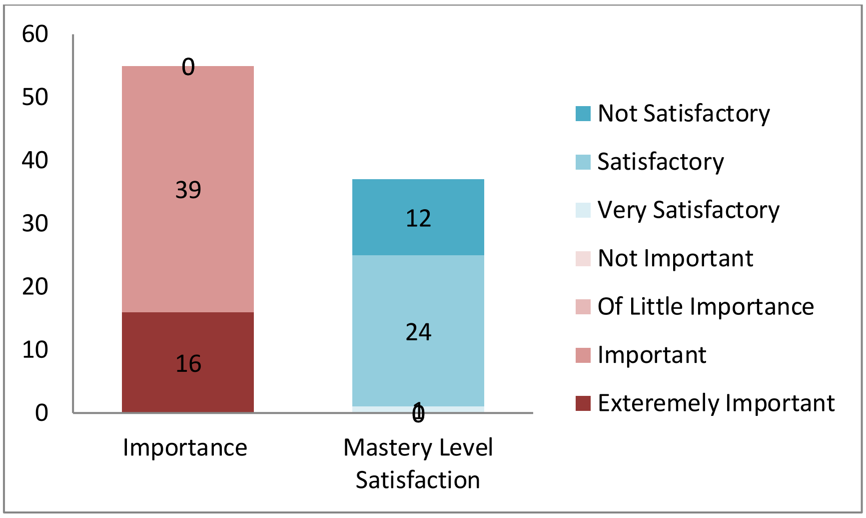
When we assess the importance of reading between the lines, it falls within the range of moderately important to not important, particularly when we group together the concepts of ‘little’ and ‘no importance’. However, what stands out significantly is the striking level of dissatisfaction among participants regarding this skill. Ultimately, our goal is to bridge the gap between participants’ perceived importance and their actual proficiency in reading between the lines, ensuring a more balanced and comprehensive skill set.

Recommendation 9: Reading between the lines is given low priority in the syllabus.

4.5.2.2 The Writing Section

Item 1: Realizing *diagrams, charts, graphs out of a given input.*

Graph 4.14: Writing Section Item.1

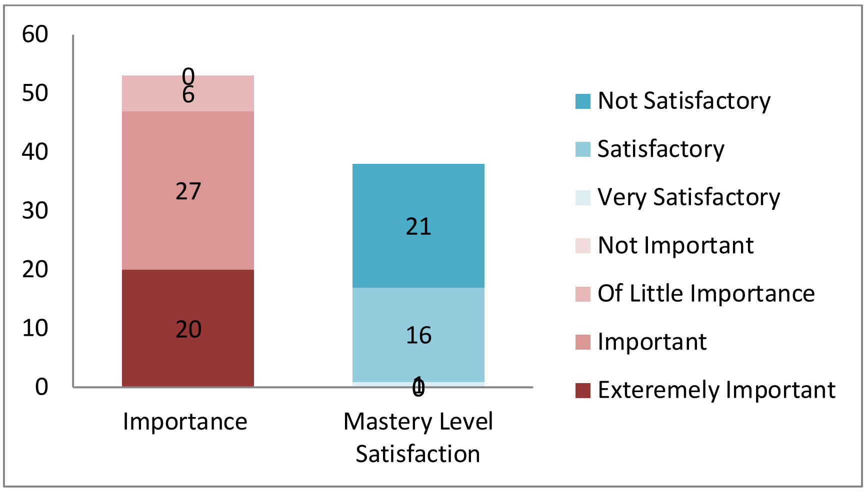


The figures show that it is important to create diagrams and charts, but at the same time, the majority is satisfied with their ability in this sub-skill. Some of them are not satisfied. There may be two reasons for that dissatisfaction; either they do not master “Excel” and have a technical background or they have difficulties interpreting the data in English. By providing support and training in areas such as technical proficiency and English data interpretation, we can aim to bridge the gap between perceived satisfaction and actual proficiency in creating diagrams and charts, ensuring a well-rounded skill set among all participants.

Recommendation 1: Incorporating the skill of creating graphs and charts from provided data should find a place within the curriculum without being the central focus.

Item 2 : *Using the appropriate terminology in your writings*

Graph 4.15: Writing Section Item.2

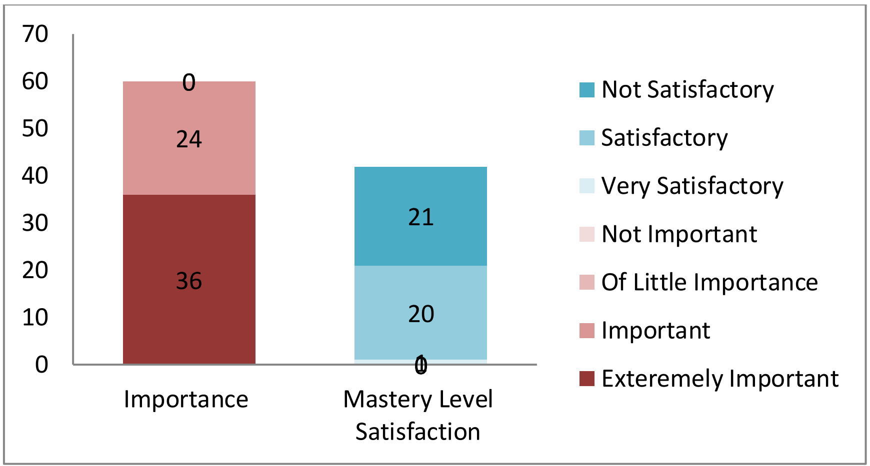


It is quite clear from the figures that the majority of participants are not satisfied with their ability to master the right terminology, even though they are content holders. But the number of those who are satisfied cannot be neglected. In terms of importance, it seems to be important to extremely important, which is quite logical.

Recommendation 2: The terminology should be focused on in the syllabus to respond to their needs.

Item 3: *Writing short texts (e-mails and reports)*

Graph 4.16: Writing Section Item.3

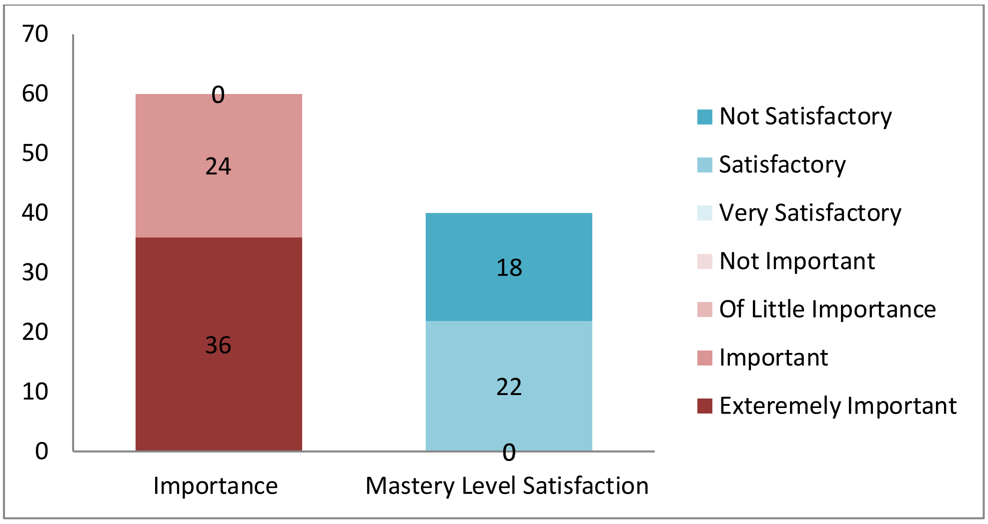


In terms of importance, the participants presume it is highly important to know how to write short paragraphs in English. But we notice a balance between the two elements 'satisfied' and 'not satisfied'; in such a case, we consider the lack of satisfaction to cover the need.

Recommendation 3: Writing short paragraphs is one of the priorities of the intended syllabus.

Item 4: *Stating problems and procedures*

Graph 4.17: Writing Section Item.4

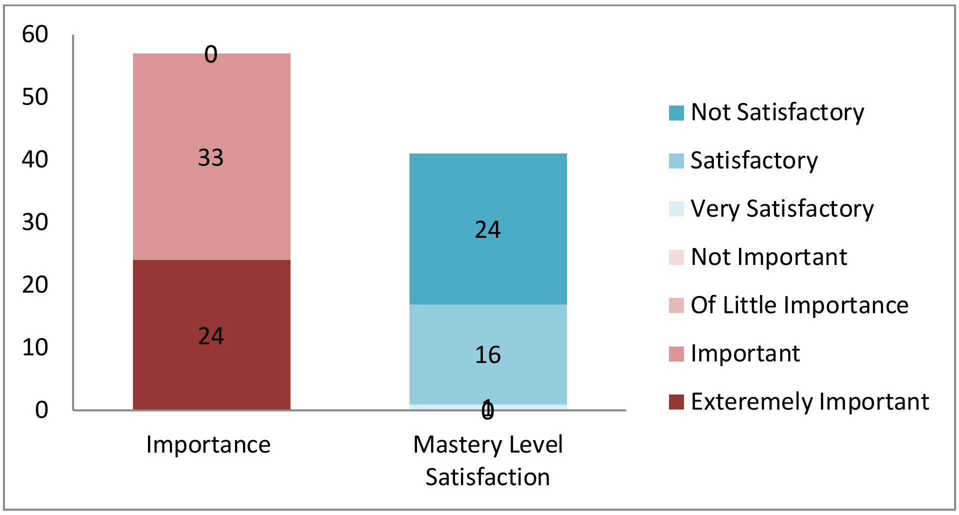


The ability to effectively articulate and state a problem is of paramount importance for the participants, as clearly shown by the data presented in the graph. It stresses the critical role this skill plays within the scope of their responsibilities. However, despite its acknowledged importance, the participants appear to possess an average level of proficiency in this particular sub-skill.

Recommendation 4: Stating problems is a balanced skill; it is intended to be included in the courses anyway for reinforcement.

Item 5: *Writing the interpretations and analysis from diagrams and charts.*

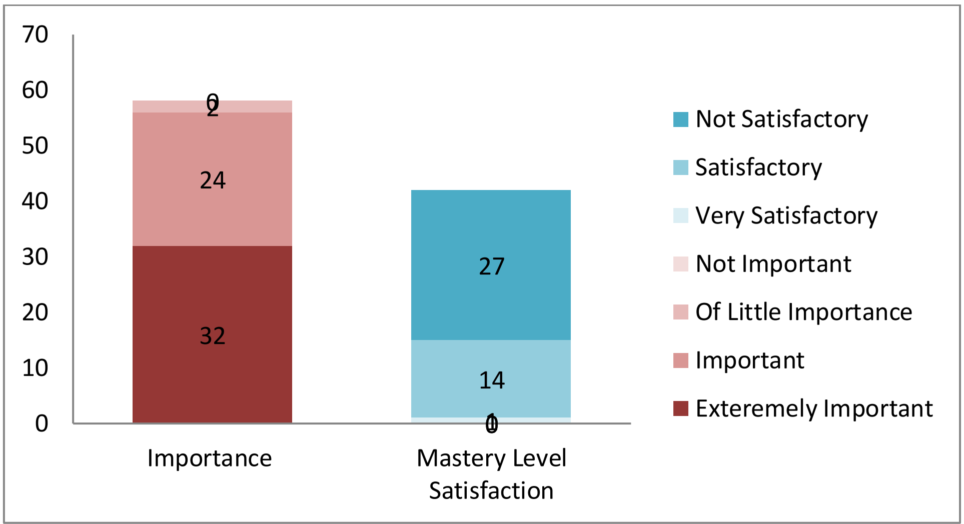
Graph 4.18: Writing Section Item.5



There is a general dissatisfaction with this sub-skill, which goes hand in hand with its general importance, this appeals to the integration of this sub-skill in the syllabus. **Recommendation 5: Activities concerning the interpretation of the graphs and charts are highly recommended.**

Item 6: *Expressing and arguing in writing your point of view about a subject.*

Graph 4.19: Writing Section Item.6

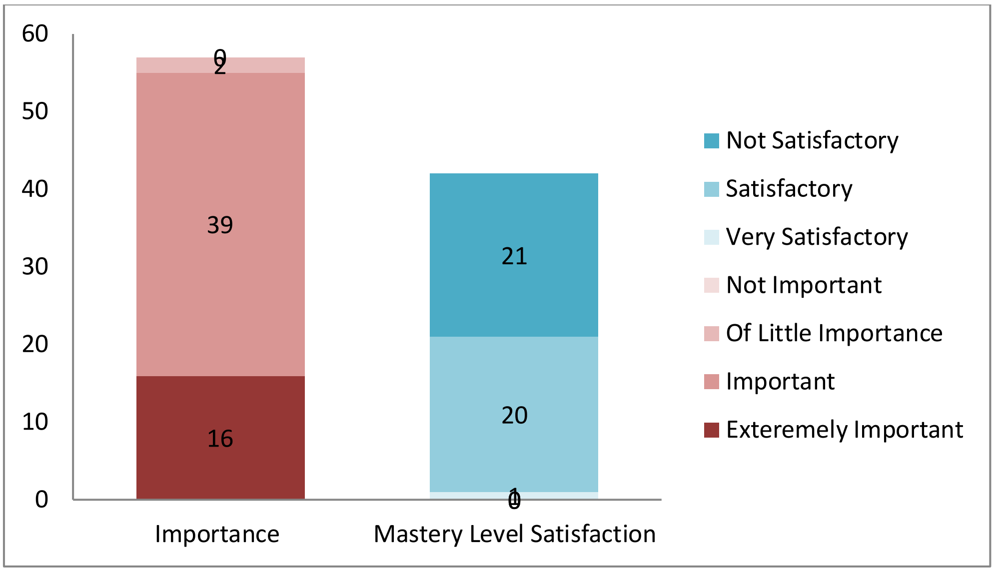


From the stated numbers, the item is extremely important; at the same time, there is a clear dissatisfaction, which gives the sub-skill a significant priority.

Recommendation 6: Arguing one's point of view is given priority in the syllabus

Item 7 : *Using the right techniques in writing a report e.g. organizing and summarizing.*

Graph 4.20: Writing Section Item 7



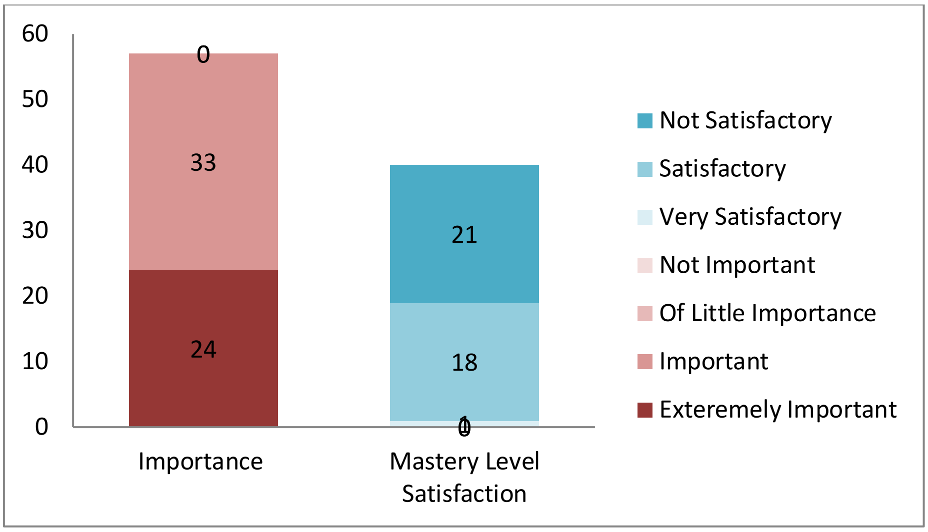
This skill appears to strike a balance between its perceived importance and participants' satisfaction levels. It is evident that participants value this skill, as they recognize its significance. Simultaneously, their satisfaction levels vary, ranging from 'satisfied' to 'not satisfied'.

This equilibrium between importance and satisfaction prompts us to delve into the nuances of participants' perceptions. The fact that they consider it important implies an understanding of its relevance to their tasks. However, the range of satisfaction levels suggests that some participants might feel more proficient than others in this skill.

Recommendation 7: While it may not call for intense focus, due consideration should be given to incorporating this particular sub-skill into the curriculum.

Item 8: *Note-taking from meetings, presentations*

Graph 4.21: Writing Section Item 8

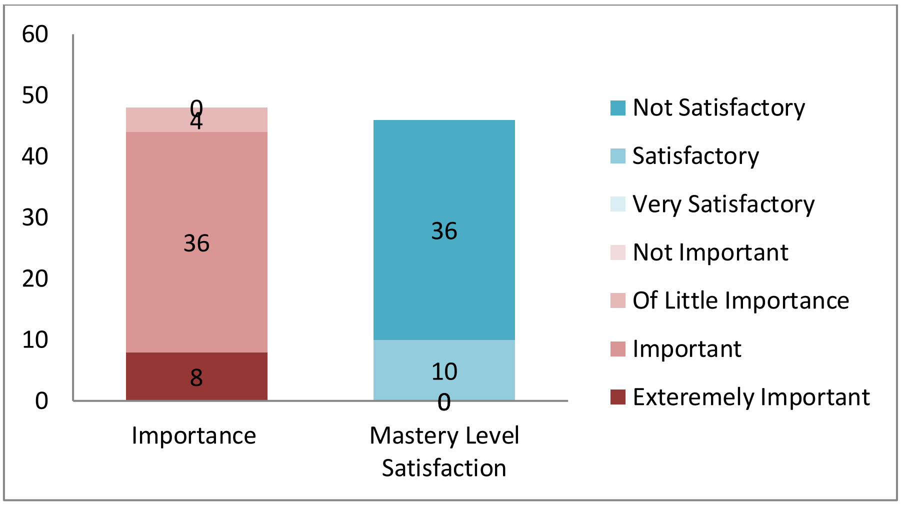


Similarly, this item is considered to be extremely important. In terms of satisfaction, the informants seem to be unsatisfied. We cannot deny that there is a number that reflects the satisfaction of some of the participants but is generally evaluated as not satisfactory.

Recommendation 8: Taking notes from meetings and presentations is given a priority to be focused on in the syllabus.

Item 9 : *Using the correct grammatical structures in writing e.g. e-mails*

Graph 4.22: Writing Section Item 9

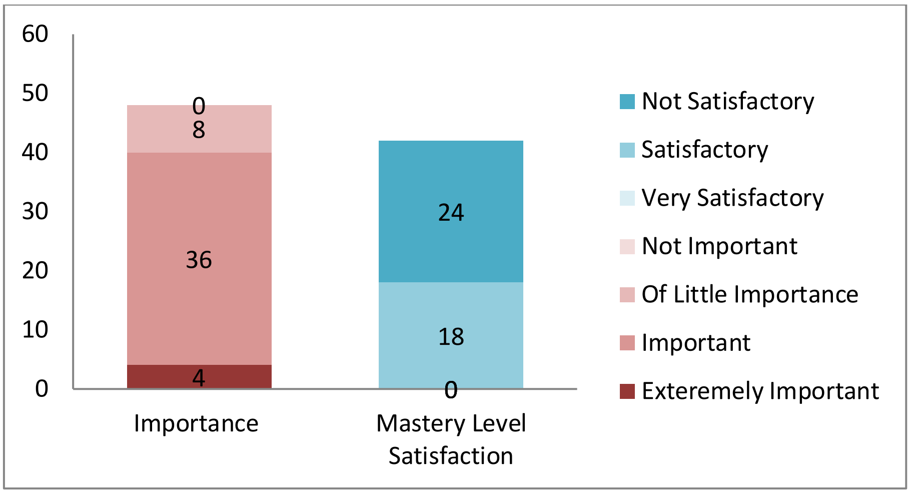


In the writing section, the participants' grammatical ability has been given the highest score for dissatisfaction, even though it is actually important. The grammar is basic in GE as well as in BE. This fact is confirmed by the figures.

Recommendation 9: Grammar should be a pillar of the syllabus.

Item 10: *Using abbreviations in your note-taking or e-mails*

Graph 4.23: Writing Section Item 10



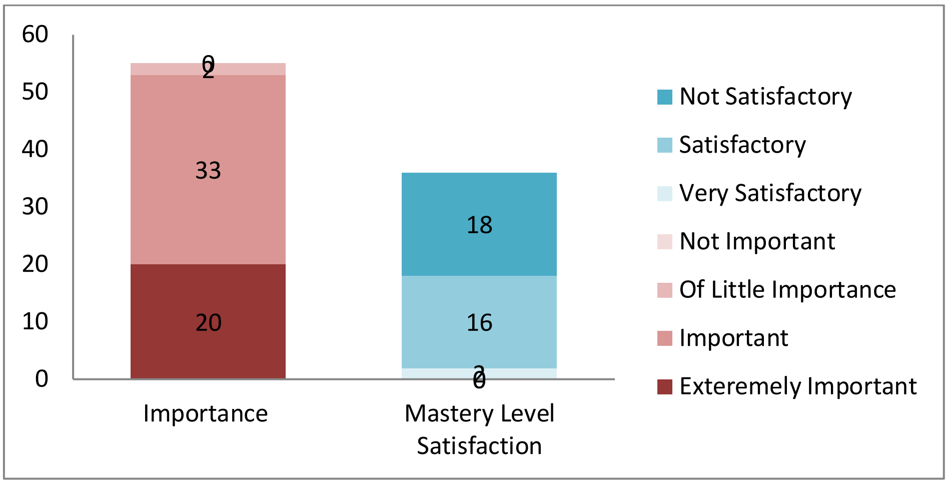
The figures shown are regarded as surprising; they are important as the majority of the skills, but there is dissatisfaction in terms of mastery of abbreviations, which is not usual within the technical domain. From the researcher's point of view, this does not reflect anything but weakness in the technical English.

Recommendation 10: The mastery of technical abbreviations is highly recommended and given an important place together with the previous analyzed skill concerning terminology.

4.5.2.3 The Listening Section

Item 1 : *Understand meanings from intonation and stress e.g. the difference between the questions and exclamations.*

Graph 4.24: Listening Section Item 1

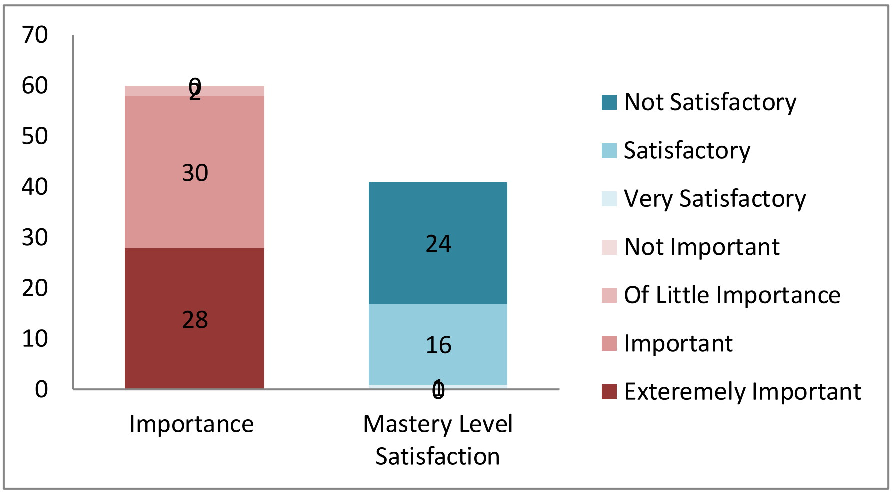


We notice from the above figures that this sub-skill is important, but in the meantime, they are not satisfied with their level. Although we cannot deny that there is a noticeable section that is satisfied.

Recommendation 1: An exercise in intonation is required in each lesson to go hand in hand with the grammar and vocabulary.

Item 2: *Understanding English technical conversation between native speakers*

Graph 4.25: Listening Section Item 2

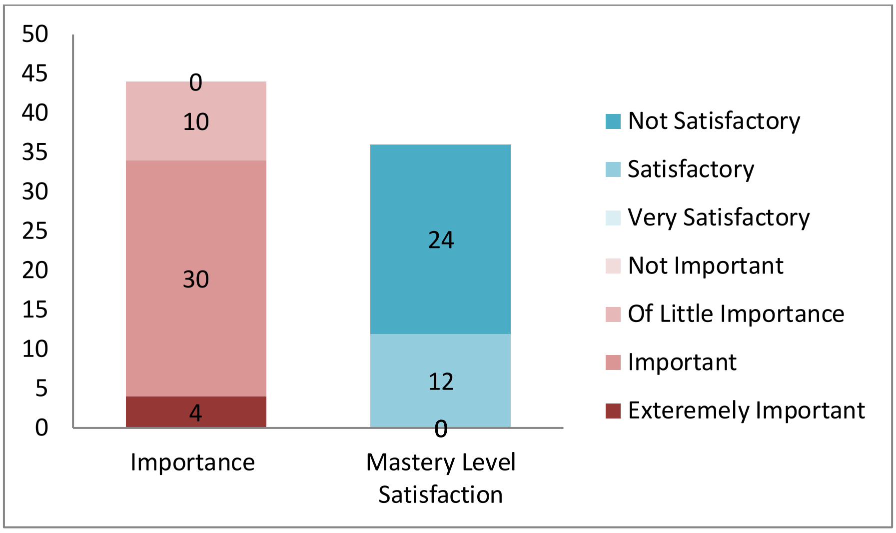


There is a noticeable dissatisfaction with understanding the natives when they speak with each other; they also perceive it as important or extremely important. This is maybe due to the adapted speed and the lack of articulation because the natives speak spontaneously with each other.

Recommendation 2: It may be beneficial to include listening tapes in the lessons in a continuous way.

Item 3: *Understanding a non-technical English conversation between native speakers.*

Graph 4.26: Listening Section Item.3

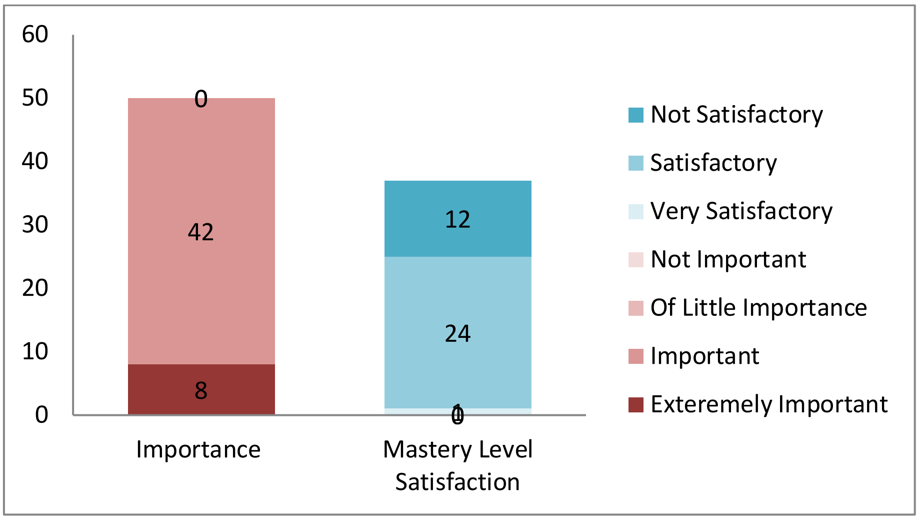


It is obvious from the numbers that there is dissatisfaction when it comes to natives' discussions in general. From the previous analysis and the one above, we assume that the participants have a problem decoding all that is said between the natives, whether the topic is technical or general.

Recommendation 3: Diversify the topics from general to technical

Item 4: *Understanding a conversation in English between native and non-native speakers.*

Graph 4.27: Listening Section Item.4

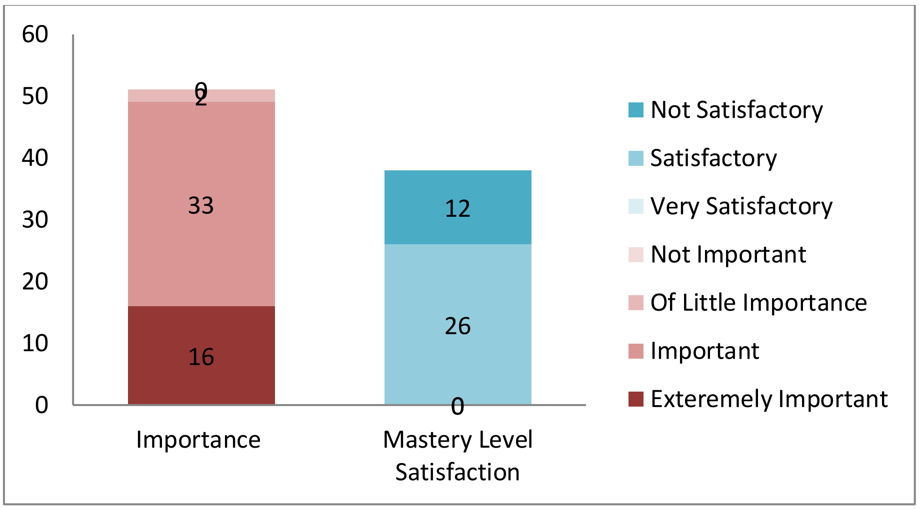


As predicted, the informants find it easy to understand a discussion between a native and a non-native, which is important as well. The reason is that the articulation and speed are most of the time adapted to the capacities of a non-native speaker.

Recommendation 4: No recommendation is given

Item 5: *Understanding an English native speaker in face to face situation*

Graph 4.28: Listening Section Item.5

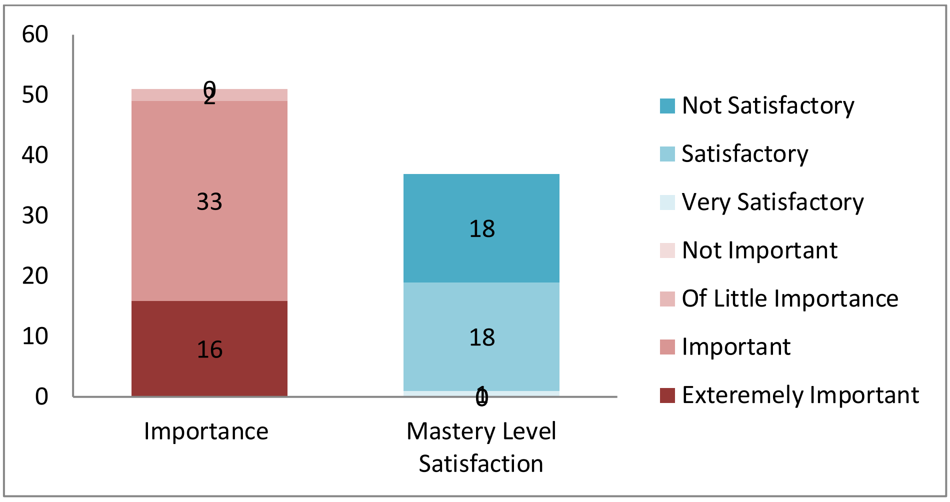


The analysis shows reflects the importance of the skill and at the same time reflects the general satisfaction in terms of mastery level. This pours in the same meaning of discussion between a non-native and a native speaker.

Recommendation 5: No recommendation is given

Item 6: Understanding Non-native speakers in face to face situation

Graph 4.29: Listening Section Item.6

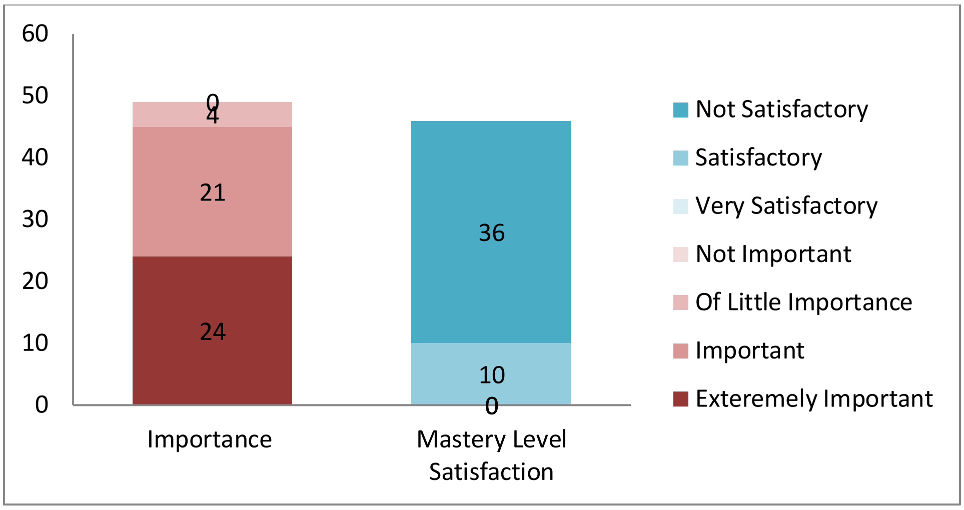


We notice that the sub-skill is important and that there are balanced views between satisfaction and no satisfaction. We presume there is general dissatisfaction. Even though it is about non-native speakers, half the participants find difficulties in understanding the non-native speakers of English. This could be explained by the fact that the pronunciation is not correct and then by the cultural aspect that may play a role here.

Recommendation 6: The cultural aspect should be included whenever needed in the lessons.

Item 7: *Understanding native speakers on the telephone*

Graph 4.30: Listening Section Item.7



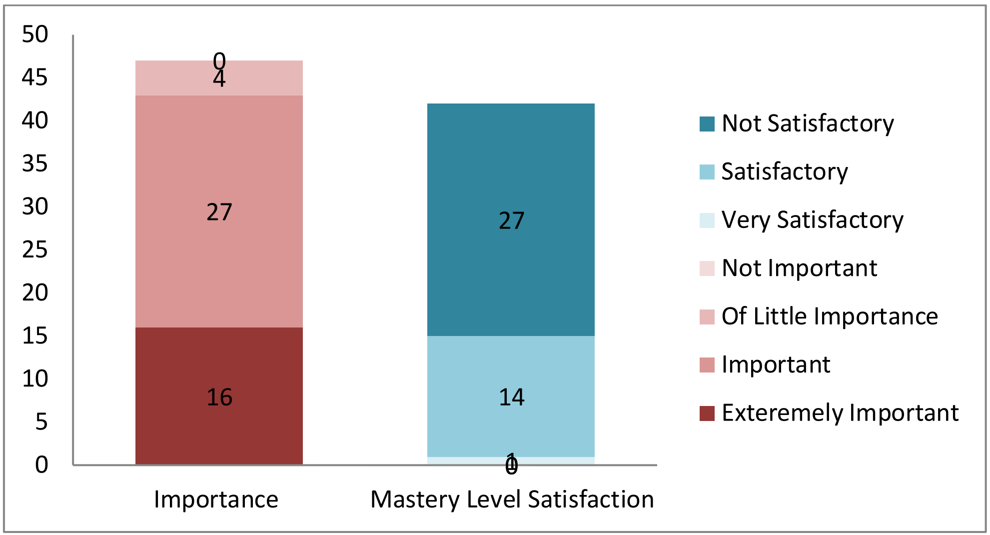
The figures present a notable contrast when it comes to the mastery level of this skill. On one hand, there is substantial dissatisfaction among the participants. They seem to find it challenging to achieve a high level of proficiency in this aspect. On the other hand, the data also underscores the extreme importance of this skill.

Listening to a native speaker over the phone appears to pose a tangible challenge for the participants. This challenge might encompass various elements, such as understanding accents, rapid speech, or even dealing with potential communication barriers that can arise during phone conversations. By addressing these challenges, we can help participants bridge the gap between their current proficiency and the high importance of this skill, ultimately enhancing their ability to communicate effectively with native speakers over the phone.

Recommendation 7: Priority is given to the terms and abbreviations during phone conversations.

Item 8: *Understanding Non-native speakers on the telephone*

Graph 4.31: Listening Section Item.8

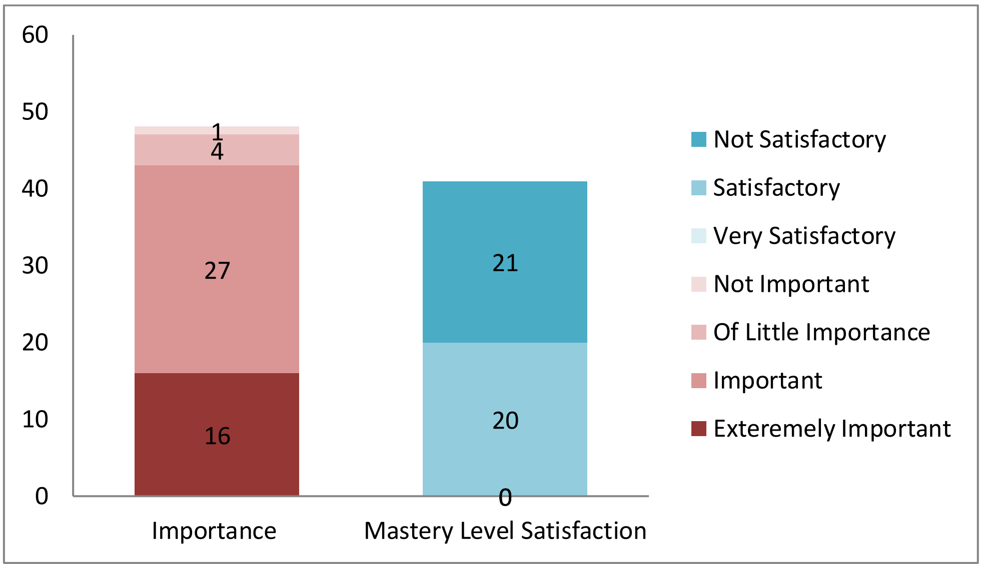


Like item 7, item 8 is considered important, but in the meantime, there is a noticeable dissatisfaction among the participants. We conclude that listening to non-natives on the phone is as challenging as listening to natives.

Recommendation 8: Activities for listening on the phone are given high priority

Item 9: *Understanding technical information from audio-visual sources, e.g., power point and videos.*

Graph 4.32: Listening Section Item.9

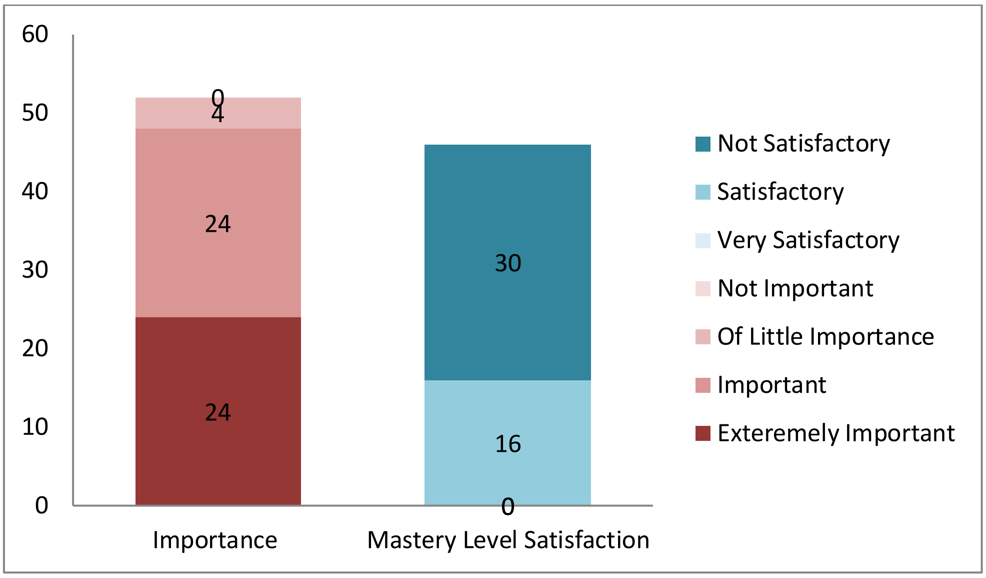


There is a balance between the two elements 'satisfied' and 'dissatisfied', which leads us to consider this element to be less important in the ranking.

Recommendation 9: no recommendation is given

Item 10: *Understanding a technical presentation and taking notes.*

Graph 4.33: Listening Section Item.10



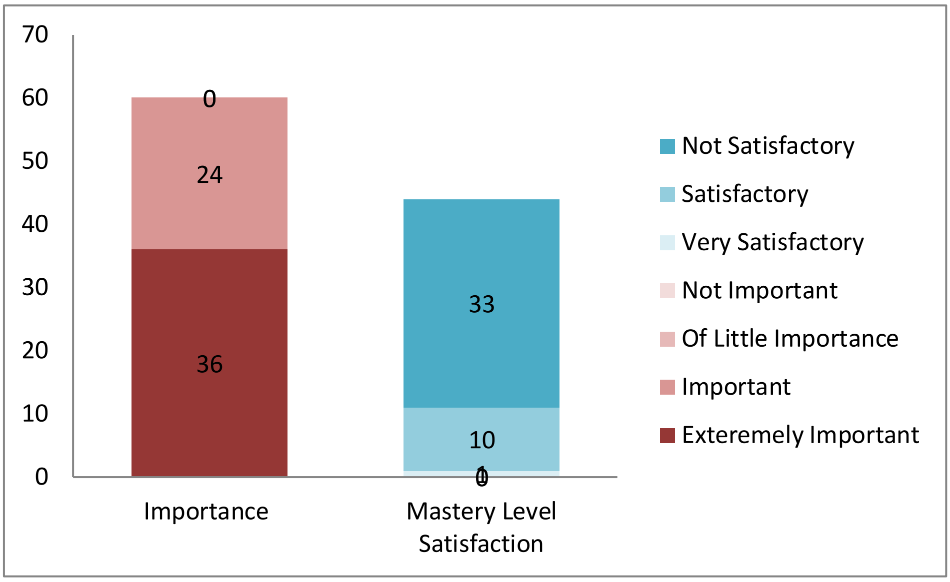
24 points are measured for both 'important' and 'extremely important', which reflects the priority the participants give to understanding presentations. At the same time, there are 34 points as a higher score given to a sub-skill in listening.

Recommendation 10: Activities for presentations should be focused on to enhance practice.

4.5.2.4 The Speaking Section

Item 1: *Participating in meetings in English*

Graph 4.34: Speaking Section Item.1

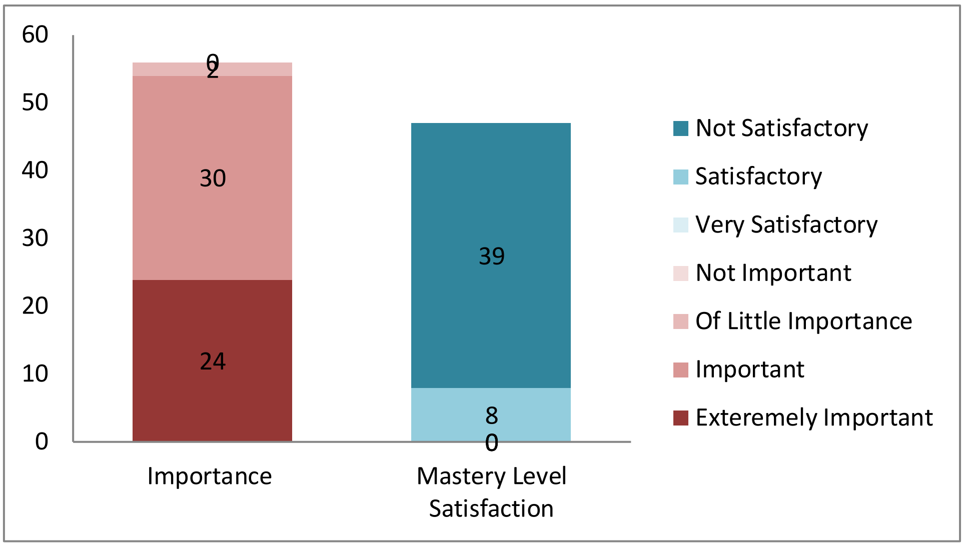


We notice that participation in meetings is highly significant for the participants. However, there is a notable level of dissatisfaction among them regarding their ability to communicate effectively in English during these meetings. This suggests that while participants value participation, language proficiency, particularly in English, may be a barrier to their effective engagement in meetings. Understanding this dynamic is crucial. It highlights the need for support and development in language skills, particularly in English, to empower participants to actively contribute and engage in meetings more effectively. By addressing this barrier, we can enhance their overall participation experience and ensure that language proficiency does not retard their valuable contributions in a professional context.

.Recommendation 1: Higher priority is given to the Business skill 'participating in meetings'.

Item 2: *Knowing the techniques of interrupting and showing disagreement on a subject*

Graph 4.35: Speaking Section Item.2

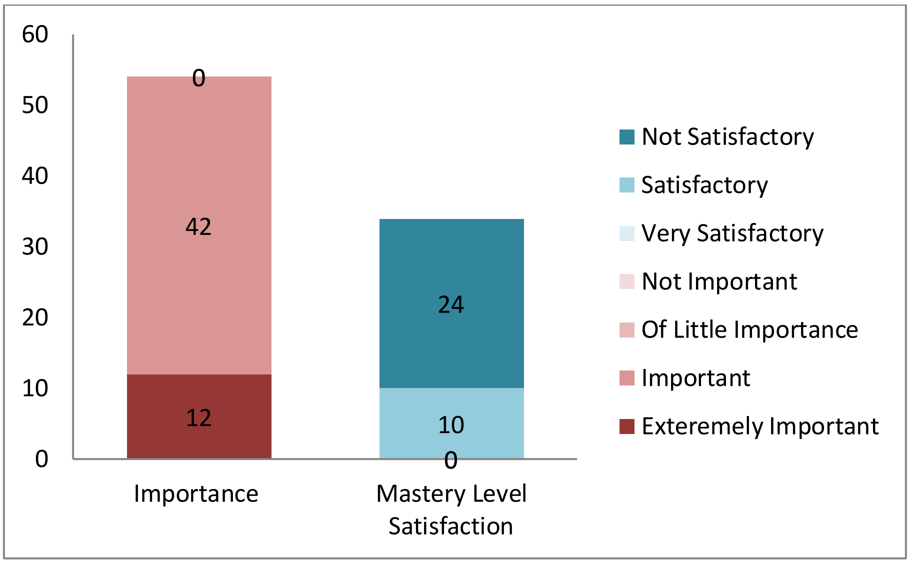


Knowing the technique to interrupt in meetings receives less satisfaction in terms of mastery, even though it is rated very important. From the researcher's point of view, this could be the result of ignoring the business meeting skills techniques.

Recommendation 2: Strategies of interruption in meetings should be focused on.

Item 3: Discuss informally with native colleagues

Graph 4.36: Speaking Section Item.3

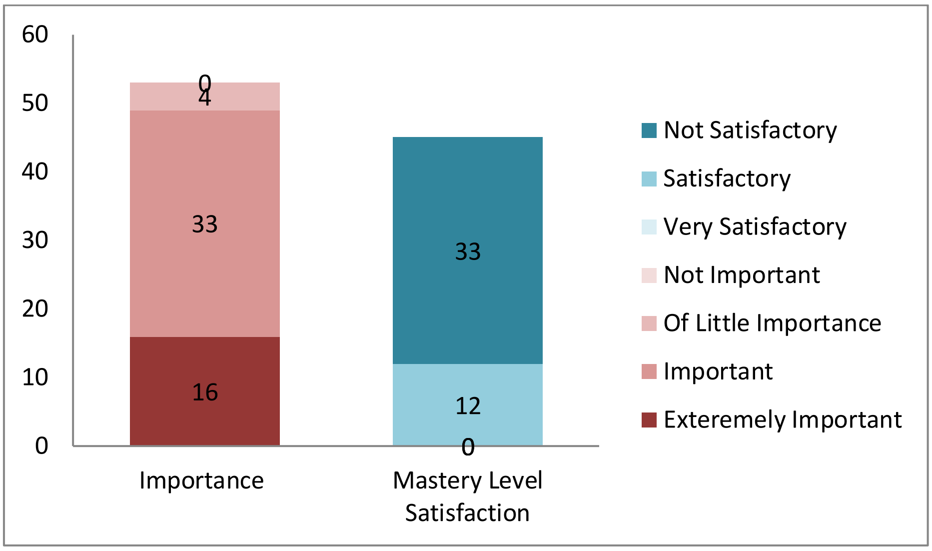


Speaking informally to socialize is rated as important; on the other hand, there is general dissatisfaction among the informants. This means they estimate themselves as not being good enough in general English for socializing.

Recommendation 3: There is a need to entail general English used for small talks in-company.

Item 4: *Maintain discussions in English*

Graph 4.37: Speaking Section Item.4

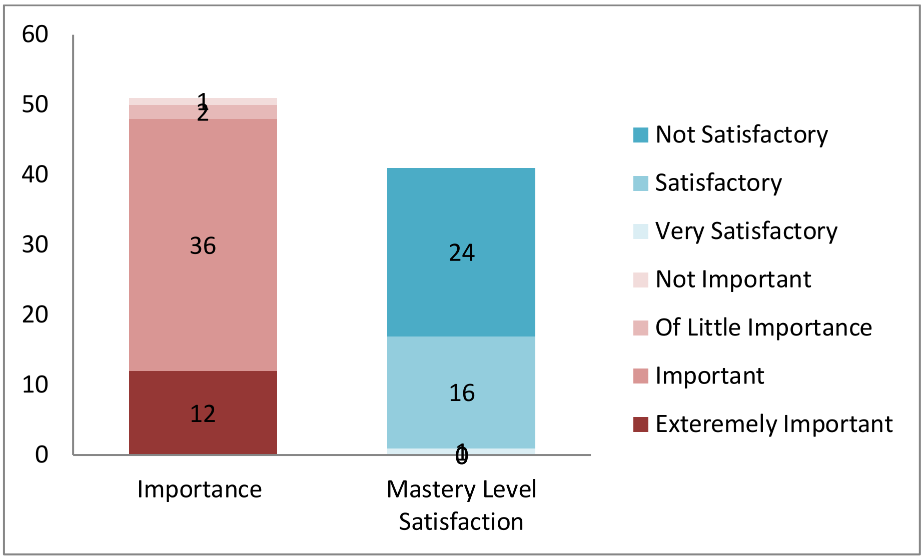


Based on the feedback from the informants, it becomes evident that the skill of "maintaining discussions" is perceived as quite challenging. The ratings they have provided clearly reflect their discontent with this aspect of communication. They appear to encounter difficulties when it comes to keeping discussions going smoothly. The informants also attribute a high level of importance to this skill. This implies that they recognize the significance of being able to sustain discussions effectively. This situation suggests the need for targeted support and training to enhance their ability to maintain discussions.

Recommendation 4: Maintaining discussions is an important sub-skill to be included.

Item 5: *Awareness about the difference of cultures and respecting them*

Graph 4.38: Speaking Section Item.5

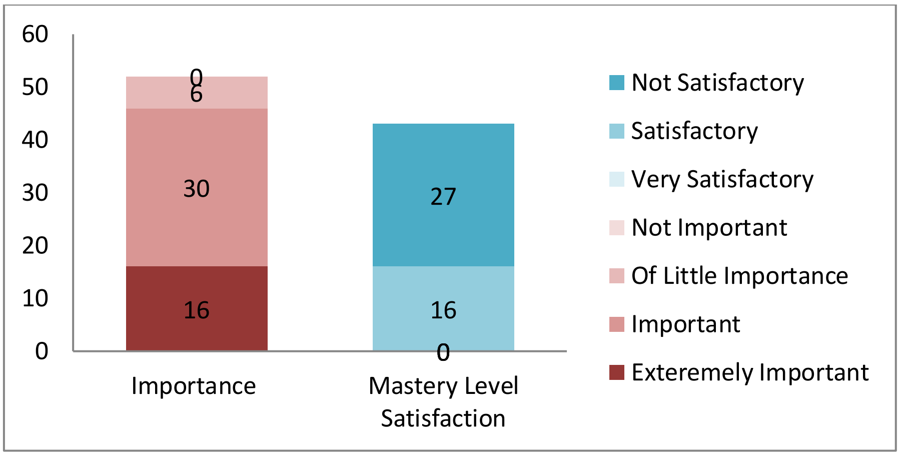


Similarly, the cultural aspect of speaking seems to have an important place at the workplace, and we notice a general dissatisfaction; the participants seem to have a weak cultural awareness.

Recommendation 5: Cultural awareness is strongly needed in the speaking skill

Item 6: *Being understood when speaking English on the phone*

Graph 4.39: Speaking Section Item.6

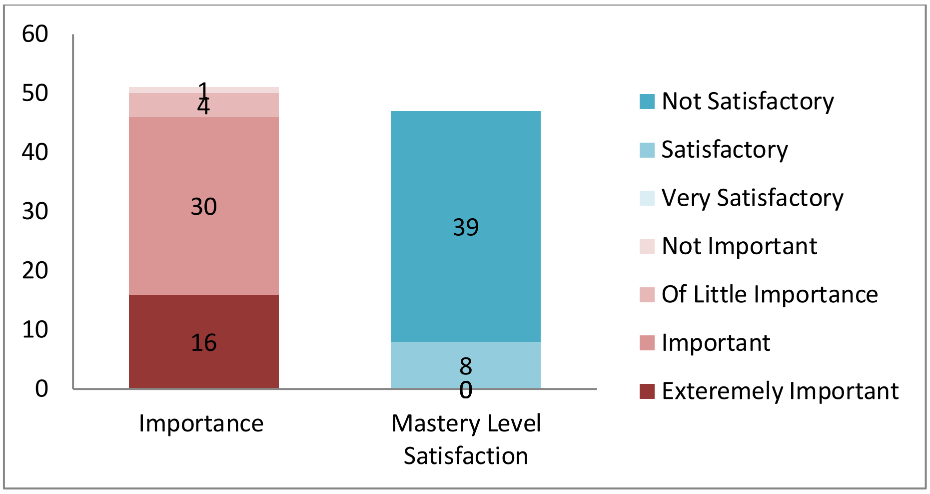


Although it is rated as important, the participants think they are not that good when speaking on the phone. This could be analyzed as follows; they lack the techniques used on the phone and the appropriate expressions to transmit the message efficiently.

Recommendation 6: Focus on telephone strategies that are comprehensible.

Item 7: *Presenting a well-organized technical presentation*

Graph 4.40: Speaking Section Item.7



Only a small minority of individuals express satisfaction with their presentations, while the vast majority is dissatisfied with their performance in this regard. In terms of significance and relevance, the act of delivering presentations is considered highly important within the context being discussed. Upon closer examination, the researcher's analysis of this phenomenon points to a clear deficiency in the participants' presentation strategies. It becomes evident that a considerable portion of these individuals lack comprehensive and effective strategies when it comes to crafting and delivering their presentations, which may contribute to the prevalent dissatisfaction among them. This underscores the need for further investigation and potential intervention to help individuals develop more robust presentation skills and strategies.

Recommendation 7: Presentation strategies are highly prioritized in the syllabus.

Item 8: *The ability to attract the audience when speaking in presentations*

Graph 4.41: Speaking Section Item.8

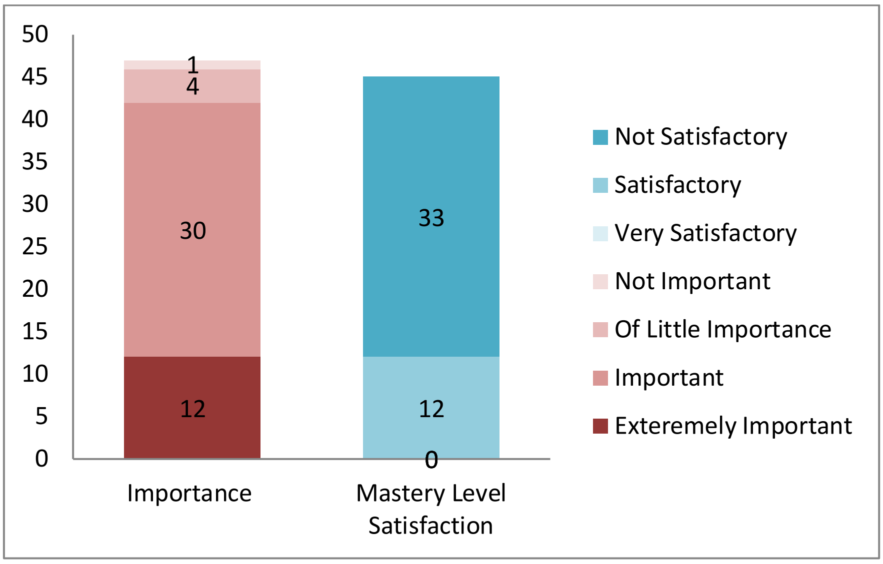
Among the various aspects evaluated in the assessment of speaking skills at the mastery level, it is noteworthy that the most pronounced degree of dissatisfaction is observed in the category of ‘attracting the audience in presentations’ This particular skill is undeniably crucial, especially in the context of business presentations, where the ability to captivate and engage an audience holds significant importance.

This finding underscores the need for a comprehensive reassessment of training methodologies and a potential shift towards more targeted approaches to enhance audience engagement skills. Therefore, a concerted effort towards improving strategies for attracting and captivating audiences during presentations should be a central focus in any future initiatives aimed at enhancing speaking skills within the mastery level.

Recommendation 8: ‘Attracting the audience’ is ranked first in presentations

Item 9: *Concluding your presentations and your points of view in general*

Graph 4.42: Speaking Section Item.9



A total of 30 points have been allocated to the category labeled ‘important’, while 33 points have been assigned to the category ‘not satisfied’. This discrepancy indicates a notable deficit in summarizing skills among the informants. The ability to distill information and convey it concisely is a valuable asset in a professional setting, often saving time and enhancing efficiency.

However, it is evident that the respondents are expressing dissatisfaction in this regard. This misalignment between the perceived importance of brevity and the reported dissatisfaction underscores the need for targeted training and development in summarization and communication efficiency.

Recommendation 9: The acquisition of summarization skills is essential to seamlessly integrating them with other competencies during various exercises.

4.6 Adapting the Content, the Approach, and the Timing

It is important to design a syllabus that fits the engineers’ needs at the workplace (JV), but it is even more important to keep evaluating and adjusting this syllabus during the learning process. We can never assume that one syllabus is 100 percent relevant to a given case. Any syllabus can respond to the extracted needs from the analysis; however, other needs and lacks may trigger during the learning process, and it is up to the BE practitioner to detect, evaluate, and modify the syllabus for a better learning experience.

The goal of the syllabus is to match the engineers' needs in terms of language and business skills in their area of work. Thus, the syllabus must first target their specific field, which is gas and oil, while addressing the four language skills and the sub-skills accordingly. In the second place, it must target the needed language and the business skills needed based on the obtained results. Lastly, the syllabus has to take into consideration the learners' time availability, as explained in the previous chapter.

4.6.1 Adapting the Content

In our case, the different language skills have been identified throughout the different Needs Analyses held in this research. Based on the investigation described in the previous chapters, the extracted recommendations from the analyses and comparisons of the informants' responses shall be summarized in the following points following the ranking results:

(a) Speaking

The aim of the lessons is to develop effective communication with reasonable accuracy. From the previous recommendations, the speaking skill has been given the first priority among the other language skills; the lessons should focus on the following items, respectively, from the highly needed to the less needed:

- Delivering presentations: 1) attracting the audience 2) presentation strategies
- Cultural awareness
- Participating in meetings: 1) strategies of interruption 2) maintaining discussions
- Telephone strategies
- Handling small talks
- Techniques of summarizing

(b) Listening

In listening, all the sub-skills are important. As concluded from the analysis and the recommendations in the previous chapter, all the sub-skills are important. The ranking, though, is organized in terms of priority. The lessons should develop these sub-skills by exposing them to a variety of tapes that meet these ends, respectively.

- Understanding non-native and native speakers on the telephone
- Understanding a technical presentation and taking notes.
- Understanding the meaning of intonations.
- Cultural awareness.

In the speaking and listening skills, we notice the need for business skills more than any other aspect of language. When it comes to the writing skill, the focus is more on grammar and technical vocabulary, while the reading skill is more about the strategies of reading.

(c) Writing

In the writing skill, the sub-skills have been divided into two categories as well: the first that entails the highly prioritized ones and the ones given less to no need to the lessons. The first category is as follows:

- Writing short texts (e-mails and reports)
- Writing the interpretations and analyses from diagrams and charts
- Using the correct grammatical structures in writing
- Using the appropriate terminology, the technical vocabulary (content-related)
- Using the correct abbreviations (content-related)

The second category contains sub-skills that need less emphasis:

- Expressing and arguing in writing a point of view about a subject.
- Note taking
- Stating problems and procedures
- Creating diagrams and charts

The main focus in writing should be on grammar and technical lexis in order to reinforce their mastery of grammatical rules and build up their confidence in the use of subject-related terminology

(d) Reading

In order to construct the needed reading strategies, the sub-skills in reading should be presented in two categories: those that are highly needed in the syllabus and those that are given less importance. The first category includes the following:

- Skimming texts to get a general view of the text
- Scanning texts to look for specific details or information
- The correct pronunciation and articulation of words in order to avoid misunderstanding and confusion for the hearer.
- Reading written instructions for a technical operation
- Interpreting technical information shown in graphs, charts, diagrams, etc.

The second category that requires less emphasis is:

- Reading a text using your own knowledge to understand what you do not know (reading between the lines)
- Reading non-technical texts

The lessons should include the sub-skills of the first category gradually, from simple to difficult, respecting the subject specificity. These sub-skills will enable the learners to achieve a confident level of reading.

At this level, the researcher sets the subject area (the technical hydrocarbon sector) and the structure of the syllabus deduced from the obtained ranking of skills and sub-skills. The following step is how to teach or what procedure or methodology to adapt.

4.6.2 Adapting the Approach

In the case of business English, the main target is to communicate effectively in the real world. "The kind of practice the learner gets is also important. The basic fabric of a Business English course should be tasks which stimulate those of the learner's real situation as closely as possible." (Ellis and Johnson, 1994: 39) Some examples of these tasks can be asking the learners to describe their product or compare two products, or asking them to prepare a presentation on the achieved goals of company X, or asking them to prepare an urgent meeting on the plant, etc. The selection of the appropriate task depends on the job description and the needs of the learners. The task-based approach seems to be the most appropriate for Business English since it "enables the teachers to cover the needs of the business English learners in terms of communication and enables the learners to participate and be integrated in the learning process; this maximizes the chances to succeed in learning business English." (Zineb Chaalane, 2014: 27).

The current syllabus is evidently content-based because it directly pertains to the subject area of the learners. However, the primary approach chosen for this syllabus is the task-based approach. Under this approach, the syllabus will be structured around a set of tasks provided at the conclusion of each lesson or unit, each focusing on one or more sub-skills. These tasks will collectively comprise a sequence of well-organized activities, each emphasizing a specific business skill. Additionally, the intended syllabus adheres to the integrated-skills approach, where language skills are taught in conjunction with one another.

4.6.3 Time Scale Considerations

Based on the determined contents, structure, and procedure, the intended syllabus is a set of examples that are developed; adapted, modified, and/or created for each business language skill individually. The following discussions present the researcher’s attempt to design a set of lessons that respond directly to the participants' investigated needs within a short period of time, taking into consideration the teaching approach to be implemented, which is the Task-based approach.

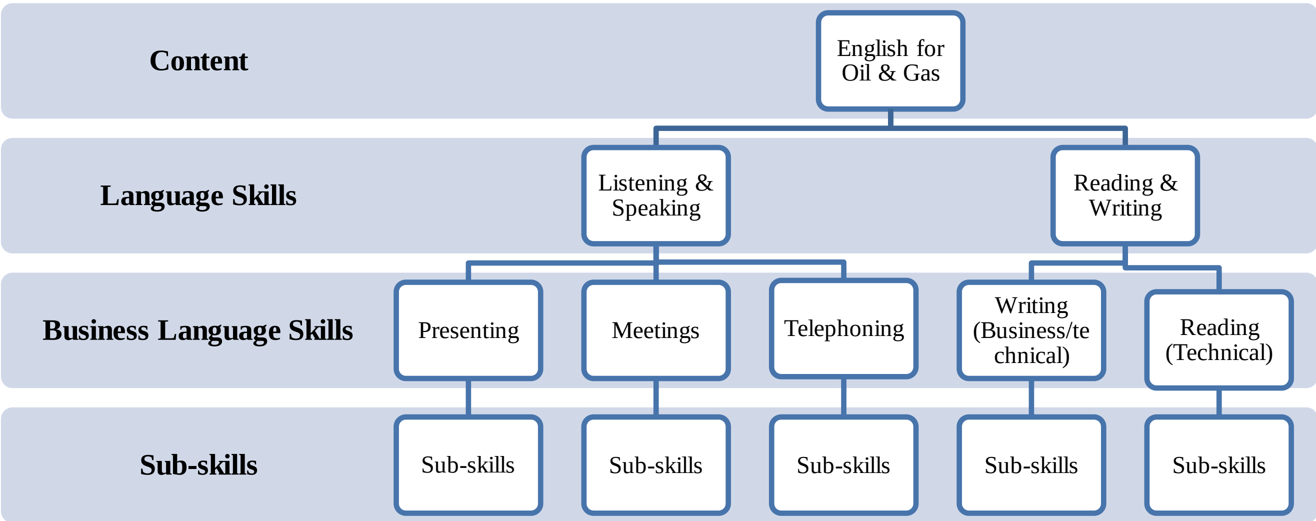
The syllabus is constructed upon units or lessons; each unit represents a sub-skill or a combination of two sub-skills. There is no sequence to the contents, as each unit represents a situation by itself. The learners, thus, can take a lesson separately from the other lessons without any confusion or distortion of the learning process. This is to respond to the fact that the engineers cannot always attend the class because they are rigidly tied to their work schedules and emergencies. If the learner attends one lesson and skips two others, this will definitely not confuse him or her, as one will find oneself dealing with a sub-skill in isolation from other skills. One unit lasts for one hour and is allocated for two units per week. The unit is set to be short with great concentration on the given task.

4.7 Presenting the Syllabus

This syllabus is a set of lessons meant for gas and oil workers targeting business language skills: meetings, presentations, telephoning, writing, and reading in the gas and oil sectors. Different categories of lessons are organized under the umbrella of "gas and oil," as shown in figure 4.2. It is a mixture between business language skills and technical content; the latter manifests clearly, especially in reading and writing. In short, the general aims of the syllabus are:

- **OIL AND GAS TERMINOLOGY**: the content covers different areas such as exploitation, refining, work hazards, equipment, etc.
- **BUSINESS LANGUAGE** in all its skills, such as meetings, telephoning, presenting, and some general English to socialize, including all the needed sub-skills

Figure 4.2. The Intended Syllabus Framework



Each business language skill consists of units that are taught separately; at the end of each business language skill, the learner will be able to master all the sub-skills within each business language skill. The integration of the other language skills is important for the learning process, as no skill can be learned in isolation.

4.7.1 Presentations

The very first language skill placed in the first place within our syllabus is speaking. We notice that delivering presentations is ranked first in terms of business skills. Participants lack the strategies and appropriate techniques needed to produce an effective presentation. No training in this skill is provided within the English courses in the JV; however, it is needed for their daily presentations, HSE weekly presentations, and monthly presentations as well. Presentations are important for a concise and effective talk; attracting the audience is one of them. The latter has been given first priority among the participants. To this end, body language, including the cultural aspect, has a larger role in presentations. According to Borg (2009:2), "being able to read the body language (or non-verbal) of others allows you to modify and shape your message based on receiving of subtle positive or negative signals during your interaction." Speaking about interactions, Rosa Giménez Moreno (2010:159) emphasizes the role of active listening that goes simultaneously with speaking; he claims that active listening incorporates non-verbal communication;

> In spoken interaction the participants have a dual role, as speakers and listeners who interact actively in order to get the message across and who make use of their listening (receptive) and Speaking (productive) skills in an almost simultaneous way. In order to acquire the skills to process the information accurately and react to it appropriately, learners must be trained in listening to different accents, rhythm and intonation. In short, they require 'active listening' active listening incorporates non-verbal communication, and verbal communication emphasizing the importance of the former and the cultural aspect of it.

As far as the units are concerned, as mentioned earlier, the units can be taught separately with no impact on the learning process. Coming to the organization of the tasks, they are set according to the logical sequence of the presentation, i.e., from the starting point, which is the introduction, to the concluding points and receiving questions. Some recommendations are proposed at this level:

- The teacher here is recommended to focus on the cultural aspect of each unit in a direct or indirect way
- Rehearsal is a key element in class sessions for every single learner
- Focus on eye contact and body language is required
- Relevant hints are given to help the participants cope with their anxiety on stage (Stephen Lucas, 2012)

The focus on these points all throughout the lessons is assumed to be effective because it prioritizes the autonomy of the learners and pushes them to bring their authentic experience to the class and vice versa. In the case of presentations, the focus is on the learner, and rehearsal is the strongest tool for effectiveness. The following table is an illustration of the whole proposed syllabus on presentation skills.

Table 4.3. 'Presentation Skills' Contents[42]

Unit	Topic	Function	Language	Task
1	**Starting a task**	• Make good introduction[43] • State the topic and the purpose	• Language to introduce yourself • Present simple and present continuous	Presenting your company
2	**Organize a talk**	• Outline the talk • Limit the time of the talk	• Lexical phrases	Presenting new equipment.
3	**Speaking from figures**	• Describing chart and graphs	• Vocabulary	Reporting HSE figures.
4	**Visuals**	• Referring to visuals	• Vocabulary • Passive and active voice	Presenting to purchase new equipment or chemical product.
5	**Concluding**	• Summarize	• Using adverb to emphasize	Giving information about

[42] The construction of the table is taken from (Chaalane, 2014: 85) adapted and selected from different sources: (Goldwich, D. Kickass Business Presentations: How To Persuade Your Audience Every Time. Singapore: Goldwich, 2013), (Comfort, J. Effective Presentations. Oxford: OUP, 1995), (Lucas, S. The Art of Public Speaking. NY: McGraw, 2012) Frendo, E. and D. Bonamy. English for Oil and Gas. England: Pearson, 2012.

[43] The cultural awareness is part of this unit: How to start in harmony with the audience.

		the talk	and minimize the talk • Language to sum up	a process.
6	**Handling questions**	• Invite questions	• Ask and answer questions	Presenting a plant issue.

4.7.2 Meetings

Most of the business skills or techniques are addressed in these units in a coherent sequence. Yet, the absence of any of the skills won't affect the learning of the others.

The teacher should follow some relevant techniques to help the learners perform the task.

- Implementing role play to mimic a real situation
- Note-taking is necessary to correct any eventual errors.
- Including the use of body language (cultural awareness) to go hand in hand with the language used in different strategies such as interrupting, agreeing and disagreeing, arguing, etc.
- Inviting the learners to share their own experiences in real meetings to engage them more in the learning process. The learner speaks about their errors and/or failures during those meetings, which could be discussed, corrected, and evaluated not only by the teacher but by the other learners as well. This way, the learners are auto-correcting them not only to make it easy to remember for them but to motivate them as well.

Table 4.4: 'Meeting skills' Contents[44]

Unit	Topic	Function	Language	Task
1	**Arranging a meeting**	• Arranging a meeting • Confirming a meeting by mail • Rescheduling a meting	• Introducing names and using titles • Apologizing for changing the meeting • General e-mail vocabulary	Writing emails for arranging and rescheduling.
2	**Starting a meeting**	• Opening a meeting • Starting the meeting • Stating the objectives	• Phrasal verbs • Small talks • Chairing the meeting • Writing formal and informal agendas	Role playing a formal meeting.
3	**Interrupting a meeting**	• Reporting progress • Interrupting and dealing with interruptions	• Would-could-might. • Politeness in interruptions • Asking for clarification	Role playing a meeting with interruptions
4	**Disagreement**	• Expressing strong opinion • Asking for comments and	• Disagreement in different cultures • Diplomatic language	Disagreeing on big decisions and defending

[44] Adapted from (Kenneth Thompson, 2007)

		participations	• Making suggestions	the opinion
5	**Making a deal**	• Taking a vote • Summarizing the results of the meeting	• Possibilities: be able to, can, could. • Language to control the timing of the meeting • Language to sum up	Role playing a meeting and reaching an agreement.
6	**Closing a meeting**	• Ending the meeting and thanking the participants • Summing up the decisions • Follow up emails	• Future: be going to • Formal and informal minutes	Writing a formal minute

4.7.3 Telephoning

Telephoning can be the hardest part to teach. In real-life situations, the learners experience an amount of stress, not only from the language and skills deficiencies but also from the listening difficulties. In order to lessen or manage this stress, the teacher should attempt to familiarize the learners with those situations by following a set of pedagogical keys:

— Planning and structuring the phone calls.

— Opening a call and building a positive link with the interlocutor.

— Present the frequent patterns in business phone calls.

— Asking for repetition when needed.

— Including listening to audio recordings as much as possible.

Table 4.5. 'Telephoning skills' Contents[45]

Unit	Topic	Function	Language	Task
1	**Telephoning basics**	• Identifying yourself • Putting through • Making excuses • Dealing with communication problems	• Using titles and first names (cultural differences • Giving bad news (I'm afraid, actually, I'm sorry)	Listening and taking notes
2	**Exchanging and checking information**	• Spelling over the phone • Saying numbers and email addresses	• Active listening strategies	Listening to a tape.
3	**Taking voice mail messages**	• Leaving and taking messages	• Prepositions • Reported speech	Listening to tape and taking notes Role playing a phone call.
4	**Making and confirming arrangements**	• Saying times and dates	• Prepositions • Politeness strategies	Listening to a tape and taking notes
5	**Making and dealing with complaints**	• A technical support hotline	• Strategies for complaining, apologizing, and solving problems.	Role playing a complaint on the phone about PC related issues

[45] Adapted from (David Gordon Smith, 2007)

6	**Agreements**	• Making proposals • Reaching agreements	• Hedges (probably, I would say…) • Turn taking	Tape listening, picking up the different functions learnt.

4.7.4 Writing

As interpreted from the findings, the participants in our study have expressed a need for focused training on writing short paragraphs, such as e-mails, and filling out technical forms. The writing lessons should enable learners to develop correct grammar, technical terminology, and abbreviations. In order to avoid overloading learners with grammatical rules, especially those related to writing skills, the grammar of writing is implicitly introduced within the activities. To this end the writing lessons are set to be very short lessons; each lesson entails one writing task of 15 minutes that is collected by the teacher and discussed and corrected in the rest of the hour.

The selection of content is tailored to the specific needs of the participants and ranges from purely technical writing to more business-oriented writing. Given the importance of technical writing in the workplace, full mastery at all levels is necessary. For the proposed lessons, materials are adapted from oil and gas pedagogical textbooks with modifications to suit our case. Additionally, authentic materials such as printed e-mails for native speakers and risk assessment forms may be utilized as examples in the classroom. Furthermore, we acknowledge the crucial importance of business language skills, with writing short paragraphs (e-mails) being identified as a principal sub-skill in writing. As such, the lessons cover key language used in e-mails, including relevant grammar and common features. The writing syllabus is summarized in the table below.

Table 4.6. 'Writing Skills' Contents[46]

Unit	Topic	Grammar	Terminology	Task
1	**Hazards**	Might and could	Types of Hazards	Writing a Safety Report
2	**Requiring Action**	Polite requests[47]: Would you mind+ gerund	Schedules and plans	E-mail writing to call for a meeting
3	**Hot Work Permit**	Past simple	Accidents/Incidents	Writing a Hot Work Permit
4	**Exchanging Information**	Colloquial phrases and contractions	Oil rig circulation system	Quoting from previous e-mails
5	**Health and Safety and Environment (HSE)**	Passive form	HSE Lexis	Writing a Risk Assessment
6	**Enquiries**	Common Verbs	-Acronyms and abbreviations in e-mails -To CC or not to CC.	E-mail writing to talk about deadlines

[46] The construction of the table is selected, modified, and adapted from different sources: (Frendo, E. and D. Bonamy. English for Oil and Gas. England: Pearson, 2012), (Pile, L. E-mailing. UK: Delta Publishing , 2004), (Garner, B. HBR Guide to Better Business Writing (HBR Guide Series): Engage Readers . Boston : Harvard Business Review Press, 2012).

[47] Polite requests are part of the cultural awareness.

4.7.5 Reading

The technical reading is the focus of the lessons; all the proposed reading texts are of technical aspect related to the oil and gas field. There is a variety of topics that can be of a direct importance to the working area, such as describing some important properties of petroleum products, components of oil and gas pipelines, the oil refining process, reports of incidents, etc. the reading materials selected cover a wide range of technical topics to ensure that the learners can apply their reading skills to various work-related scenarios because the purpose is to provide texts that are rich in technical vocabulary in order to put the learners in the same technical atmosphere they are used to. The topics are varied to tackle almost all important workplace areas, while in each reading exercise; they are called to develop a reading strategy. At the end of the reading skill training, the learners will be much more confident when reading an authentic text. Moreover, the reading instruction should not be excessively burdensome and monotonous; for this purpose, some listening activities and some activities on technical terminology are included to create a variation in the learning process. As mentioned previously, the integration of other language skills is very important. It is unavoidable to teach all the language skills in one lesson, depending on the level of focus and the time allocated for them. The below table is a summary of the proposed syllabus:

Table 4.7. 'Reading skills' Contents[48]

Unit	Topics	Strategies	Function	Grammar	Terminology
Unit 1: The Organization	**Roles and responsibilities**	Skimming	Describing roles and responsibilities	Present simple	Oil industry Jobs
	Work routines	Scanning	Describing work routines	Past simple	Time expressions (around the clock, shifts)

[48] The construction of the table is selected based on a selection of topics that are related to gas and oil. Sources: (Frendo, E. and D. Bonamy. English for Oil and Gas. England: Pearson, 2012), (Pincu, G. How to Improve Your Business Reading Skills: Read with Added Confidence, Speed, Comprehension and Recall. USA: BLS Pulishing , 2005.)

Unit 2: Procedures	**Rules and regulation**	Scanning	Understanding safety rules	The passive	Offshore rig
	Hazards	Skimming	Describing hazards at the work place	Might and could	Types of hazard
Unit 3: Processes	**Exploration**	Scanning	Sequencing events	Sequencers	Oil field formation
	Refining	Scanning	Presenting a process	The passive with can	Refining
Unit 4: Equipments	**The blowout preventer**	Scanning	Explaining the function of a piece of equipment		Types of blowout preventers
	Pipeline components	Scanning	Confirming the status of equipment	Contractions	Components of oil and gas pipelines
Unit 5: Products	**Storage**	Skimming	Discussing storage facilities	Compound nouns	Underground storage facilities
	Contamination control	Skimming	Explaining problems	Vague language	Pipeline contamination equipment and control
Unit 6: Impact	**Equipment problems**	Scanning	Explaining the causes of incidents	Explaining why something happened	Connecting equipments
	Trends and forecasts	Scanning	Talking about trends	Presenting visual information, adjectives and adverbs	Graphs and trends

4.8 Conclusion

In this chapter, the researcher adopted different approaches to Needs Analysis. First, a PSA in the JV is conducted, which reveals how important the English language is within the JV as a means of communication to fulfill one of its Golden Rules. A PSA also generates an overview of the time scale of teaching English and how important it is that the teacher considers the employees' work schedule, including their unplanned commitments in the field. It is addressed to analyze the participants' job requirements. It is assumed from this analysis that the informants experience both language and business skills difficulties in fulfilling their daily tasks. Second, MA was an essential analysis that studied the documentation used for teaching English to form a basic foundation for the choice of materials. The last analysis is TSA, consisting of the questionnaire analysis from which the researcher extracted a set of recommendations to be followed in the syllabus design. The recommendations are valuable to the research because they are deduced from the population's opinion itself, which is best positioned to give a genuine demonstration of their needs.

As previously mentioned in the introduction of this chapter, while the proposed syllabus has been deemed suitable for our participants, it cannot be considered a definitive solution. It does, however, offer a means of improving the current situation. Throughout the learning process, the BE practitioner should remain attentive to changes and unexpected reactions. This chapter provides a comprehensive overview of the intended syllabus, including its type, content, approach, and organization. Ultimately, it is concluded that speaking skills are of primary importance, with an emphasis on presentations and meetings. Writing is identified as the second most important skill, focusing on the development of concise paragraphs, correct grammar, and technical abbreviations. Lastly, reading skills and associated strategies are considered crucial for success.

GENERAL CONCLUSION

General Conclusion

The present research was driven by a keen interest in understanding the role and use of Business English within the Algerian professional landscape, particularly in the context of the SH/BP/Statoil JV. It aimed to explore the challenges engineers face in employing English for business purposes, delving into linguistic and business skill constraints that affect their communication and performance. Specifically, the study sought to identify gaps in the four core language competencies—listening, speaking, reading, and writing—and to address these gaps through an enhanced, needs-based syllabus tailored to their unique professional requirements.

This study holds significant value as it bridges the gap between theoretical research and practical application in workplace language training. It builds upon the researcher’s firsthand experience of over four years teaching engineers within the JV, during which pressing needs and recurring linguistic challenges were observed. These insights shaped the research's direction and underline its practical relevance. By proposing solutions grounded in the actual experiences and requirements of engineers, the study contributes not only to their professional growth but also to improving communication standards within the JV and similar sectors. In doing so, it offers a model that other companies and industries can adapt to address their employees’ language training needs, ultimately fostering more effective and efficient workplace communication.

The identification of language and business skill challenges was pursued through an empirical investigation that encompasses three distinct analyses: a Present Situation Analysis (PSA) to acquire an understanding of the current status of English language usage within the Joint Venture, as well as the job requirements of the engineers; a Means Analysis (MA) to scrutinize the pedagogical materials employed in teaching English and their appropriateness vis-à-vis the engineers’ requirements; and a Target Situation Analysis (TSA) that employs a questionnaire to evaluate the various language skills separately, while assessing business skills and sub-skills in terms of their significance and proficiency.

This work is opened with a literature review related directly to business English discussing both its theoretical and pedagogical aspects in the first two chapters. A case study research approach is then adapted in Chapter three to investigate the possible language and business skills limitations using qualitative and quantitative research. The analyses conducted through observation of the English language situation in the JV through PSA and MA constitute one part of gathering the data. A second part, then, is more of a quantitative method using a detailed questionnaire in three languages to ensure a good run of the research.

The PSA revealed the importance of the use of English in the JV to ensure effective communication between the different technical departments as well as between the members of the teams. The engineers' job requirements analysis serves as a tool to clarify the different daily tasks requiring the use of English, which seems to constitute a major part. Finally, the TSA using the questionnaire meant to analyze the different engineers' needs in terms of the four language skills that present the required foundation for building the syllabus. General English, technical English, and cultural related questions were addressed in the questionnaire in order to develop a syllabus that covers those three aspects.

The results gathered in this research from the three conducted analyses ascertain the hypothesis that, first, the engineers are in constant use of Business English. Second, the documentation used for teaching there is irrelevant and needs to be replaced by a tailored program, and third, the engineers are deficient in both language and business English skills. However, the results seemed to show some difference in the ranking of the language skills in terms of need, with speaking and listening emerging as top priorities, followed by writing, and finally, reading as the least required skill. The findings also highlighted the critical need for business sub-skills across these competencies, particularly in delivering presentations, participating in meetings, and mastering technical communication.

In an attempt to suggest a remedial measure, the researcher proposes a Needs-based Syllabus covering the four language skills, including the business skills, while tackling the related sub-skills. The suggested syllabus is, first, a task-based syllabus to create autonomy in learning the language. "The basic fabric of a Business English course should be tasks which stimulate those of the learner's real situation as closely as possible." (Ellis and Johnson, 1994: 39). Second, a content-based syllabus as it relates directly to the informant's subject area Third, it is also based on the integrated-skills approach because there is always an integration of at least two language skills, i.e., the language skills cannot be taught in isolation, e.g., speaking and listening are taught 'telephoning' as a business skill.

This research has the potential to inspire further investigations and studies. Although the present study analyzes the four language skills in relation to some business skills, it does not examine other business skills, such as negotiations for the purchase department, contract writing for senior engineers, note-taking in meetings and presentations, and so forth. In reality, each business skill could warrant its own study. This research takes a holistic approach to business skills and could serve as a framework for exploring individual business or language skills. Moreover, other innovative approaches to teaching BE such as the project-based approach, could also be explored. There is ample room for future research and educational innovation in these areas.

In essence, this research journey, initiated by a curiosity about the utilization of Business English in the Algerian business milieu, has not merely reached its conclusion; rather, it marks the commencement of an ongoing exploration. From scrutinizing the challenges confronted by engineers in the SH/BP/Statoil JV to crafting a plan for a Needs-based Syllabus, this study stands as an example for continuous inquiry and advancement. The originality of this research lies in its pioneering efforts, to my knowledge; it is the first study to address Business English challenges within BP/SONATRACH/STATOIL JV, setting a precedent for future investigations in similar contexts.

It serves as a foundation for researchers and educators to dive deeper into the less explored areas of BE education, where innovative pedagogies remain open to exploration. Additionally, it raises significant questions about the future role of English as a Medium of Instruction (EMI) in the professional training of engineers. Will EMI eventually replace ESP in this sector, fostering a broader integration of English in both technical and managerial functions, or will a tailored hybrid approach prove more effective? Such inquiries warrant further investigation to determine how best to align linguistic training with the evolving demands of the globalized workplace. While this study focuses on specific situations, it invites future researchers to add to the growing knowledge about how language and business skills intersect. As we close this research, the door opens wide to a realm of possibilities, inviting collaborative efforts to shape the future of BE instruction.

Moving forward, an intriguing direction for further research would be to explore the integration of Business English with essential soft skills such as leadership, emotional intelligence, and teamwork. This focus would allow for the creation of training programs that blend both language proficiency and interpersonal skills, aiming to enhance overall business communication. Such an approach could better prepare professionals to not only communicate effectively in English but also excel in collaborative and leadership roles.

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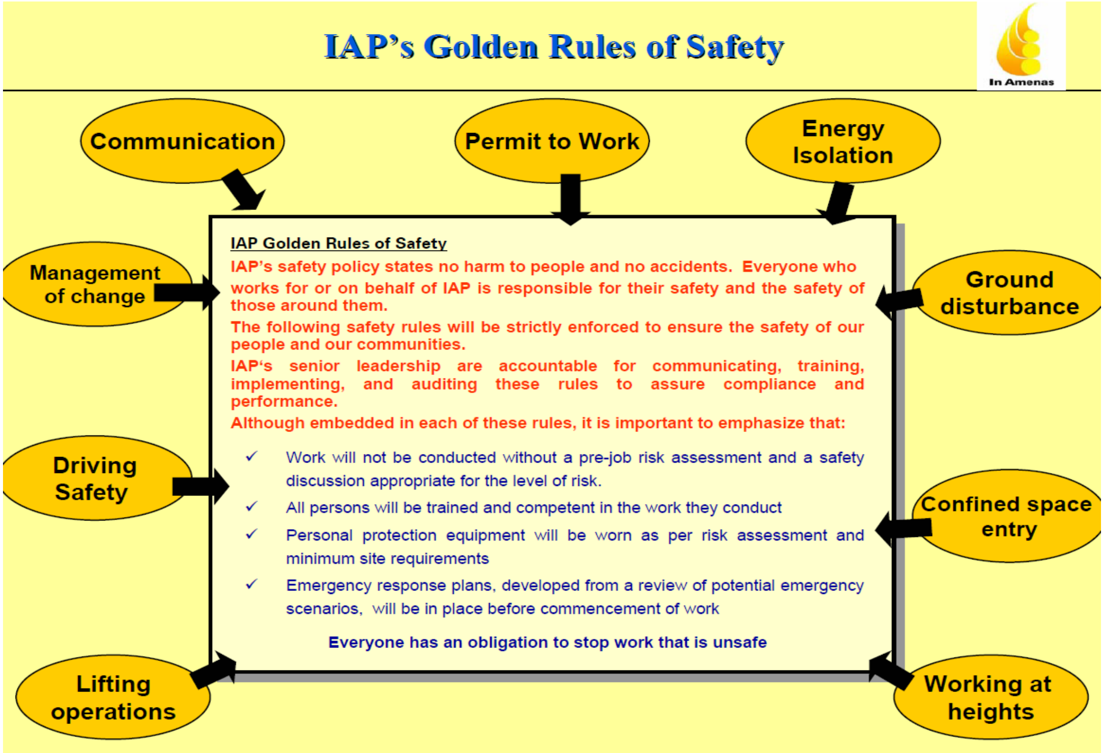
ANNEXES

Annex1



IAP's Golden Rules of Safety

In Amenas

Communication

Good communication is crucial for success at work. It helps you to express your ideas clearly, learn from others and resolve conflicts.

- ✓ Every one is responsible for ensuring that the work they authorize or request is clear and precise. Use simple words and language to express your point
- ✓ Every one is responsible for ensuring that the communicated request or authorization is fully understood. Listen actively and keep an open mind
- ✓ When authorizing or requesting work, always provide full details and information to help the performer do it safely
- ✓ Be sure to leave comprehensive written handover notes for your rotation partner at changeout and, if possible, discuss these face to face or by telephone.
- ✓ Consider carefully all the implications of work which you are authorising or asking for from other teams. Be sure to communicate well with those team leaders and to provide all pertinant details.
- ✓ As soon as changes are known or conditions of work change, be sure to communicate these to all parties concerned.
- ✓ Make sure you understand someone's point before you react. Speak with self-control; do not just say the first response that comes to mind.
- ✓ Be confident. Do not assume that what you have to say is not worthwhile.

Are you trained and competent to perform this work?
You have an obligation to stop the work if it's unsafe

Annex 2

The Questionnaire (The English Version)

Return to

Mrs. Z. Chaalane: A PhD student (English for Specific Purposes-Business English), Faculty of Foreign Languages, English Department, University Ahmed Ben Ahmed, Oran 2. zineb.chaalane@gmail.com

The Research Title

Teaching Business English: A Needs-based Syllabus Proposal. (The Case of Engineers in British Petroleum/Sonatrach/ Statoil Joint Ventures)

Description

This questionnaire is an elementary step in conducting my doctoral research. It is meant to extract your needs in terms of the English language at workplace, and highlights your needs in terms of the English language at work. The aim of the study is to design a set of work- related courses that responds to your English language skills needs.

Confidentiality

The questionnaire is anonymous, and your answers remain confidential for research use only.

Questions

You are kindly asked to answer the questions spontaneously as your answers are of great importance for the research.

Part I: Personal data

1. What is your current position?

2. What is your department?

3. Precise by numbers the years of experience :

4. Did you study English before?

Yes ☐ No ☐

5. Where did you study English?

- Secondary school ☐
- High school ☐
- University ☐
- Private school ☐
- In-company ☐

6. What is your current level in English?

- Upper intermediate ☐
- Intermediate ☐
- Elementary ☐
- I don't know ☐

7. How often do you use English at work?

- Everyday ☐
- Sometimes ☐
- Not very often ☐

8. With whom do you use English?

- Native speakers ☐
- Non-Native speakers ☐
- Both ☐

Part II: Language/skill-related data

9. Please rate the degree of *<u>importance</u>* and *your <u>level</u>* in following: check (√) the appropriate case.

NB: The term ‘technical’ refer to “specific to your specialty”.
The term ‘text’ refers to (reports, contracts, faxes, business letters, and e-mails)

A) READING	**The importance**				**The Mastery Level satisfaction**		
	Extremely Important	**Important**	**Of little importance**	**Not Important**	**Very satisfactory**	**Satisfactory**	**Not satisfactory**
1. Reading written instructions of a technical operation							
2. Interpreting technical information shown in graphs, charts, and diagrams, etc.							
3. Reading a technical passage or an e-mail text quickly and understand the general meaning							
4. Reading a technical passage or an e-mail text to extract specific information to do a given task							
5. Reading with high concentration and great care to understand exactly what is meant in the text							
6. Reading with the correct pronunciation							
7. Reading for general meaning in non-technical texts							
8. Reading to understand the writer view on a specific issue							
9. Reading a text using your own knowledge to understand what you don’t know (read between the lines)							
10. Other kinds of readings. Please specify and rate…………………………………………………… ………………………………………………………							

B) WRITING	The importance				The Mastery Level satisfaction		
	Extremely Important	Important	Of little importance	Not Important	Very satisfactory	Satisfactory	Not satisfactory
1. Realizing diagrams, charts, graphs out of a given input.							
2. Using the appropriate terminology in your writings							
3. Writing short texts (e-mails and reports)							
4. Stating problems and procedures							
5. Writing the interpretations and analysis from diagrams and charts.							
6. Expressing and arguing in writing your point of view about a subject.							
7. Using the right techniques in writing a report e.g., organizing and summarizing.							
8. Note-taking from meetings, presentations.							
9. Using the correct grammatical structures in writing e.g., e-mails							
10. Using abbreviations in your note-taking or e-mails							
11. Other kinds of writing. Please specify and rate………………………………………………………… ………………………………………………………………..							

C) LISTENING	The importance				The Mastery Level satisfaction		
	Extremely Important	Important	Of little importance	Not Important	Very satisfactory	Satisfactory	Not satisfactory
1. Understand meanings from intonation and stress e.g., the difference between the questions and exclamations.							
2. Understanding English technical conversation between native speakers							
3. Understanding a non-technical English conversation between native speakers.							
4. Understanding a conversation in English between native and non-native speakers.							
5. Understanding an English native speaker in face to face situation							
6. Understanding Non-native speakers in face to face situation							
7. Understanding native speakers on the telephone							
8. Understanding Non-native speakers on the telephone							
9. Understanding technical information from audio-visual sources, e.g., power point and videos.							
10. Understanding a technical presentation and taking notes.							
11. Other kinds of listening. Please specify and rate …………………………………………………………… ……………………………………………………………							

D) SPEAKING	The importance				The Mastery Level satisfaction		
	Extremely Important	Important	Of little importance	Not Important	Very satisfactory	Satisfactory	Not satisfactory
1. Participating in meetings in English							
2. Knowing the techniques of interrupting and showing disagreement on a subject							
3. Discuss informally with native colleagues							
4. Maintain discussions in English							
5. Awareness about the difference of cultures and respecting them							
6. Being understood when speaking English on the phone							
7. Presenting a well-organized technical presentation							
8. The ability to attract the audience when speaking in presentations							
9. Concluding your presentations and your points of view in general							
10. Other kinds of speaking. Please specify and rate……………………………………………………… ………………………………………………………………							

Thank you for your cooperation.

Le Questionnaire (The French Version)

Chercheur

Mme Z. Chaalane: Doctorante (Langue de Spécialité - Anglais des Affaires), faculté des Langues Etrangères, département d'anglais, Université Ahmed Ben Ahmed, Oran 2. zineb.chaalane@gmail.com

L'intitulé de la recherche

Teaching Business English: A Needs-based Syllabus Proposal. (The Case of Engineers in British Petroleum/Sonatrach/ Statoil Joint Ventures)

Description

Ce questionnaire est une étape élémentaire dans mes recherches doctorales. L'objectif principal de cette recherche et de déterminer vos besoins en Anglais utilisé au travail. Le deuxième but de l'étude est de concevoir un ensemble des cours appropriés en Anglais professionnel.

Confidentialité

Le questionnaire est anonyme, et vos réponses resteront confidentielles utilisées pour la recherche uniquement.

Questions

Vous êtes priés de répondre spontanément aux questions, vos réponses sont d'une grande importance pour la recherche.

Partie I: Informations personnelles

10. Quelle est votre position actuelle?

11. Quel est votre département?

12. Précisez le nombre d'année d'expérience professionnelle ☐

13. Est-ce que vous avez déjà appris l'Anglais?

Oui ☐ Non ☐

14. Ou est-ce que vous l'avez appris?

- Ecole secondaire ☐
- Lycée ☐
- Université ☐
- Ecole privée ☐
- Au travail ☐

15. Veuillez préciser votre niveau estimé en Anglais?

- Intermédiaire supérieur ☐
- Intermédiaire ☐
- Débutant ☐
- Je ne sais pas ☐

16. Veuillez exprimer par fréquence de temps l'utilisation de l'Anglais dans votre travail?

- Toujours ☐
- Parfois ☐
- Rarement ☐

17. Veuillez préciser le type des personnes avec qui vous utilisez l'Anglais?

- Des personnes natives ☐
- Des personnes non-natives ☐
- Les deux ☐

Partie II: Information sur la Langue/les techniques

18. Veuillez évaluer en cochant (√) le degré d'importance ainsi que votre niveau de maitrise:

NB / Le mot *'Technique'* veut dire *'lié à votre spécialité'*

E) L'ANGLAIS LU	**L'importance**				**Le Niveau de Maitrise**		
	Extrêmement	**Important**	**Moins important**	**Pas important**	**Très satisfaisant**	**Satisfaisant**	**pas satisfaisant**
11. Lire des instructions techniques							
12. Lire des informations techniques montrées sous forme de graphs, tableau, et diagrammes.							
13. Lire un paragraphe ou un e-mail rapidement et comprendre l'idée générale.							
14. Lire un paragraphe ou un e-mail et extraire une information spécifique pour effectuer une tache.							
15. Lire attentivement pour comprendre exactement tout ce qui est écrit dans le texte.							
16. Lire avec la prononciation correcte.							
17. Lire des texte non-techniques pour comprendre l'idée générale.							
18. Lire pour comprendre l'opinion de l'écrivain.							
19. Lire entre les lignes.							
20. Autres genre de lecture. Veuillez préciser et évaluer………………………………………………							

F) L'ANGLAIS ECRIT	**L'importance**				**Le Niveau de Maitrise**		
	Extrêmement	**Important**	**Moins important**	**Pas important**	**Très satisfaisant**	**Satisfaisant**	**pas satisfaisant**
12. Créer de diagrammes, tableaux, graphs à partir des données							
13. Utiliser la terminologie appropriée dans vos écrits.							
14. Ecrire des paragraphes courts (e-mail et rapport)							
15. Exprimer des problèmes et décrire des procédures en écrit.							
16. Interpréter en écrit des diagrammes et des tableaux.							
17. Exprimer et argumenter votre point de vu							
18. Utiliser les techniques correcte dans les rapports ex ; organisation et conclusion.							
19. Prendre des notes dans les réunions et les présentations							
20. Utiliser les structures grammaticales correctes							
21. Utiliser les abréviations en prenant des notes ou dans vos e-mails.							
22. Autre genre d'écrit. Veuillez préciser et évaluer………………………………………………… ………………………………………………………..							

G) L’ANGLAIS ECOUTE	L’importance				Le Niveau de maitrise		
	Extrêmement	Important	Moins important	Pas important	Très satisfaisant	Satisfaisant	pas satisfaisant
12. Comprendre le sens de la phrase à partir de l’intonation, ex : faire la différence entre une question et une exclamation.							
13. Comprendre une conversation entre deux natives sur un sujet technique							
14. Comprendre une conversation générale entre deux natives							
15. Comprendre une conversation entre une personne native et une autre non-native.							
16. Comprendre une personne native en face de vous							
17. Comprendre une personne non-native en face de vous							
18. Comprendre une personne native au téléphone							
19. Comprendre une personne non-native au téléphone							
20. Comprendre des informations techniques d’une source audio-visuelle							
21. Comprendre une présentation technique, et prendre des notes.							
22. Autre genre d’écoute. Veuillez préciser et évaluer…………………………………………………… ………………………………………………………							

H) L'ANGLAIS PARLE	L'Importance				Le niveau de maitrise		
	Extrêmement	Important	Moins important	Pas important	Très satisfaisant	Satisfaisant	pas satisfaisant
11. Participer aux réunions en Anglais							
12. Savoir les stratégies adoptées pour interrompre et d'exprimer un désaccord.							
13. Discuter informellement avec un collègue native							
14. Maintenir une discussion en Anglais							
15. La sensibilisation de la différence culturelle et savoir la respecter.							
16. Etre compris en parlant l'Anglais au téléphone							
17. Maintenir une présentation technique bien organisée.							
18. Attirer l'attention d'une audience en faisant une présentation.							
19. Savoir conclure votre présentation ou votre point de vu en général							
20. Autre genre d'anglais parlé. Veuillez préciser et évaluer…………………………………………………… …………………………………………………………							

Merci de cotre coopération

الاستبيان

يرجع إلى

السيدة شعلان زينب طالبة دكتوراه (الإنجليزية مستعملة لأهداف محددة)، كلية اللغات الأجنبية، قسم إنجليزية، جامعة محمد بن أحمد، وهران 2.

عنوان الأطروحة

Teaching Business English: A Needs-based Syllabus Proposal. (The Case of Engineers in British Petroleum/Sonatrach/ Statoil Joint Ventures)

المحتوى

يعتبر هذا الاستبيان خطوة أساسية في سير أطروحتي لرسالة الدكتوراه يهدف إلى استخراج ما يحتاج إليه العامل من إمكانيات لغوية للغة الإنجليزية في مجال العمل، كما يهدف كذلك إلى تصميم مجموعة من الدروس المتعلقة بالعمل التي تلبي الحاجيات اللغوية و التقنية.

خصوصية الإستبيان

أنت غير مطالب بذكر الإسم ، الأجوبة تستعمل لأغراض علمية بحتة.

الأسئلة

يرجى الإجابة على الأسئلة بعفوية، أجوبتكم ذات أهمية للرسالة.

قسم I : معلومات شخصية

1. ماهي وظيفتك ؟

2. ما هو قسمك ؟

3. حدد عدد سنين الخبرة ؟

4. هل درست الإنجليزية من قبل ؟ نعم ☐ لا ☐

5. أين درست الإنجليزية ؟
   - المتوسط ☐
   - الثانوي ☐
   - الجامعة ☐
   - مدرسة خاصة ☐
   - في العمل ☐

6. ما هو مستواك في الإنجليزية ؟
   - فوق المتوسط ☐
   - متوسط ☐
   - ابتدائي ☐
   - لا أعرف ☐

7. ما هو معدل استعمالك للغة الإنجليزية ؟
   - يوميا ☐
   - أحيانا ☐
   - نادرا ☐

8. مع من تستعمل اللغة الإنجليزية ؟
   - متحدث باللغة الإنجليزية كلغة أم ☐
   - متحدث باللغة الإنجليزية كلغة مكتسبة ☐
   - الإثنين ☐

قسم II: معلومات لغوية / مهاراتية

يرجى تقييم النقاط التالية من ناحية الأهمية و المستوى باستعمال الإشارة (√)

أ) مهارة القراءة	درجة الأهمية				المستوى الشخصي		
	مهمة جدا	مهمة	مهمة إلى حد ما	غير مهمة	مرضي جدا	مرضي	غير مرضي
1. قراءة تعليمات مكتوبة لعملية معينة							
2. استنتاج و تفسير معلومات موجودة في رسوم بيانية							
3. القراءة السريعة لفقرة علمية أو رسالة إلكترونية وفهم فكرتها الرئيسية							
4. قراءة فقرة علمية أو رسالة إلكترونية لاستخلاص معلومة معينة							
5. القراءة بتركيز عالي لاستخلاص كل المعلومات الموجودة							
6. القراءة بالنطق السليم							
7. القراءة لاستخلاص المعنى العام							
8. القراءة للتعرف على وجهة نظر الكاتب							
9. قراءة ما وراء السطور							
10. يرجى ذكر مهارة قراءة أخرى و تقييمها							

ب) مهارة الكتابة	**درجة الأهمية**				**المستوى الشخصي**		
	مهمة جدا	مهمة	مهمة إلى حد ما	غير مهمة	مرضي جدا	مرضي	غير مرضي
1. كتابة نصوص بيانية بناءا على نصوص مكتوبة							
2. الإستخدام السليم للمصطلحات العلمية							
3. صياغة فقرة صغيرة أو رسالة إلكترونية							
4. صياغة مشكلة أو إعطاء معلوم							
5. كتابة تفسير لرسم بياني أو جدول معلومات							
6. التعبير بالكتابة عن براهين لوجهة نظرك							
7. استعمال المهارات التقنية لكتابة تقرير مثل: التنظيم و الخلاصة							
8. تدوين المعلومات المهمة في الإجتماعات أو إلقاء كلمة							
9. استعمال القواعد اللغوية الصحيحة في الكتابة							
10. استعمال الاختصارات المتفق عليها عند الكتابة							
11. يرجى ذكر مهارة كتابة أخرى و تقييمها							

ج) مهارة الإستماع	درجة الأهمية				المستوى الشخصي		
	مهمة جدا	مهمة	مهمة إلى حد ما	غير مهمة	مرضي جدا	مرضي	غير مرضي
1. فهم المعنى من خلال تنوع في نبرة الصوت مثل : الفرق بين الأسئلة و التعجب							
2. فهم محادثة علمية بين محادثين إنجليزيين							
3. فهم محادثة غير علمية بين محادثين غير إنجليزيين							
4. فهم محادثة بين محادث إنجليزي و آخر غي إنجليزي							
5. فهم محادثة لشخص إنجليزي وجها لوجه							
6. فهم محادثة لشخص غير إنجليزي وجها لوجه							
7. فهم محادثة شخص إنجليزي عبر الهاتف							
8. فهم محادثة شخص غير إنجليزي عبر الهاتف							
9. فهم معلومات تقنية من مصادر سمعية و بصرية							
10. فهم متحدث في إلقاء محاضرة (كلمة) و تدوينها							
11. يرجى ذكر مهارة استماع أخرى و تقييمها							

د) مهارة المحادثة	درجة الأهمية				المستوى الشخصي		
	مهمة جدا	مهمة	مهمة إلى حد ما	غير مهمة	مرضي جدا	مرضي	غير مرضي
1. المشاركة في الإجتماعات بالإنجليزية							
2. معرفة الأساليب المستعملة عند قطع محادثة و توضيح عدم الموافقة							
3. محادثة زميل بالإنجليزية							
4. مواصلة المحادثة بالإنجليزية							
5. التوعية بالاختلاف الثقافي و احترامه							
6. كونك مفهوم عند التحدث بالإنجليزية عبر الهاتف							
7. إلقاء محاضرة (كلمة) بالإنجليزية منظمة و مفهومة							
8. القدرة على جلب الانتباه عند الإلقاء							
9. القدرة على تلخيص الإلقاء أو وجهة نظرك عامة							
10. يرجى ذكر مهارة محادثة أخرى و تقييمها ...							

شكرا على تعاونك

Annex 3

IN AMENAS OPERATIONS
HSE WORKING PRACTICE

CHECKLIST FOR WORKING ALOFT

JOB/TASK No: ……… DATE: ………………. NAME: …………………………………

Tick the following list once you have read it and are sure that all has been addressed

AIDE MEMOIRE		TICK
A	Do you have the relevant Permit to Work?	
B	Are you wearing the correct protective clothing and safety equipment?	
C	Have you checked if additional safety equipment is required , e.g. safety harness, fall arrester, etc.	
D	If access to the worksite is to be by ladder, do you have a second person available to "foot" the ladder until it is secure?	
E	If the job requires the removal of handrails, is s scaffolder available to create temporary barriers?	
F	If the job is of an electrical nature or the job site is near live electrical equipment, have the relevant isolations been made?	
G	If the job site is on or near moving machinery, especially overhead cranes, have they been isolated and /or shutdown?	
H	If applicable, have you cordoned off the area below where you are going to be working and posted warning signs of personnel working overhead?	

Complete the manifest below for all tools and equipment taken aloft including any components and spares.

ITEM	DESCRIPTION	QTY OUT	RETURNED
1			
2			
3			
4			
5			
6			
7			
8			
9			
10			

Complete last column for all tools and equipment returned from job site.

MAKE SURE ANY USED/REPLACED COMPONENTS HAVE ALSO BEEN REMOVED FROM THE JOB SITE.

Signature:………………………………………………………………………..

C:\Program Files (x86)\PDF Tools AG\3-Heights(TM) Document Converter Service\Temp\3ebc189e5d580269cd1764b2e2e8445a3b0b057fd5cfdd80c17117b6950fa040.doc

WPCE CPS 010-A

Thread Wear Inspection Form

Inspected by ____________ **Date** ____________

Part Number ____________ **Local No.** ____________

Serial Number ____________ **Designation** ____________

Unit Number ____________ **W.P.** ____________

ACME Thread Size ____________ Seal Diam. ____________ Service ____

Acceptance Criteria:	**Male Thread**	**Female Thread**
Max/Min OD/ID Dim from Table XIII		
Max/Min PD Wear Dim From Table XIV		
No. of Allowable Worn Threads from Table XV		

Inspection Procedures:

As Per Step 3; Record any notable thread damage or wear. ____________

As Per Step 4; Does the guage ball bottom out on the diameter?

Yes/NO ____________

Number of times ____________

As Per Step 5-6: Measure the inside daimeter - Female thread ____________

As Per Step 5-6: Measure the outside daimeter - Male thread ____________

As Per Step 7-13; Measure each thread

PD Measurement	**Accepted**	**PD Measurement**	**Accepted**
1 ______		8	
2 ______		9	
3 ______		10	
4 ______		11	
5 ______		12 ______	
6 ______		13 ______	
7 ______		14 ______	

Annex 4

INTERNAL JOB BULLETIN

JOB TITLE : Inspection/Corrosion Engineer
DEPARTMENT : IA OPS Technical Support Team.
AFFECTATION : Tiguentourine.
LINE MANAGER : Mechanical Integrity Supervisor (Integrity Technical Authority).

Role:

- Co-ordinate and engineer Long term inspection tasks.
- Analyse and Improve existing inspection and corrosion monitoring Build.
- Analyses and improve corrosion and inspection team performance.

Responsibilities :

- Carrying out visual inspections of pressure pipe work /vessels, flow lines, trunk lines and export pipelines.
- Supervision and organisation of NDT personnel. Assisting in radiographic dead leg surveys. Working alongside companies carrying out thermograph on pressure vessels.
- Carrying out vibration analysis of pipe work and rotating equipments.
- Reviewing and assessing corrosion monitoring results and creating anomaly reports.
- Witnessing hydrostatic tests.
- Assisting and working closely with our integrity management contractor (Lloyds Register). Working with Failure Risk Assessment (FRA), Risked Based Inspection (RBI) and Written Scheme of Examination (WSE).
- Planning and preparation for shut downs.
- Cathodic protection monitoring, potential readings and results interpretation.
- Corrosion monitoring within the Central Process Facilities (CPF) and the gathering system carrying out liquid sampling, corrosion coupons control, Corrosion probes reading.
- Set up and monitor integrity observation cards (IOC).

Studies:

- University Engineering Degree in Mechanical, Metallurgy or chemical Discipline.

Experience:

- 10 years experience in the hydrocarbon industry.
- At least 3 years in inspection and corrosion monitoring experience.
- Basic Knowledge in HSE systems.

Skills:

- Strong analytical and IT skills, MS office suite capabilities, Excel being the most important.
- Strong HSE knowledge and application.
- Good knowledge about hydrocarbon industry equipment and operations.
- Good knowledge of Inspection and maintenance management processes.
- Strong knowledge of Non destructive techniques (NDT) and corrosion monitoring methods
- Good knowledge in metallurgy and material selection
- Basic ability to read PID, PFD, and Construction drawings.
- Strong Communication & Presentation skills.
- Strong ability to work and live in a multicultural environment.

Aptitudes:

- Problem Solver.
- Good organizational skills.
- Performance driven.
- Good Interpersonal skills.
- Multi Lingual (French and English).

Closing date: November 1st, 2009

bp StatoilHydro

INTERNAL JOB BULLETIN

JOB TITLE :	Process Engineer
DEPARTMENT:	Tech Support
LOCATION:	Tiguentourine
LINE MANAGER:	Tech Supp Team Leader

ROLE:

Assurance of long term integrity and performance of the process design within the plant,

RESPONSIBILITIES:

- Provide technical support and troubleshooting to Operations and Maintenance within the Process engineering field specifically but not limited to process equipment .
- Assist Process Technical Authority with process technical support and troubleshooting .
- Assessment and assurance of maintenance effectiveness .
- Long-term study/development work on facilities .
- Perform root cause failure analysis and make recommendations to avoid future failures .
- Participate and provide support to Exploitation during process upsets.

EDUCATION:

- Degree in pertinent engineering discipline or pertinent vocational technical training and certification .

EXPERIENCE:

- 3 to 5 years experience in oil, gas or petrochemical industry.
- 2 years working knowledge of process plant .

SKILLS:

- Fully competent in all areas of plant process equipment, including valves, pumps, vessels, exchangers etc. Capable of performing root-cause failure analyses on mechanical equipment .
- Full awareness of the MoC procedures applied on the project and the various risk assessment procedures available,
- Have demonstrable experience of Participation in HAZIDs, HAZOPs, SIL & Task Risk Assessment and peer review,
- Experienced in the use of process simulation software (e.g.HYSYS, FLARENET) for process design and performance testing,
- Has had responsibility for P&ID, PFD development, specification of design conditions, materials, control & shutdown systems.
- Experienced in the development of operating procedures and use of check lists for pre-start safety reviews.
- Experience with flare and relief system design including sizing and specification of relieving devices,
- Have demonstrable experience with separation and distillation systems, heat exchange equipments and centrifugal compressors including design, operation, control & protective systems and troubleshooting,

Applications closing date: 26/10/2010

bp

Statoil

Annex 5

Name :

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LANGUAGE SOLUTIONS

Language Solutions Placement Test
Writing

Writing Test – 45 minutes

Do the task in Part 1
Choose 1 task in Part 2
Write your answers on this Answer Sheet.

Part One

You have received this letter from a local hotel.

> Dear Miss Jones
>
> Further to our phone conversation this morning, I am writing to say our Conference Centre will be available all day on 17th November. Could you confirm the booking and let us know what arrangements you require for meals?
> Yours sincerely
>
> *John Williams*
>
> John Williams

Write a reply:

- confirming the booking;
- saying how many people will attend;
- explaining what lunch requirements you require.

Write 50 – 60 words.
Do not write an address.

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Authorised Centre

Language Solutions Placement Test
Writing

LANGUAGE SOLUTIONS

Part Two

EITHER

Task A

Your company wants to set up some training courses for staff. You have been asked to write a report recommending the type of training people in your department most need.

Write the report, describing the training you most recommend.

Write about:

- the types of courses;
- why these courses are necessary;
- which staff should attend them

and any other points which you think are important.

Write 180 – 200 words.

OR

Task B

Due to recent growth, your company offices are no longer large enough and the company directors have decided to move to bigger premises. You have been asked to report on an office building that you have visited for the company.

Write the report, explaining why you think the building would be suitable.

Refer to relevant factors such as:

- size and layout;
- cost;
- facilities

and any other points which you think are important.

Write 180 – 200 words.

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LANGUAGE SOLUTIONS

Language Solutions Placement Test
Listening

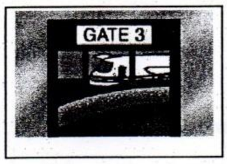
Listening Test – 45 Minutes

Write all your answers on the answer sheet in pencil.

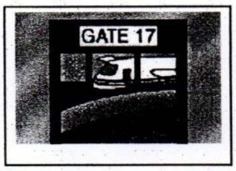
PART ONE Questions 1 – 10

- You will hear 10 short recordings.
- For questions 1-10 choose letter A, B or C.
- You will hear each recording twice.

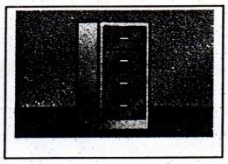
1 Which is the gate number for the flight to Bangkok?

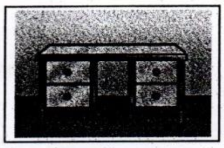
A


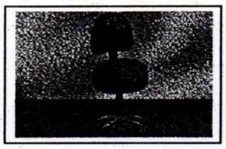
B


C


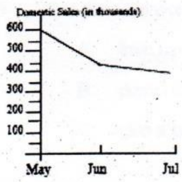
2 Which product will the company stop making?

A


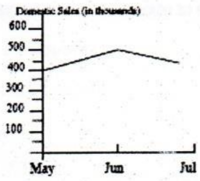
B


C


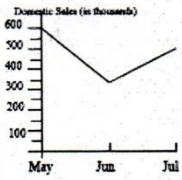
3 Which graph shows the correct figures?



A



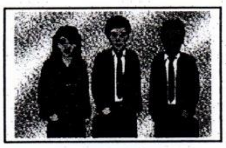
B



C

4 Which team is working on the project in Russia?

A


B


C


Language Solutions Placement Test
Listening

5 When will the new product be ready for testing?

A

	1	2	3	4	5	6
7	8	9	10	11	12	13
14	15	16	17	18	19	20
21	22	23	24	25	26	27
28	29	30	31			

B

	1	2	3	4	5	6
7	8	9	10	11	12	13
14	15	16	17	18	19	20
21	22	23	24	25	26	27
28	29	30	31			

C

	1	2	3	4	5	6
7	8	9	10	11	12	13
14	15	16	17	18	19	20
21	22	23	24	25	26	27
28	29	30	31			

6 Who is the sales assistant in the shop talking to?

A her boss

B another assistant

C a customer

7 What does Mike do at the training centre?

A He's a student.

B He's a receptionist.

C He's a teacher.

8 What does the announcer say about the train to Portsmouth?

A The train will leave at 10.37.

B The departure platform has been changed.

C Passengers will be unable to get food on the train.

9 What does the woman want her colleague to do?

A train new employees

B demonstrate a machine

C give a talk

10 Who is the man on the phone talking to?

A his boss

B a customer

C his assistant

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LANGUAGE SOLUTIONS

Language Solutions Placement Test
Listening

PART TWO Questions 11 – 22

- You will hear three conversations. Fill in the numbered spaces using the information you hear. You will hear each conversation once only.

Conversation 1 Questions 11 – 14

- Look at the form below. You will hear a man calling to place an order.

ORDER FORM

CUSTOMER DETAILS

Name: Ken **(11)** ....

Company: Greenlight Communications
201 Hall Road, Manchester

Tel: 0161 313988 **Fax: (12)** ....

ORDER DETAILS

Item: (13) .... **Model:** XT519

Quantity/Amount: (14) ....

Conversation 2 Questions 15 – 18

- Look at the form below. You will hear a woman making a complaint.

COMPLAINT FORM

Name: Mrs Hector

Address: 31 **(15)** .... , Rossington

Tel: 01923 951975

Date: 5 April **Date of Complaint (if different): (16)** ....

Branch: (17) ....

Reason for Complaint: Goods damaged due to bad **(18)** ....

Action: Issue credit note

Conversation 3 Questions 19 – 22

- Look at the form below. You will hear a woman calling about an order.

Company: (19) ....

In: Leon, **(20)** .... Spain

They want: 300 of Model X42 by **(21)** .... at the latest.

Despatch by **(22)** .... (they will pay).

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Listening

PART THREE

Section One
Questions 23 – 27

- *You will hear five people answer the question 'What do you like about your work?'*
- *As you listen, decide what each person likes most.*
- *Choose your answer from the list **A – I**, and write the correct letter in the space provided.*
- *You will hear the five pieces **once** only.*

Example: ..... I .....

23 Person 1 ....
24 Person 2 ....
25 Person 3 ....
26 Person 4 ....
27 Person 5 ....

A	meeting lots of people
B	good salary
C	working on my own
D	variety
E	company has good reputation
F	good office canteen
G	developing useful skills
H	near home
I	foreign travel

Section Two
Questions 28 – 32

- *You will hear five people talking.*
- *As you listen, decide what each of them is talking about.*
- *Choose your answer from the list **A – I**, and write the correct letter in the space provided.*
- *You will hear the five pieces **once** only.*

Example: ..... I .....

28 Person 1 ....
29 Person 2 ....
30 Person 3 ....
31 Person 4 ....
32 Person 5 ....

A	a plan for a new office
B	a problem at work
C	a business meeting
D	a staff meeting
E	a conference
F	a job interview
G	a new colleague
H	safety precautions
I	a pay rise

Annex 6

Map of the book

	Discussion	Texts	Language work	Skills	Case study
Unit 1 Careers page 6	Discuss ideas about careers	Reading: Ten ways to improve your career – *Business Wire* Listening: Two people talk about ways to improve your career	Words that go with *career* Modals 1: ability, requests and offers	Telephoning: making contact	Fast-Track Inc.: Choose the best candidate for the job of sales manager Writing: e-mail
Unit 2 Selling online page 14	Discuss shopping online	Reading: Worry for retailers as web shopping clicks into place – *Financial Times* Listening: An interview with the Head of E-Commerce at Argos	Words and expressions for talking about buying and selling Modals 2: *must, need to, have to, should*	Negotiating: reaching agreement	Lifetime Holidays: Negotiate a joint venture Writing: letter
Unit 3 Companies page 22	Discuss types of companies	Reading: The world's most respected companies – *Financial Times* Listening: An interview with IKEA's UK Deputy Country Manager	Words for talking about companies Present simple and present continuous	Presenting your company	Valentino Chocolates: Prepare an investment plan Writing: a proposal document
Revision unit A page 30					
Unit 4 Great ideas page 34	Discuss ideas	Reading: Three articles about great ideas Listening: An interview with the Head of the Innovation Works	Verb and noun combinations Past simple and past continuous	Successful meetings	Fabtek: Choose the best ideas for three new products Writing: report
Unit 5 Stress page 42	Discuss causes of stress Discuss gender-related qualities Discuss and rank stressful jobs	Reading: A career change – *The AGE* Listening: An interview with an authority on stress management	Words about stress in the workplace Past simple and present perfect	Participating in discussions	Genova Vending Machines: Develop a plan to reduce stress Writing: report
Unit 6 Entertaining page 50	Discuss corporate entertaining	Reading: Corporate entertainment – *CNN* Listening: An interview with two experts on corporate entertaining	Words for talking about eating and drinking Multi-word verbs	Socialising: greetings and small talk	Organising a conference: Choose the best location Writing: e-mail
Revision unit B page 58					

Grammar reference: page 118 **Writing file:** page 130