Issue 1 (22), Volume 8, 2009

ROLE OF MOTHER TONGUE IN LEARNING ENGLISH FOR SPECIFIC PURPOSES

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Abstract

A revival of interest to using a mother tongue in the English classroom is stipulated by necessity to improve language accuracy, fluency and clarity.

This paper aims at examining students' perceptions of the use of mother tongue and translation in various linguistic situations. The activities that help raise learners' awareness of the language use are described.

The findings demonstrate that all learners need a support of mother tongue in English classes, but the amount of the native language needed depends on students' proficiency in English. The statistical significance of the research results was computed by employing the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) software.

Introduction

The state -of -the -art teaching of languages is based on the communicative method which emphasizes the teaching English through English. However, the idea of abandoning the native tongue is too stressful to many learners, who need a sense of security in the experience of learning a foreign language.

In the past, the prevalence of grammar -translation method led to the extraordinary phenomenon: students were unable to speak fluently after having studied the language for a long time. This led to the idea that all use of the mother tongue in the language classroom should be avoided (Harmer, 2001:131). Translation has been thought as uncommunicative, boring, pointless, difficult, and irrelevant.

Recently there has been a revival of interest to translation due to the shift of its emphasis - to using a mother tongue as a resource for the promotion of language learning. Translation develops three qualities essential to all language learning: accuracy, clarity, and flexibility (Ross, 2000:61). Therefore, the use of mother tongue and translation can serve as a tool for improving language skills.

The goals of this paper are, firstly, to examine students' perceptions of the use of mother tongue and translation in learning English, and secondly, to describe the activities which raise learners' awareness of language use. Comparison between the first language L1 and the second language L2 through translation might help learners activate language usage and serve as a tool to improve English.

Research methods employ the survey of students' perceptions of the amount of mother tongue they need in acquisition of a foreign language at tertiary level and mental translation in various class activities.

Mother tongue and translation in English Language Teaching

It is necessary to discriminate between the teaching of translation as a vocational skill and the use of the mother tongue in the teaching situation as an aid to language learning. The need for some translation in language learning is usually supported by non -native teachers. Native teachers of English argue that foreign language learning needs as much exposure to the L2 as possible during precious classroom time, and any usage of the L1 or translation is a waste of time.

In the past, most methods in L2 language pedagogy dictated that L1 should be prohibited in the classroom. Communicative approaches to language learning in the 1970s and 1980s considered the use of the L1 as undesirable. However, recently the attitude to mother tongue and translation in language classes has undergone a positive change.

Translation is sometimes referred to as the fifth language skill alongside the other four basic skills of listening, speaking, reading, and writing. 'Translation holds a special importance at an intermediate and advanced level: in the advanced or final stage of language teaching, translation from L1 to L2 and L2 to L1 is recognized as the fifth skill and the most important social skill since it promotes communication and understanding between strangers' (Ross, 2000:63).

Mother tongue has potentially both positive and negative consequences: it may serve social and cognitive functions (Carless, 2008:331). It is claimed that students working in groups do not have to speak English all the time. Use of mother tongue relates to learner identity. Negative impact of mother tongue use is that too much reliance on the L1 may undermine the interaction in English.

However good the students are at comprehending authentic reading or listening materials, the majority keeps mentally translating from L2 into L1 and vice versa. This fact makes teachers of foreign languages aware of the importance of translation in language classrooms.

Why do students use the mother tongue in class? According to J. Harmer (2001:131), a principal cause of the L1 use is required by the activity, if students are linguistically incapable of activating vocabulary for a chosen task. Another reason is that translation is a natural thing to do in language learning, and code -switching between languages is regarded as naturally developmental. The amount of L1 use by particular students may well have to do with differing learner styles and abilities.

Evidence from research into the crucial issue of the L1 use in classrooms around the world was analyzed by G. Mattioli (2004). For instance, L1 use in the Chinese classrooms offers evidence that L1 is a valuable tool for socio -cognitive processes in language learning. Another reason for L1 use in the classroom relates to the fostering of a positive affective environment. C. W. Schweers (1999:6) encourages teachers to insert the native language into lessons to influence the classroom dynamic, provide a sense of security and validate the learners' experiences.

The real usefulness of translation in English classes lies in exploiting it in order to compare grammar, vocabulary, word order and other language points in English and the student's mother tongue. According to N. J. Ross (2000), if students are aware of the differences, language interference (transfer) and intervention from their own language are likely to be reduced.

It is known that linguistic awareness can be either conscious or unconscious (Odlin, 1996).Cross -linguistic similarities and differences can produce positive transfer or negative transfer such as underproduction, overproduction, production errors, and misinterpretation. It should be emphasized that transfer is not always caused by the influence of native language.

Numerous studies indicated that both negative and positive transfer between the L1 and L2 was important for development of the interlanguage, the complex system of the learners' L2. Many teachers recognize that the L1 in the classroom is a positive representation of the interlanguage. The data on the interlanguage and language transfer show that it is highly probable that L2 learners will always think most often in their L1, even at the advanced level (Mahmoud, 2006:29). Moreover, translation in the L2 classroom offers a way to highlight similarities and differences between L1 and L2 forms. The translation is useful for L2 acquisition because, firstly, it uses authentic materials, secondly, it is interactive, thirdly, it is learner -centered, and finally it promotes learner autonomy (Mahmoud, 2006:30).

Regarding the use of the L1 in the L2 classroom, it is important to find out how students themselves feel about it. C. Schweers (1999:7) conducted research into this issue and found that a high percentage (88.7%) of the participants felt that mother tongue should be used in their English classes. Moreover, if learners of a second language are encouraged to ignore their native language, they might well feel their identity threatened. The formal study into the use of native language in our settings has shown that as many as 86% out of 110 respondents felt that a native language should be used in the classroom, particularly to explain difficult concepts (90%), introduce new material (57%), define new vocabulary (74%), explain the link between English and mother tongue (55%) (Janulevičienė, Kavaliauskienė, 2004:143). It is noteworthy that in teaching / learning English there has been a long -felt dissatisfaction, mainly on the students' part, about excluding or minimal use of translation in mastering complex issues. Learners constantly wanted to check the exact meanings of the occurring terms in their native language by consulting bilingual dictionaries or asking for teacher's explanations.

Native language use in the classroom can cause students to think that words and structures in English have a L1 correspondence, which does not always exist. Therefore, raising students' consciousness of the non -parallel nature of language is likely to allow learners to think comparatively. The important question is how to reach a balance of the L1 use in learning. It is suggested that four factors should be considered, namely, the students' previous experience, the students' level, the stage of the course, and the stage of the individual lesson (Harmer, 2001:132).

The weblog devoted to some plenary sessions of the IATEFL Conference, Aberdeen, 18 -20 April 2007, summarizes the major ideas presented by a well known British linguist G. Cook (Cook, 2007 online):

'The most important statement was the fact that English teachers tend to take a monolingual approach thus neglecting the importance of translation in the process of teaching English. The ESL classroom cannot follow the motto "One nation, one people, one language", a somewhat overrated statement since it implies that a classroom is a state. Quite contrary to that, the L1, i.e. the mother tongue of the students, should by all means be acknowledged. The importance is highlighted even more by the fact that the students' culture is part of their language and by neglecting their language, the teacher, in a monolingual classroom, neglects their culture which leads to the danger of neglecting their identity as well. What is more, there is no valid database that could confirm the standpoint that the monolingual approach in teaching is the best one. The disregard of the students' mother tongue can in fact de -motivate the students and be counterproductive. Therefore, there is neither a scientific nor a pedagogic reason to exclude L1 from the teaching process. There are probably more reasons, utilitarian and political, to make the use of L1 quite valuable in the process of teaching English. The former reason implies that the students would be motivated to think more about appropriate equivalents in their own languages and the latter one, of course, emphasizes the importance of cultural diversities and tolerance among nations'.

Taking into account what has been mentioned, it is essential to update the research into the use of

mother tongue and utility of translation. The results of teachers' voting on the use of mother tongue in the English classroom are presented on the BBC Teaching English website. There were 641 respondents in this research. There were 641 respondents in this research. The findings reveal the following: 21% of respondents use only English, 58% of respondents sometimes use mother tongue, 8% - frequently, 7% - most of the time, 6% - about half the time.

There is an opinion that 'rigidly eliminating or limiting the native language does not appear to guarantee better acquisition, nor does it foster the humanistic approach that recognizes learners' identities' (Mattioli, 2004:24). Translation as a teaching tool needs to take into account a number of different aspects, such as grammar, syntax, collocation and connotation. Uncritical use of translation may give learners insufficient, confusing or even inaccurate information about target language.

This paper aims, first, at rating contemporary students' perceptions of mental translation they employ in learning, and, second, at sharing the experiences of using translation in class activities. The implications of the use of the mother tongue in learning English for Specific Purposes are described.

Respondents and methods

The participants were the students specializing in Social Sciences at the University and studying English for Specific Purposes (ESP). There were 55 respondents aged 18 to 22 who were predominantly females at the pre -intermediate and intermediate levels. The amount of time spent in L2 environment was 4 hours per week for 2 semesters, which amounts to about 130 hours of English instruction. In this study, a brief survey, which was designed in accordance with the accepted standards to surveys in Social Sciences (Dornyei, 2003 17 -67), was administered to three groups of learners of different specializations. All the statements were rated on the Likert scale of five possible answers: 1 - strongly disagree, 2 – disagree, 3 - not sure, 4 - agree, 5 - strongly agree. The obtained data were statistically processed and interpreted.

Results

The data were obtained for the groups of students of three specializations: psychology, social work, and penitentiary law. The students were asked to rate 7 statements on the five -point Likert scale (1 - strongly disagree, 2 – disagree, 3 - not sure, 4 - agree, 5 - strongly agree). The survey statements are as follows: **1)** In ESP classes, I occasionally prefer to use my mother tongue; **2)** In writing activities, I often mentally translate ideas from my mother tongue into English; **3)** While reading professional texts I use a bilingual dictionary to translate unknown words; **4)** In ESP vocabulary tests, it is easier for me to translate terms from English than into English; **5)** In listening activities, I often mentally translate what I hear; **6)** Making Power Point Presentations on ESP themes or giving individual talks, I prefer to look at my notes – I worry about my English; **7)** While speaking impromptu, I find it hard to recall some ESP terms.

The survey results are summarized in **Table 1**. Numbers 1 to 7 in Table 1 match the above statements. The high values of the Means, i.e. which equal or are above 4, indicate a strong or simple agreement with the statement. The Mean values around 3 point to learners' doubts, while values below 3 show learners' disagreement with the statement. The data show that all the students are quite positive about the use of the mother tongue in English classes, but the amount of it depends on learners' proficiency in English. The less proficient learners of penitentiary law (PN) specialization require more reference to mother tongue – the Mean values of this group to the statements 1, 3, and 5 are higher. Similarly, the students of social work (SW) specialization rated the statements 1, 2, 4, 5 more positively than the students of PS specialization, who are the most proficient out of three specializations. The students of psychology (PS) specialization

generally prefer less code switching in the same linguistic situation – statements 1, 3, 5, and 7. Moreover, in certain cases the PS students are more negative to the use of mother tongue, e.g. the Mean values to the statements 2, 5, and 6 are between 2 and 3.

Table 1. Means, Standard Deviations and Two -Tailed Significance Levels computed for each statement and different groups. The number of respondents: Penitentiary (PN) specialization – 18 students, Psychology (PS) specialization – 20 students, Social Work (SW) specialization – 17 students.

Statement Number	Means			Standard Deviations			Two -tailed significance levels (p)		
	PN	PS	SW	PN	PS	SW	PN vs PS	PN vs SW	PS vs SW
1	4.25	3.65	4.31	0.66	0.96	0.57	0.070	0.819	0.014
2	3.50	3.20	4.13	0.87	0.93	0.97	0.424	0.118	0.006
3	4.13	4.00	4.06	0.60	0.71	0.94	0.640	0.842	0.822
4	4.00	4.45	4.50	0.71	0.74	0.97	0.145	0.158	0.864
5	4.00	2.60	3.19	0.87	1.11	1.08	0.001	0.054	0.112
6	3.38	3.40	3.69	0.86	0.86	0.89	0.945	0.409	0.327
7	3.38	2.60	3.50	1.22	1.11	1.14	0.130	0.809	0.021

This trend is quite obvious in **Chart 1**, where the results show the percentage of positive responses to each statement. The columns are arranged in groups of three: the 1st column represents the positive responses of the PS students, while the 2nd - of the PN students, and the 3rd - of the SW students. It is seen that responses to the 1st and 2nd statements are spread out from the lowest for the PS students to the highest for the SW students. The evaluations of the 3rd and 4th statements are almost leveled off. The most significance difference is observed in the evaluation of the 5th statement – the lowest by the PS students and the highest by the PN students, while the responses to the 6th and 7th statements do no differ significantly. Thus, the results demonstrate the importance of mother tongue in learning ESP. Two main differences in students' attitudes are, first, the amount of the mother tongue that the learners of different specialization need, and, second, the different linguistic situations for the use of the mother tongue.

Chart 1. Percentage of learners of each specialization who responded positively to the statements 1 to 7.
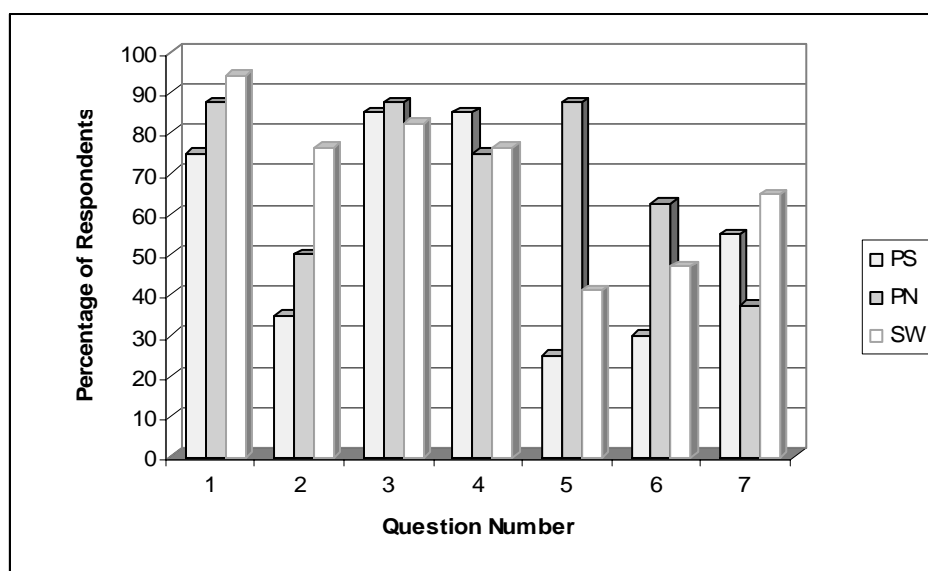
In social sciences, experimental data are analyzed using inferential statistics. Statistical computations allow drawing conclusions about the significance of research questions. Here it has been important to assess whether the difference between the Means and Standard Deviations in **Table 1** for various statements between the groups is significant or not. Statistical significance is the probability that a particular statistical result occurred by chance. The findings were processed using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) software. The computed ratios p show how significant the differences in the values of the Means are. According to learners' specializations, the ratios are labeled PN versus PS, PN versus SW, and PS versus SW and are shown in **Table 1** (columns 7, 8, and 9). It can be seen that p values are different for various statements. The interpretation of p values is as follows: values $p < 0.01$ indicate that there is no significant difference between the responses there, and the closer p values to unity, the differences between the responses are fewer. These results allow drawing a conclusion that, in spite of the small sample of respondents, the data are statistically significant and can be applied beyond the studied sample.

Research implications: translation activities in ESP classes

It is now generally accepted that language transfer, or cross -linguistic influence, does occur, but is a far more complex phenomenon than hitherto believed (Benson 2002:68). Transfer can be positive and facilitative, where the two languages are identical, or negative, when there are significant differences between two languages. Transfer may occur at all levels: phonology, syntax, lexis, and pragmatics. Raising learners' consciousness can be valuable: teachers can explicitly point out differences between L1 and L2. For this purpose translation may be useful, because it can be interactive, learner -centered, promotes learners' autonomy, and uses authentic materials (Mahmoud, 2006:30). With the English learners, we have used a number of activities that are beneficial for their linguistic development. Post -reading activities give students the opportunity to review, summarize, and react to a reading material through discussions in small or large groups. After having read a text as a homework assignment, students were encouraged to generate various comprehension exercises, such as multiple choice questions, true or false statements, general questions on the contents of the text. Learners' designed exercises were scrutinized in pairs or small groups. The activities of writing different types of summaries, e.g. restatement, descriptive summary or opinion essays, have also proved beneficial by allowing teachers to pin -point errors stemming from the mother tongue. However, checking written work increases teacher's load significantly and might be considered as a disadvantage. The most beneficial activity has been back -translation class activity. Selected texts for re -translation should not be too long or too linguistically complex, nor too distant from the knowledge of the

student. Students in pairs translated different short passages from L2 into L1. Then pairs exchanged their translations, and different pairs translated the peers' passages back into L2. Finally the double translations L2 → L1 → L2 were examined and compared with the original texts. The ultimate analysis of re -translated texts by students and teacher's feedback allow to raise learners' awareness of vocabulary, grammar, style, and language transfer.

Conclusions

The following conclusions have been drawn. First, all the learners customarily rely on their mother tongue in learning English. Second, the amount of the native language that students need depends on their proficiency and linguistic situations. Third, the statistical processing of the research findings showed that the data are significant in spite of the small sample of recipients. Finally, the students' autonomously generated reading comprehension exercises, summary writing and back -translation activities help raise learners' awareness of differences between English and the mother tongue and facilitate linguistic development.

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Paragraph Structure in Social Sciences: A Cross -Disciplinary Study

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Abstract

The present study compares paragraph structure from two disciplines in social sciences in order to find similarities and differences between them with regards to their applications of rhetorical elements based on Trimble's rhetorical approach (1985). To achieve this purpose, two textbooks from management and psychology were selected and around 5oo paragraphs were meticulously analyzed in terms of the frequency of rhetorical functions, rhetorical techniques, place of core statement and correspondence. The results of the study revealed that there is significant difference between management and psychology in terms of the frequency of the position of core statement and rhetorical functions. However, the difference between the two disciplines was not significant with regards to rhetorical techniques and correspondence.

Key words: paragraph structure, rhetorical functions, rhetorical techniques, position of core statement, correspondence.

1 -Introduction

For students entering higher education English is vital. It is the basic language of science and it is the language which is used most in knowledge communication among researchers and materials writers around the world. Almost all scientific research and conferences need English, and knowing English gives access to the best databases available. Students are required to read books and journals. They are required to summarize, paraphrase, send e -mails, and even write their own articles. They need to participate in international conferences so they need to be able to take notes, listen or speak in English. However, most students are weak at using English for specific subject, especially those students who are learning it as a foreign language. Learning English for academic purposes (EAP) demands not only the knowledge of English lexicon and grammar in general, but also the knowledge of subject specific content and the linguistic conventions of the specific field of study (Kuroda, 2003). As academic texts are concerned with the presentation of facts, theories, hypothesis, and similar types of information, their syntax, lexis, and the organization of information are different from other types of texts. In terms of syntax, academic texts contain a high percentage of some structures as such the passive voice, present and past simple, modal verbs, conjunctions, -ing forms, relative clauses, etc. As far as lexis is concerned, four vocabulary types can be distinguished in technical discourse: functional words, general, technical and semi -technical vocabulary. In terms of the organization of information, academic texts are also different from other types of texts.

Trimble (1985) investigated into the organization of science and technology discourse and stated that with regards to organization of information, some rhetorical structures are more observable in these types of texts. He identified these structures as "core statement, " correspondence", "cohesive ties or rhetorical techniques", and "rhetorical functions," each "capable of being isolated and studied separately" (1985:69). He believed that explicit teaching of these elements as he called them to non -native students in science or technical fields is useful in promoting students' reading and secondarily writing. Carroll (1987) also maintains that teaching the top - level rhetorical organization of texts, using appropriate plan to accomplish specific communication goals, and teaching how to recognize text's organization through appropriate linguistic devices should all function to make reading comprehension more effective.

In some relatively recent studies the effect of knowledge of the rhetorical functions on students' reading comprehension has been investigated. These studies quite agree with Trimble that rhetoric of invention that pertains to science must be directly taught to students (Alavi, 1991; Mazloom, 1993; Kimbal 1996; Haji, 2005, porcaro, 2007). Kimbal (1996) investigated Japanese students' composing problems in English. He found out that one of the problems for Japanese students is their unfamiliarity with the dominant function of rhetorical norms in English - language paragraphs. He compared Japanese and English language rhetorical conventions and noted that difficulties for Japanese college students result from the difference between the two languages in terms of rhetorical conventions. Another cross -linguistic study regarding rhetorical functions was conducted by Moshirzade (1995) to determine whether or not these features are the same in Persian and English. The result indicated that there is a significant difference between Persian and English in applying rhetorical functions which can result in Iranian students' reading and writing difficulties.

Inspired by the importance of familiarity with the conventions of academic discourse, the present researcher examined the rhetorical organization of paragraphs in subject specific texts drawing on Trimble's rhetorical approach. While Trimble focused mainly on Science and Technology (EST), the present study focuses on Social Sciences (ESS). In this study the researcher tried to find out which rhetorical elements are more frequently applied in the paragraph structure of psychology and management and whether the two disciplines differ in terms of the frequency of these rhetorical elements. In particular, this study addresses the following research questions:

Q1: What is the frequency of rhetorical functions, rhetorical techniques, type of core statement, and type of correspondence in psychology?

Q2: What is the frequency of rhetorical functions, rhetorical techniques, type of core statement, and type of correspondence in management?

Q3: Is there any significant difference between computer psychology and management with regards to the frequency of these elements?

The findings of the study will be useful for materials production and textbook writers in that they give materials writers' insights into what is exactly involved in each field and provide them with detailed description of the frequency of different types of rhetorical functions, techniques, or types of paragraphs and the extent to which these elements need to be used in developing reading or writing materials

2 - Trimble' Rhetorical Approach

This section just reviews rhetorical elements in Trimble's approach (1985) to build the necessary ground for this study. As mentioned before, Trimble (1985) stated that certain rhetorical characteristics are observable in scientific English discourse that makes it different from other

forms of written English discourse. He tried to identify those characteristics and used the results of the study to develop classroom materials and taught those materials to non -native students in science or technical fields. This approach which aimed at teaching reading (and secondarily writing) to science students was called rhetorical approach. The rhetorical approach is built around three main rhetorical concepts:

1.   The nature of EST paragraph

2.   The rhetorical function most commonly used in written EST discourse

3.   The rhetorical techniques most commonly used in written EST discourse.

The key element in Trimble's approach to research and teaching of EST discourse is the notion of paragraph. He chose paragraph as the basic discourse unit for the analysis of EST discourse, because he believed that it carries appropriate piece of information and shows how various piece of information are related. He defined EST paragraph as " a unit of written English discourse that presents the reader with a selected amount of information on a given area of a subject. This information is so organized by the writer that the rhetorical concepts chosen and the relationships between these concepts are the most functional for both the rhetorical purpose of the paragraph and for the level reader; that is, the reader position in respect to the subject matter under discussion -beginner, expert, etc." (P.15). Trimble made a distinction between two types of paragraphs: physical and conceptual paragraphs. Conceptual paragraph "consists of all the information chosen by the writer to develop a generalization, whether this is stated or implied ". The physical paragraph, in his opinion, refers to "that amount of information relating to the generalization which is set off from other parts of the discourse by spacing or indentation" (P.15)

He further stated that the distinction between physical and conceptual paragraphs necessitates the ideas of "correspondence" and "core generalization". When a conceptual paragraph is developed by only one physical paragraph, we have one -to -one - correspondence and when it is developed by two physical paragraphs, we have one -to - more - than –one -correspondence. In terms of the place of the core statement, there are four types of paragraphs: those which have their core statement at the beginning (deductive), those which have their core statement in the middle (hybrid), those which have their core statement at the end (inductive), and finally those which have implied core statements. The findings of this study will also have some pedagogical implications especially in regard to reading and writing.

Rhetorical functions, in fact, constitute the basis of the rhetorical approach are defined as '' a name for what a given unit of discourse is trying to do'' (p. 12). He presented description, definition, classification, instruction, and visual -verbal relationship as the most frequent rhetorical functions in written EST discourse. And finally rhetorical techniques are those elements that bind together the information in a piece of discourse. He presented two types of rhetorical techniques: natural order and logical order. Natural orders are those techniques that are imposed by the nature of the material and include space order, time order, and cause/ effect. Logical orders are those techniques that are imposed by the writer's choice and include order of importance, comparison/contrast, exemplification, analogy. In addition to these rhetorical techniques, rhetorical functions sometimes act as rhetorical techniques and serve to develop the main rhetorical function. For example, the rhetorical function of description may be used as a rhetorical technique to develop the rhetorical function of definition.

3 -The Data

The corpus used in the present study consisted of two textbooks for Master of Art students. To obtain a random sampling of the textbooks, the researcher consulted with professors in the respective disciplines. After consultation, several textbooks were introduced among which one textbook for each discipline were randomly selected: for management *(Management of Organizational Behavior, Heresy and Blanchard, 1988)*, and for psychology *(Abnormal Psychology, Dacison and Neal, 2001)*. The topics dealt with in these books were not general; rather they were all concerned with specific concepts within the respected disciplines. The researcher felt that 100 pages of each textbook has an acceptable, yet manageable number of paragraphs required to obtain an accurate sampling. On the whole, about 500 paragraphs were analyzed carefully in the four textbooks. Moreover, the very first paragraph of each chapter was not analyzed, postulating that it had an introductory nature and most of the time was a description of previous chapter and consequently it would not yield the most representative sample.

In order to increase validity of the study, training sessions were held for a week during which a postgraduate researcher taught the researcher how to analyze paragraphs in terms of these rhetorical elements. After getting familiar with the analysis procedures, the researcher began to analyze the selected textbooks. The analyses of textbooks were reviewed and examined several times during frequent discussions with the postgraduate researcher in order to achieve almost complete agreement about the identified elements. After the data collection, the data were stored in computer. The frequency of these variables was recorded. To determine whether there is a significant disciplinary variation Chi -square method was applied. The acceptance of level for the hypothesis was set at 0.01.

3.1. Sample Analysis

> **1. Satisfying** factors **that involve feeling of achievement, professional growth, and recognition that one can experience in a job that offers challenge and scope are referred to as** motivators**.** <u>Hertzberg</u> **used this term** <u>because</u> **these factors seem capable of having a positive effect on job satisfaction, often resulting in an increase in ones total output capacity". [Source: Heresy and Blanchard, 1988:15]**

The first sample paragraph was selected from management textbook.

1. This paragraph has one physical and one conceptual paragraph, that is, we have one -to -one correspondence.

1.   The core statement is in fact the definition of *motivation* which is located at the beginning of the paragraph. So the paragraph is deductive.

2. The rhetorical function is "formal definition" because it provides all three types of information of formal definitions: the term (motivation), the class (factors), and the difference (that involve feeling of achievement, professional growth, and recognition that one can experience in a job that offers challenge and scope).

3. The main rhetorical technique of this paragraph is "appeal to authority" (Hertzberg) and the second one is "cause/effect" (because these factors seem capable of having a positive effect on job satisfaction).

> The following paragraph has been selected from psychology textbook<u>1.The symptoms for PTSD</u> are grouped into three major categories. The diagnosis requires

that symptoms in each category last longer than one month.

2. Re -experiencing the traumatic event. The individual frequency recalls the event and experiences nightmares. Intense emotional upset is produced by a stimulus that symbolizes the event (e.g., thunder, reminding a veteran of the battlefield) or on anniversaries of some specific experiences (e.g., the day a woman was assaulted). In a laboratory confirmation of this symptom, the Stroop test was administered to Vietnam veterans with and without PTSD (McNally et al, 1990). In this test the participant sees a set of words indifferent colors and must name the color of each word as rapidly as possible and not simply say the word. Inference, measured as a slowing of response time, occurs because of the content of some words. Words from several different categories -neutral (e.g. "input"), positive (e.g., "love"), obsessive -compulsive disorder (e.g., "germs"), and PTSD (e.g., "body - bags") were used in this study. Veterans with PTSD were slower than veterans without PTSD only on the PTSD words. The same effect has been has been documented for rape victims (Foa et al, 1991). Similarly, patients with PTSD show better recall for words related to their trauma (Vrana, &Beckhan, 1995).

3. Avoidance of stimuli associated with the event or numbing of responsiveness. The person tries to avoid thinking about trauma or encountering stimuli that will bring it to mind; there may be amnesia for the event. Numbing refers to decreased interest in others, a sense of estrangement, and an inability to feel positive emotions. These symptoms seem almost contradictory to those in item 1. In PTSD there is in fact fluctuation; the person goes back and forth between re - experiencing and numbing.

4. Symptoms of increased arousal. These symptoms include difficulties falling or staying asleep, difficulty concentrating, hyper vigilance, and an exaggerated startle response. Laboratory studies have confirmed these clinical symptoms by documenting the heightened physiological reactivity of PTSD patients to combat imagery (e.g., Orr et al, 1995) and their high -magnitude startle responses (Shalev et al, 2001). (Dacison and Neal, 2001:164).

4. Results

First, the results regarding the rhetorical functions in management and psychology are presented in table 1.

Table 1. Chi -square tests for rhetorical functions in management and psychology

Function	Discipline					Total		
	Management			Psychology				
	Count		Expect.	Count		Expect.	Count		Expect.
	F	Per.		F	Per.		F	Per	
Description	63	31.5	51.5	40	20.0	51.5	103	51.5	103

Definition	26	13.0	28.0	30	15.0	28	56	28.0	56
Classification	6	3.0	17.5	29	14.5	17.5	35	17.5	35
Instruction	5	2.5	3.0	1	0.5	3.0	6	3.0	6.0
Total	100	50.0%	100.0	100	50.0%	100.0	200	100.0%	200.0

X^2=23.20 df =3 P<0.0001

The chi -square test, as shown in table 1, indicates that although the most frequent rhetorical function in management and psychology is description, there is a *significant difference* between management and psychology textbooks *in terms of rhetorical functions* (x2=23.20, df = 3,p< 0.0001).

The results concerning the differences between the disciplines in terms of the rhetorical techniques are presented in table 2.

Table 2. Chi -square test result for the rhetorical techniques in management and psychology

Technique	Discipline						Total		
	Management			Psychology					
	Count			Count			Count		
			Expect.			Expect.			Expect.
	F	Per.		F	Per.		F	Per.	
Time order	7	3.5	6.5	6	3.0	6.5	13	6.5	13.0
Cause/effect	30	15.0	33.0	36	18	33.0	66	33.0	66.0
Order of importance	1	0.5	.5	0	.0	.5	1	0.5	1.0
Comparison/contrast	6	3.0	6.5	7	3.5	6.5	13	6.5	13.0
Exemplification	20	10.0	16.5	13	6.5	16.5	33	16.5	33.0
Appeal to authority	16	8.0	16.5	17	8.5	16.5	33	16.5	33.0
Visual information	8	4.0	5.5	3	1.5	5.5	11	5.5	11.0
Description	2	1.0	6.0	10	5.0	6.0	12	6.0	12.0
Definition	7	3.5	6.0	5	2.5	6.0	12	6.0	12.0

Classification	3	1.5	2.0	1	0.5	2.0	4	2.0	4.0
Instruction	0	.0	1.0	2	1.0	1.0	2	1.0	2.0
Total	100	50.0	100.0	100	50.0	100.0	200	100.0	200.0

$X^2=14.15\ df=11\ p>0.16$

In terms of the *rhetorical techniques*, also management was not *significantly* different from psychology ($X^2=14.15$, $df=11$, $p>0.16$). In fact, the most frequent technique was cause/effect in management and psychology.

And finally, the results regarding to the correspondence and the position of the core statement are presented in table 3 and 4.

Table 3. Chi -square tests for the frequency of the position of core statement

Paragraph	Discipline						Total		
	Management			Psychology					
	Count		Expect.	Count		Expect.	Count		Expect.
	F	Per.		F	Per.		F	Per.	
Deductive	88	44.0	88.0	88	44.0	88.0	176	88.0	176.0
Inductive	3	1.5	6.0	9	4.5	6.0	12	6.0	12.0
Hybrid	9	4.5	5.5	2	1.0	5.5	11	5.5	11.0
Implied	0	.0	.5	1	.5	.5	1	.5	1.0
Total	100	50.0%	100.0	100	50.0%	100.0	200	100.0%	200.0

$X^2=8.45\ df=3\ p<0.04$

As you can see from the table above, the most frequent type of core statement in management and psychology discourse is deductive, that is, most paragraphs in management and psychology have their topic at the beginning. Chi -square test results in table 3 also indicate that there is a significant difference between the two disciplines in terms of the frequency of the type of topic($x^2=8.45$, df = 3, p < 0.04).

Table 4.Chi -square test for the frequency of correspondence

Paragraph	Discipline	Total

	Management			Psychology					
	Count		Expect.	Count		Expect.	Count		Expect.
	F	Per.		F	Per.		F	Per.	
One -to -one correspondence	56	28.0	60.0	64	32.0	60.0	120	60.0	120.0
One -to -more -than -one	44	40.0	40.0	36	18.0	40.0	80	40.0	80.0
Total	100	50.0%	100.0	100	50.0%	100.0	200	100.0%	200.0

$X^2 = 1.33 \ df = 1 \ P < 0.25$

As you can see from the table 4 one -to -one -correspondence is more frequent in management and psychology. However as shown in table 4 above, the chi -square test result was *not significant* for the difference between computer and chemical engineering in terms of type of paragraph ($x^2 = 1.33 \ df = 4$, $p < 0.25$).

5 - Conclusions and Implications

In view of the results reported above, at least in the present data there are some differences in the frequency of different types of rhetorical elements in the selected textbooks and it can be suggested that different disciplinary contexts influence textual representations of rhetorical elements. The results show that each discipline has a paragraph order unique to itself and the general nature of each discipline influences on the incidence and variety of rhetorical functions and rhetorical techniques.

Holmes (1988, as quoted in Varttala, 2001) believes that information obtained through the analysis of authentic data is of great significance in educational contexts as it gives educational programmers and materials writers "some awareness of the relative frequency of different contexts so that they can accurately gauge the stylistic effect of using one form rather than one another"(p.23). As evidence indicates the existing materials do not satisfy the current demanding requirements of Iranian classroom realities (Esfahani, 2004) and the existing materials have been based on no clear principle of discourse or genre analysis (Soleimani, 2005). So the results of this study will provide Iranian materials developers with practical and useful information regarding the textual characteristics of each field and they can build materials which have a sound rhetorical basis. These findings show that instead of perceiving textbooks from different fields of study as rhetorically similar, more attention should be paid to the variations between these fields. From the viewpoint of materials designs, more emphasis should be placed on these potential variations and in producing contextually appropriate textbooks, textbook writers need to be aware of rhetorical characteristics of the particular discipline and rules governing organizations of information. Materials writers in different disciplines will need to write in different ways, following what is conventional in their discourse community.

The findings are also of great importance to language teachers in that it provides teachers with systematic knowledge of the ways of describing texts, and they can make their students aware of features of specific discourse. The knowledge of arrangement and variety of rhetorical functions

and techniques and paragraph types influences students' understanding, as well as the speed of perception (Yorkey, 1970; Wright, 1987). Sensitizing students to the linguistic characteristics of their academic texts and to the existing differences across different disciplines make them pay more attention to the range of language forms that can be used to express the basic rhetoric of the academic papers they write. Imparting the knowledge of rhetorical structure results in increasing awareness of the conventions of writing, and teaching students to produce well -formed and suitable texts.

Although the present study has found some differences between the two disciplines, but a larger corpus is needed to determine the generalisability of the findings. Further research focusing on variation among other disciplines and analyzing more textbooks or even other types of academic discourse such as research articles might yield new insights into the phenomenon of interdisciplinary variation not only in the structural organization of textbooks but other types of academic texts.

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A comparative study of L2 readers' performances on general purpose and academic purpose texts

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Abstract

The present study sought to investigate the role of L2 proficiency in reading general purpose (GP) and academic purpose (AP) texts, and the predictability of reading performance on AP texts from performance on GP texts. It is hypothesized that performance on GP is predictive of performance on AP. To this end, two groups of medical students, each consisting of 35 students took part in the study. They were screened and divided into two groups of low and high proficiency students. Tests of both GP and AP reading comprehension were administered to them simultaneously.

The results of the analysis of data revealed that the level of proficiency is influential in both GP and AP reading tasks, and the level of predictability is higher for the high proficiency group than for low proficiency group. The findings lend support to the threshold hypothesis, i.e., a minimal required level of L2 proficiency prior to reading task is needed for the students to be successful in reading their academic English texts.

Key words: L2 proficiency, general purpose, academic purpose

Introduction

The ability to read academic texts efficiently and effectively particularly at tertiary level is assumed as a major need for the students. Some of the students who are admitted to colleges and universities are at times faced with difficulties reading their texts due to several factors including low general proficiency or incompatibility of English teaching/learning at high school and universities (Kramsch, 1998). Therefore, the ability to read and understand academic texts in English is an essential skill that students should master. Unfortunately, achieving success in this skill is not a simple task as it involves, mastering sub -skills such as "discerning main ideas, understanding sequence, noticing specific details, making inferences, making comparisons, and making predictions" (Richards & Schmidt, 2002, p. 444).

According to Alderson (2000) reading involves the process of reading and the result of that process which is the product of the reading process (comprehension) in which the reader interacts with the text. During the process the reader looks at the print, tries to decipher the symbols, decides on the meaning of the words, etc.

Traditionally reading materials were prepared on the basis of target situation analysis and the corresponding linguistic description and little attention was paid to learners' characteristics, skills and strategies. This approach is usually referred to as product -oriented (Nunan, 1993). The criticism of the product oriented approach is on the grounds that it emphasises the linguistic competence at the expense of communicative competence. This shortcoming gave rise to the emergence of process oriented approach which focuses on the mental processes involved in doing the task and approximating them in teaching procedures (Alderson & Urquhart, 1985; Widdowson, 1983; Hutchinson & Waters, 1987). The implication has been giving credence to linguistic description, needs analysis, learning theories and learners' factors. The same trend was followed in English for Academic Purposes (EAP) material development. The challenges facing

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the practitioners are lack of familiarity with such cognitive and affective factors and their practicality in classroom settings. Doing exercises such as gradual approximation, information transfer and text diagramming have been recommended to cognitively facilitate imparting the skills and strategies in the learners (Widdowson, 1978).

EAP as a sub branch of English for Specific Purposes (ESP) is basically founded on the general assumption that academic texts in all disciplines have common features which are somehow different from general purpose texts and that they could be more focally taught and learned (Johnson & Johnson, 1998). For example the frequency of present tense and passive forms is higher in academic texts than in general purpose texts. EAP is less subject specific than ESP and as Robinson (1991) has duly noted, extensive reading in general academic materials should be emphasised. In contrast some other practitioners maintain that ESP is more rewarding and emphasise on genre analysis approach to material preparation and teaching (Swales, 1985). Broadly speaking and in terms of content, two approaches to teaching/learning academic texts can hence be distinguished; one emphasizing the common core (Clapham, 2001) and the other emphasizing subject specific materials (Hyland, 2002).

Placing emphasis on language usage rather than use (to use Widdowson's terms) was the outcome of product approaches. In EAP it is believed that academic texts have shared features and readers in different fields have shared knowledge which is essential to effective communication, so familiarity with the discipline's specific conventions, terminology and disciplinary behaviours can help authenticate the texts (Widdowson, 1983). To fulfil such a need theorists and practitioners have tried to design courses which can help overcome the barriers to international and intercultural communication in the shared specific subjects, or to create a "global language" (Pakir, 1999, p. 81). Thus the role of non -native teachers and cultures becomes critical in this arena (Kramsch, 1998).

An area where the distinction between common core and specific language issues becomes very much clear is in language testing. The analysis of different academic language use is the basis of EAP testing. Such tests like IELTS academic are in contrast with general purpose tests including IELTS general or the TOEFL whose objectives are not specific and are broadly determined. The distinctive features of EAP tests such as IELTS academic are academic content, authenticity of the tasks, and the interaction between the testee's general proficiency and his academic background knowledge (Fulcher, 1999).

An important issue in reading is the role of general language proficiency in general purpose and academic purpose texts. Briefly, the bulk of findings have revealed the critical role of proficiency in grasping and interpreting the meaning and the purpose of the texts (Tindale, 2003). Low proficiency makes the students over rely on text processing at word and sentence levels (Bottom -up processing) whereas higher proficiency enables the readers to use their background content knowledge, and reading strategies more effectively (Alderson & Urquhart1985, Devine 1987). Low proficiency hinders the reading speed and leads to short circuit which limits the transfer of L1 skills and strategies to L2 reading tasks (Cohen, 1979). The more detailed account of the role of proficiency in reading activities is provided in the following chapter.

Regarding the issues went above, this study aims to look at the impact of the performance of some Iranian learners in general purpose English on that of the specific purpose.

Objectives of the study

This study seeks to determine how far an L2 reader's performance on general purpose (GP) texts are predictive of his/her performance on academic purpose (AP) texts. The investigation aims to find out to what extent this prediction is possible for both high proficiency and low proficiency

groups of students who have not passed any EAP courses yet. More specifically, the study attempts to find answers to the following questions:

1.   Is there a significant and positive relationship between the performance of Iranian learners in general purpose English (GP) and their performance in academic purpose English (AP)?

2.   How different are low and high achievers in their performance on GP and AP texts?

3.   Can performance in general purpose test significantly predict performance in academic tests?

The hypothesis is that performance on general purpose reading task is predictive of performance on academic texts. A regression analysis between these two performances will show if the hypothesis can be confirmed or not.

Method

The scheme of the proposed design is as follows: Level of proficiency	GP	AP
LOW	P1	P2
HIGH	P3	P4

P1, P2, P3, P4 are representatives of subjects' scores on GP and AP reading texts.

Participants

The design of the study required two groups of participants, each of which consisting of thirty five students majoring in medicine and who were in their first year of education. The selection procedure in this study is convenient sampling. This is because going through randomisation procedures was not practical and the researcher had to select the participants who were available and happy to cooperate.

The students in both groups had not passed any English for Academic Purpose courses and were studying at Kazeroon Azad university in Iran. They were assigned as low proficiency and high proficiency groups of mixed students based on their performances on a placement test administered to them.

It seems essential to give a brief background of the status of the English language in Iran and university students' command of English. Generally the language of instruction in Iran is not English except for Medical students who are required to read their texts in anatomy, histology, biochemistry and the like in English. It is worth mentioning that the sharpest students go for medicine in Iran and admission is extremely competitive. On average one out of about two thousand can get admission to the university to study medicine. English is taught for three years at secondary schools. The goal of the curriculum has been defined to enable students in their reading comprehension in English. The secondary school students attend English classes for two hours per week.

The university English textbooks are not translated into the native language (Persian). The

students should become familiar with the skills and strategies associated with medical texts and topics. Those students who are to pursue their studies to become consultants should develop a good command of English because the entrance exams are all basically in English.

Instrumentation

A placement test and four reading texts in the form of passages constitute the instrument in this study; the placement test consisted of multiple choice items on vocabulary, grammar and reading comprehension. The reading passages were two GP and two AP passages in the form of a reading comprehension set of passages. The GP texts were selected from TOEFL standard sources and the AP texts were selected from IELTS Academic exams samples (see the Appendix). Each reading passage was followed by ten reading comprehension questions. Ten points, as described in the appendix was given to each passage, therefore, there were 20 points for GP and 20 points for AP and in total 40 points for both. The allotted time for doing the tasks of reading and answering the questions of the four passages was 80 minutes. Two tests of reliability were run on the data to determine the reliability of the placement test and the passages. The resulting index was 0.89 for the placement test and 0.82 for the passages respectively. The indices show that the instruments are reasonably reliable.

The validity of the placement test and the passages were established through seeking two university language teachers who are experienced in English language testing. They unanimously approved both content and face validity of the instruments. The construct validity of both sets of tests was checked using factor analysis. The resulting analysis for the placement test had loadings on three components. This suggests that the three parts of the test have higher correlation on three factors. It can be claimed with reasonable confidence that these three components are, in fact, the three parts of the test, that is; vocabulary, grammar and reading comprehension.

The same procedure was followed for the reading comprehension test. The resulting analysis extracted one component, suggesting reading comprehension.

Procedures

The placement test was first administered to assign the participants into two groups of high and low proficiency. Those scored within the range of 32 -40% were considered as low and those above 65% as high. There were 17 girls (out of 35) in low proficiency group and 21 in high proficiency group. The students had been taught general English only during the four years of education at high schools.

The four passages in the form of a battery of reading comprehension tests were administered to both high and low proficiency groups simultaneously and students were not aware of the kind of test they were going to take. Both groups took the tests. To remove practice effect, the students were not told beforehand what kinds of materials are included in the test. Clear instruction about how to do the test was provided.

In order to answer the questions posed in chapter 1, the relevant statistical analysis were conducted on the data. The procedures that followed were descriptive statistics of frequencies, Pearson correlation, t -test, and regression analysis.

Analysis and Discussion

A descriptive statistics revealed that the mean in AP scores is higher than the mean in GP scores for both proficiency groups. In comparison, higher proficiency group's performance on both AP and GP texts were better than lower proficiency counterparts. The figures also showed that the

standard deviation in AP was lower than the standard deviation in GP texts for both groups of students. Lower standard deviation means higher level of homogeneity. Thus, greater homogeneity was observed in AP reading performance than in GP reading one, with the level of homogeneity for higher proficiency group greater than that for lower proficiency group.

In order to answer the first question of the study a correlational analysis was run on the data to find out the extent of the relationship. The data in this study are of the interval kind, so the appropriate method of the analysis is using Pearson's product moment correlation coefficient formula. This was carried out on both the low group and the high group, the results of which appear in Tables 1 and 2 below.

Table 1 Correlation of GP and AP for Low Table 2 Correlation of GP and AP for High

Correlations[a]

		GP	AP
GP	Pearson Correlation	1	.447**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.	.007
	N	35	35
AP	Pearson Correlation	.447**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.007	.
	N	35	35

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level
a. GROUP = low

Correlations[a]

		GP	AP
GP	Pearson Correlation	1	.513**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.	.002
	N	35	35
AP	Pearson Correlation	.513**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.002	.
	N	35	35

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level
a. GROUP = high

According to Table 1 and 2 the correlations are positive and significant for both the low and the high group (R= 0.447, P -value= 0.007<0.05) for the low proficiency group and the same was true for higher proficiency one (R=0.513, P -value=0.002<0.05). This suggests that there is a moderate relation between participants' performance in their general proficiency and their academic performance. It is clear that the R for the high group is higher.

The extent of overlap between the two variables is usually established through squaring the obtained coefficient index (R). This is called coefficient of determination. The coefficient of determination for the low group is 0.20. This suggests that there is a 20% overlap between the two variables here for the low group between their performance on GP and AP tests. The coefficient of determination for the high group is 0.26, however. This suggests that there is a 26% overlap between the two variables here for the high group. It is clear that the relationship between the two variables (GP and AP) for the high group is stronger. This stronger relationship could be attributed to the high group's underlying knowledge of the English language, i.e., their English language proficiency.

Between and within group comparison

To find answers to the second question of the study, two types of analysis are carried out on the data here. One is Independent -samples t -test to look at the differences between the two groups in terms of their performance on GP and AP test. The other is paired -sample t -test which compares the two performances of the group together.

Independent -samples t -test was done to compare the two groups. The results of this analysis appear in Table 3 below.

Table 3 Independent -Samples test for the low and high group on GP and AP

Independent Samples Test

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t -test for Equality of Means						
							Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2 -tailed)	Difference	Difference	Lower	Upper
GP	Equal variances assumed	1.950	.167	-10.707	68	.000	-3.54	.331	-4.203	-2.883
	Equal variances not assumed			-10.707	67.166	.000	-3.54	.331	-4.203	-2.882
AP	Equal variances assumed	.451	.504	-11.502	68	.000	-3.60	.313	-4.225	-2.975
	Equal variances not assumed			-11.502	67.190	.000	-3.60	.313	-4.225	-2.975

According to Table 3, there was a significant difference between the two groups' performances in both GP and AP reading texts; for GP (t= -10.707, df=68, P -value=0.000<0.05) and for AP (t= -11.502, df=68, P -value= 0.000<0.05). But the gap between the two groups was wider in the case of AP than in GP. This indicates that the high group performs significantly better than the low group.

Paired t -test was used to compare performance on GP and AP within each group of proficiency. Table 4 shows that there are significant differences between performances on GP and AP for both groups. Both groups have performed significantly better on AP than on GP reading texts. For low proficiency group (t= -8.146, df=34, P -value=0.000<0.05) and for high proficiency group (t= -9.968, df=34, p -value= 0.000<0.05).

Table 4 Paired samples T -test

	T	Df	Sig. (2 - tailed)
Pair 1: GP -AP Low	- 8.146	34	0.000
Pair2: GP -AP High	- 9.968	34	0.000

Regression Analysis

In statistical analysis, prediction is based on regression; therefore, linear regression analysis was run on the data to find the answer to the third question. The results appear in tables 5 and 6 below.

Table 5 Prediction of AP from GP for the low group

Coefficients[a,b]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	8.639	1.691		5.108	.000
	GP	.423	.147	.447	2.872	.007

a. Dependent Variable: AP

b. GROUP = low

Table 6 Prediction of AP from GP for the high group

Coefficients[a,b]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	9.800	2.122		4.619	.000
	GP	.486	.141	.513	3.433	.002

a. Dependent Variable: AP

b. GROUP = high

The analysis is significant for both groups; the Beta for the low group is .447 (Sig.=.007) and this for the high group is .513 (Sig.= .002). The Beta for the low group suggests that nearly 45% of the variation in AP can be accounted for by GP. The Beta for the high group suggests that 51% of the variation is accounted for by GP. As can be seen the Beta for the high group is higher than the low group. Since Beta value is greater for higher proficient subjects, it can be concluded that the level of the predictability of AP reading performance from GP reading performance is higher for higher proficiency group than for lower proficiency group.

Discussion

As revealed in the results, higher proficiency group outperformed the lower proficiency counterparts on both AP and GP reading tasks. One implication may be that commonality rather than specificity should be emphasized in teaching/learning English although academic texts coming from different disciplines are different in terms of rhetorical and discoursal features as well as vocabulary and grammar. Common core language underlying academic materials should be of concern to practitioners in both teaching and testing, as practiced in IELTS.

The results also showed that both higher and lower proficiency groups performed better on AP than on GP reading texts. Also, lower variance or greater homogeneity was found in AP for both groups. These findings may be in line with the view that academic corpus has its own peculiar culture so homogeneity among students is expected (Widdowson, 1979; Joag -Dev, 1984). The interaction between subject -specific background knowledge and knowledge of English is also a distinctive feature of EAP reading tasks. Douglas (2000, p.2) has noted that "background knowledge is a necessary, integral part of the concept of specific purpose language ability". Lower proficiency group's better performance on AP texts may lend support to compensatory effect of academic background knowledge as shown in some studies such as Douglas (2000).

There is also a bigger gap between the two groups of proficiency in the present study in AP task than in GP. Since the two groups have been at the same level of academic education, again language proficiency may be taken to be responsible for the gap, i.e., higher proficient group outperform the lower proficient one. Higher competence allows and helps the more proficient readers to use contextual constraints, textual cues such as cohesive devices more efficiently (Cooper, 1984). Psycholinguistic studies are also in support of this view in terms of parsing and word recognition (Kintsch, 1988; Perfetti & McCutcheon, 1987).

Lower proficiency may hinder the activation of the possessed schemata , i.e., the student possesses the required background content knowledge, but due to lower proficiency the text becomes opaque to him because he cannot use the cues to make the meaning (Carrell & Wallace, 1983). So the availability of schemata doesn't presuppose its activation. Such a failure makes the students linguistically text bound and they process the text just at word or sentence levels (Bottom -up processing) and no attention is paid to higher level organization of the texts. This fact again lends support to threshold hypothesis, i.e., the need for a ceiling of general knowledge of the language which allows for higher order processing of the text (Alderson, 1984).

Regarding the predictability of performance on AP texts from performance on GP texts, the statistical analysis showed that there is a greater possibility of the prediction for higher

proficiency group. The superiority of this group's performance on both GP and AP reading texts and the higher level of predictability together are in support of the critical role of proficiency in reading activities.

Bearing in mind the above -said results and findings, it seems the major difficulties facing Iranian students at tertiary level of education are rooted in the lack of optimum proficiency required for successful reading of the texts at university level (Farhady, et al. 1994). The positive correlation between general proficiency and performance on AP reading texts seems crystal clear (Bayliss & Raymond, 2004; Feast, 2002). Proficiency could be assumed as predictive of university candidates' performance on prospective academic courses, and if so, selection procedures in National Entrance Exam should be revised so that more proficient high school graduates are admitted to the universities in Iran. English teaching methodology at universities in Iran should also be revolutionized and efforts should be made to make student autonomous and independent readers.

Conclusion and Implications

This study revealed the significance of proficiency in reading both GP and AP texts. In other words, the existence of a linear correlation between proficiency level and reading performance was revealed. General knowledge of language appeared to be a relatively powerful indicator of reading the texts. However, the significant role of disciplinary knowledge should not be overlooked. Some studies have shown that the students not always perform better in their subject areas (Koh, 1985; Alderson & Urquhart, 1985), whereas some others are supportive of the significance of discipline related knowledge particularly in EAP reading activities (Clapham, 1996; Ridgway 1997). Clapham (2001) argued that the more specific the reading passage is, the more powerful the effect background knowledge will have on reading comprehension.

EAP reading is a multifaceted activity and is not just a matter of interaction between English knowledge and subject knowledge. Affective factors such as motivation, attitude, self confidence and the student's purposes are influential as well (Bernhardt & Kamil, 1995; Pichette, Segalowitz & Conors, 2003). L1 reading skills also play some part in reading AP texts.

One implication from this study may be that general proficiency can predict academic reading ability better than discipline related knowledge. Therefore, successful EAP reading becomes possible with little disciplinary knowledge if the reader is sufficiently proficient. The pedagogic implication of this finding is that in the case of lower proficiency students, attempts should be made to improve their proficiency; thereby the threshold needed becomes stronger for successful EAP reading. Since university classes begin in September in Iran, the authorities can prepare intensive English teaching programs for the admitted students whose proficiency is low. These courses should focus on familiarizing students with text processing strategies which are believed to be valuable in reading activities (Farrell 2001). Metacognitive awareness of these strategies is found effective in some studies (Schoonen, Hulstijn & Bossers, 1998).

Content -based instruction could be another implication of the findings in this study. This refers to developing proficiency in language through materials chosen from the subjects that students are to deal with. Loads of materials with difficult syntactic and semantic features should be avoided. The main purpose is to enhance English knowledge through content rather than learning the content per se. Instruction is more effective because materials are of needs and interests to the students and are authentic as well. The result is more motivated students have fewer challenges and troubles reading their academic texts. Instead, they feel a greater sense of achievement in content based instruction (Short, 1994).

As for Iranian students, serious attempts should be made by the authorities to enrich L2

education particularly at high schools. In doing so the gap between university education and that at high schools is minimized. However, such plans demand expertise, money and time. Collaboration between efficient English teachers and subject teachers could be very helpful in this respect.

To promote the quality of language teaching and learning, some recent findings are in support of a focus on form instruction (Lightbown & Spada, 1994). This method along with corrective feedback are shown to be more effective than the instructions which emphasizes either accuracy or fluency. This doesn't imply that the teachers should overlook all errors particularly the persistent ones. Helping students to notice through focusing the attention on such forms is effective. Obviously errors which are of developmental type cannot be easily corrected. Excessive feedback on errors might also have a negative effect. A recommended technique is to create situations in the classrooms in which the students are encouraged to use the forms in communicative tasks, e.g., through asking questions and receiving feedbacks.

Unfortunately the majority of English teachers in Iran emphasize accuracy and do not care about communicative and spontaneous use of language being taught. The reason might be the tests in Entrance Exams which are chiefly accuracy based forms. On the other hand, pure communicative methods do not draw attention to form and error correction. It seems a balance between the two extremes is the most advisable method. However, keeping the balance is itself a challenge to teachers, because teachers should know when the corrective feedback should be given to which learners and for which forms.

Teachers have almost no control over most learners' factors including IQ, motivation, cognitive styles and the like. What teachers can do is creating an atmosphere in the classroom conducive to more effective learning. The teachers should take into account the age, sex, field of study and background knowledge of the learners when embarking on the job of teaching.

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ENGLISH FOR SPECIFIC PURPOSES: ITS MEANING AND IMPORTANCE IN PRESENT INDIAN SCENARIO

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ABSTRACT

Teaching process in India to some extent still depends upon conventional objectives of passing the examination and getting jobs according to the academic achievements in the form of grades and percentage. Students focus more on syllabus contents and get less time to concentrate on expanding their knowledge outside syllabus. Same thing happens in case of English learning also. Students concentrate more on learning answers to the questions provided to them by their teachers and grammar exercises done in the class. The obvious result is though they score very high in their subject but when it comes to using the knowledge they are complete failure. They lack appropriate words to convey their message in their work place. My paper deals with same issue and also with the importance of English for specific Purposes in present scenario.

Article Outline

1. Introduction – Importance of ESP in Indian Scenario

2. Meaning of ESP

3. Absolute and variable characters of ESP

4. Difference between General English and ESP

4.1. Role of ESP teachers

4.2. Conclusion

References

Looking in Indian context 'English for specific purposes' is at its infancy. Learners feel that the things they have learned in their educational institutions or training centers are not proving helpful when they enter the workplace once they have completed their education. The problem does not restrict only to those students who have studied in Hindi medium schools but also with many who have got their education from good English medium schools. Generally the learners complain that the prescribed textbooks do not satisfy their needs. They feel high scarcity of appropriate words while at work place. Looking into the problem there is a need for instructors to understand what learners actually want. Three months spoken English courses supplied by various training centers are definitely not going to solve the problem. And one defined course cannot satisfy all the learners. We have to find out what kind of language acquisition is actually required by the learner. It is at this point importance of ESP emerges. But before plunging into it we need to know what actually English for Specific Purposes means and how is it different from General English courses. English for specific purposes is no doubt popular internationally. Most of us are also aware of a well established international journal dedicated to ESP discussion, "English for Specific Purposes: An International Journal". But in India ESP still needs long time to mature.

There is much confusion regarding the meaning of ESP not only in India but in various Asian countries. Being aware of the confusion Dudley – Evans, Co - editor of the ESP Journal came up with an extended definition of ESP in terms of 'absolute' and 'variable' characteristics.

Definition of ESP (Dudley -Evans, 1997)

Absolute Characteristics

1. ESP is defined to meet specific needs of the learners

2. ESP makes use of underlying methodology and activities of the discipline it serves

3. ESP is centered on the language appropriate to these activities in terms of grammar, lexis, register, study skills, discourse and genre.

Variable Characteristics

1. ESP may be related to or designed for specific disciplines

2. ESP may use, in specific teaching situations, a different methodology from that of

General English

3. ESP is likely to be designed for adult learners, either at a tertiary level institution or in a professional work situation. It could, however, be for learners at secondary school level.

4. ESP is generally designed for intermediate or advanced students.

5. Most ESP courses assume some basic knowledge of the language systems.

Dudley – Evans has no doubt done a wonderful job by dividing the ESP into absolute and variable characters. It helps in resolving arguments about what is and what is not ESP. He makes it clear that ESP can but is not necessarily related to specific discipline. It also does not aim at certain age group but generally used by adults. Hutchinson et el. rightly says, "ESP is an approach to language teaching in which all decisions as to content and method are based on

learners reason for learning."

Though the demarcation line between General English and ESP is very thin, it does exist. When asked about the differences Hutchinson et. al. (1987:53) aptly remarks "in theory nothing, in practical a great deal." Teachers teaching General English concentrate more on the language in general. They aim at giving the learners a course that may satisfy their urge to know and understand certain language but when it comes to ESP, teachers give more importance to needs analysis, material writers think very carefully about the goals of the learners. Based on my personal observation though India still depends on conventional approach of examination oriented teaching the scenario is slowly changing. While analyzing the syllabus prescribed at various technical colleges I have observed that teachers now days are getting aware of need analysis. The syllabus especially in technical institutes is designed in such a way that it to some extent matches the goal of the learners. While teaching communication skills in an engineering college for few years I observed that the syllabus concentrates even when it is dealing with written communication on writing tenders, quotations, reports, etc which of course will be frequently required by them in their work place. Teaching Business Communication at one of the reputed Business Schools of India I again felt that institute wants us to give different kind of training in communication to different areas opted by students. This proves that though not much but to some extent ESP is influencing English teaching in India. Various corporate sectors also provide training to their newly recruited employees concentrating on the kind of language and vocabulary they will be frequently using at their work place. Aviation industry is one such example.

As we see that the ESP is new concept in India the role of ESP teachers will also come as a challenge. Their role as a teacher will expand from teaching to a course designer, researcher, evaluators, etc. They will have to aim at giving a language that can be learnt for immediate use. They should aim at developing programmes that could help them en culturing the learners into the professional community. While drafting the projects for the learners they should intend at making them work independently in small groups. The project should involve exercises such as interviewing, talking to the people in the field, gathering information on the internet, through books, Journals, etc. In present context his role as a researcher becomes most important. He has to produce original and separate teaching material for separate fields. It is for this extremely vivid role that ESP teachers would play Swales (1985) prefers to use the term "ESP Practitioners" instead of "ESP Teachers".

Though in India and at various Asian countries ESP is still in its infancy but its future is bright. To make it flourish we need to make the entire community know what ESP actually represents. We have to come up openly with the differences ESP holds to General English. The training centers should also come up with different curriculum to different learners. With all these efforts ESP will definitely grow.

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Mobility and Individuality: Two Concepts ESP Students Should Know about American Culture

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Abstract

ESP students around the world who are intending to communicate with their American counterparts should be aware of the key concepts of American culture as well as the structure and skills knowledge of English. This paper reports the results of an ethnographic interview conducted with a female American college freshman. The study focuses on two key concepts of American culture: mobility and individuality. It is important for ESP students to know about these concepts as they can affect the quality of communication in the workplace and in daily life.

1. Introduction

Culture is an inseparable aspect of language. ESP students around the world who are intending to communicate with their American counterparts should be aware of the key concepts of American culture as well as the structure and skills knowledge of English. This paper reports the results of an ethnographic interview conducted with a female American college freshman. The study focuses on two key concepts of American culture: mobility and individuality. It is important for ESP students to know about these concepts as they can affect the quality of communication in the workplace and in daily life.

Culture is basically defined as the set of ideas, beliefs, assumptions, and norms that are widely shared among a group of people, and that serve as a guide and reference to those people's behavior (Yamauchi, 1998; Goodeneough, 1973). Hofstede and Hofstede (2005) refer to culture as patterns of thinking, feeling, and potential acting that were learned throughout one's lifetime. These patterns are mostly acquired in early childhood, and they are extremely difficult to change. They state that "culture is learned, not innate. It derives from one's social environment rather than one's genes" (p. 4).

As people around the world live in different social environments, they develop different thinking, feeling, and acting styles in their lives. As these cultural differences affect people's ways of interpreting the environment, they should be taken into consideration carefully when people from different cultures interact with each other. Since the overall aim of teaching English as a foreign/second language is to help people to be able to interact in this target language, the culture of the target language should also be learned and taught by English teachers. As an English teacher, my overall aim in this study was to better understand some of the features of American culture, and for that purpose, following Spradley's (1979) guidelines, I conducted ethnographic interviews with a female American college freshman.

I have always been interested in American culture, first as an English learner, then as an English language teacher. However, before I came to the U.S.A. four years ago, my only source of information about American culture had been textbooks, some novels, and Hollywood movies. However, spending one year in America and experiencing the culture shock taught me far more than I learned during my entire studies in Turkey. Hofstede and Hofstede (2005) state that "studying culture without experiencing culture shock is like practicing swimming without water" (p. xi). Conducting this study after spending some time in this culture also helped me to develop

some further understandings and to correct some misconceptions related to American culture.

2. Ethnographic Interview

2.1. Describing the Informant

Celine (pseudo name) is a 21 year -old white female who was born and raised in Buffalo, New York until the age of 12. Although she is older than typical American freshmen (the reasons for this are going to be discussed in the following sections), she is a college freshman at a university in upstate New York. Both of Celine's parents are American. Her father's roots go back to France, and her mother's grand grandfathers came to America from England. Her parents got divorced when she was 8 years old. Both of her parents still live in Buffalo. She also has two older brothers, one of them is 28 and the other is 32.

2.2. Interviewing the Informant

I met Celine two months before we started the interviews. In those two months, Celine had become one of my good friends. The rapport between her and me was one of the primary reasons why I chose her as my informant for this study. Spradley (1979) states 'establishing rapport with the informant' as one of the very important parts of the ethnographic interview process, and I had already established a good rapport with my informant. Another important reason was that during the time we spent together I understood that she enjoys talking about herself. When I asked her for being my informant for this study, she said 'Yes' without any hesitation. In fact, the interviews with her were not so different from the regular time we spent together, she would talk about herself and I would ask questions to delve deeply into what she said. The only difference was that I was recording what she said, but she always seemed to be not bothered with the tape - recording.

I conducted four interviews with Celine, each interview took about one hour. Following Spradley's (1979) methodology, I built each interview on the information coming from the previous interviews. I assured her before the study that her name will remain anonymous, and a copy of the final paper will be shared with her. Also, before each interview I reminded her that she has the right to 'not to answer' any question she wants. During the first interview I wanted her to tell me about her education starting from kindergarten. This was in fact a brief history of her entire life because I asked follow -up questions whenever she mentioned something new. Therefore, although the first interview was focusing on her education in the beginning, it then turned out to be a general history of her life and experiences. The following three interviews were all based on the previous interviews. In other words, after each interview, I transcribed the tape -recordings and analyzed the transcriptions for emerging topics, and in the next interview I asked some major and minor questions about the topics I was interested in from the previous interview or interviews.

After the last interview I went back to the whole data, and read and analyzed it again in the light of emerging issues during the interviews. As a result of the final analysis, I came up with two main underlying themes about American culture which emerged from the data: mobility and individuality. I have identified these two as the main themes because many notions that reoccur again and again in the data can be classified under these two umbrella terms. The rest of this paper is going to focus on both of these themes one by one.

3. Themes of Cultural Description

3.1. Mobility

Although I was non -judgmental and unprejudiced about American culture before and during the

entire study, I had thought about possible themes I might have found with this study before I started data analysis. I have to admit that mobility was not one of the themes I was expecting to find out because my informant was a 21 year -old college student. How mobile could she have possibly been? By then end of the first interview, the one she talked about her education, I was totally shocked with the variety of places she went for educational purposes.

She attended a public school in Buffalo from kindergarten to sixth grade. Starting from seventh grade (age of 12), she moved to Toronto, Canada. It was a private boarding school, specializing in ballet. It was middle and high school together. She spent 7 years in Toronto. When I asked her about how she made the decision for going to Canada, her answer was:

*I decided alone, and my parents supported it, they said OK, that's fine, if that's
what you want.*

I think her parents' reaction to her decision is a good indicator of American attitudes towards mobility. They simply said OK, and they supported their 12 year -old daughter when she wanted to move to another country for education. This shows that in her culture it is quite normal to go abroad or to move to a different state for education or any other purposes such as a new job, even if you are 12 years old. Although during the entire study I tried not to look at the issues from the Turkish perspective, my own cultural background, from time to time I could not help myself thinking about the same situation in Turkey, and the moment Celine told me about her move to Canada was one of those times.

After Canada, Celine moved to France to work with a ballet company. Her parents' reaction was not very much different from the time she moved to Canada. She said:

*They were proud. My mother was especially very proud, she was very
encouraging.*

The company in France was training ballets for a professional career. It was a two -year program. She was dancing six or seven hours a day. At that point her education was over for her, she was not planning to go to college, all she wanted to do was to find a dancing job in France or anywhere in Europe. She spent 1.5 years in France. Then she decided to come back to the U.S.A. She did not finish the training program in France. When she told me that she decided to come back to the U.S.A., I thought something really important happened and she felt obliged to move back, but I was wrong. She said:

*I did not want to pursue a ballet career at that point. I thought I wanted a college
degree.*

Although she made such a radical decision after spending so many years on ballet, and although this might also mean that at that point she still did not know what to do in her life, in my opinion, this decision of her also reflects the ease of mobility in American culture. She decided to do something other than dancing, and the first thing that came to her mind was to move back to America, start over and pursue for something different. I think the idea of 'starting over' in American culture is very strongly interrelated with the idea of mobility. When people see a chance of starting over somewhere else, they simply go for it, and what Celine did was no different.

When she came back to the U.S.A., she did not come to Buffalo immediately. Instead, she went to New York City in order to prepare for college and work simultaneously. She stayed in New York City for about half a year, working and preparing for the SAT. In my opinion, spending six months in New York City is another indicator of the easiness of mobility in the U.S.A. She had

come to the U.S.A. to start over, she was planning to apply to a university in upstate New York, but she preferred to go and live in New York City. Currently she is a freshman at a university in upstate New York, but she is still considering moving to another city. For the next year, she is planning to go to Washington DC to study political science in Georgetown University. She has already applied for it, and waiting for the result.

Celine's brothers' lives are not very much different from her life. Although they never went to another country for education or job purposes, they moved from state to state during their lives.

All this mobility experienced by Celine and her brothers is also linked to the concept of 'change' in American society. Kohls (1984) puts 'change' as one of the values Americans live by. He states that "in the American mind, change is seen as an indisputably good condition. Change is strongly linked to development, improvement, progress, and growth".

From Celine's perspective, 'change' brings both advantages and disadvantages to a person. She says so many changes in one's life and lifestyle sometimes make the person feel insecure, especially the changes are experienced in early ages in life. When I asked her what 'change' means to her, she said:

Change is something I know very well. It is a good thing to have but I think as a young person a lot of change is not good because you need consistency in your life.

When I asked her the advantages of mobility, she stated 'adaptability' as the most important positive outcome of mobility in her life. She said:

I am adaptable. It means when you are put in a situation, you can adjust to it. That's a good skill to have.

Mobility in Celine's life may also be reflecting the 'low uncertainty avoidance' feature of American culture. Comparing the members of high uncertainty avoidance cultures to the members of low uncertainty avoidance cultures, Hofstede (1979) states that people in high uncertainty avoidance cultures have a lower tolerance "for uncertainty and ambiguity, which express itself in higher levels of anxiety and energy release, greater need for formal rules and absolute truth, and less tolerance for people or groups with deviant ides or behavior" (p. 395). In contrast to this, members of low uncertainty avoidance cultures, according to Gudykunst and Matsumoto (1996), "have lower stress levels, and weaker superegos, and accept dissent and taking risks more than do members of high uncertainty avoidance cultures" (p. 42).

According to Hofstede and Hofstede's (2005) 'Uncertainty Avoidance Index Values for 74 Countries and Regions', United States is one of the countries with the lowest uncertainty avoidance. They also state that low uncertainty avoidance cultures are 'comfortable in ambiguous situations and with unfamiliar risks' (p. 176). This feature of American culture might also be contributing to Americans' tendency for mobility.

All in all, I think all these experiences she and her brothers had related to mobility, and her parents' reaction to their children's decisions of moving so frequently clearly show that mobility is an accepted and a highly experienced concept in American culture.

3.2. Individuality

Second underlying cultural theme emerged from the interviews with Celine is 'individuality' in American culture. According to Hofstede and Hofstede (2005) "societies in which the interests of the individual prevail over the interests of the group" (p. 75) are individualistic societies.

United States is in the first rank in their 'Individualism Index Values for 74 Countries and Regions'. Kohls (1984) states that "the individualism that has been developed in the Western world since the Renaissance, beginning in the late 15th century, has taken its most exaggerated form in 20th century United States. Here, each individual is seen as completely and marvelously unique, that is, totally different from all other individuals and, therefore, particularly precious and wonderful".

Independence in daily life and individuality are strongly interrelated concepts, and in most cases, in my opinion, independence (or constantly seeking for independence) in daily life, is a result of individualistic point of view in life. In collectivist societies the group's benefits are more important than the individual's benefits, and, therefore, dependency among people is necessary and promoted. On the other hand, in individualistic societies, the less dependent the people are to other people, the more individualistic they are because less dependency brings more rights to put the individual's benefits in front of the group's benefits. Therefore, we cannot speak about individualism in America without speaking the independence in America. During the interviews, Celine emphasized her independence many times. Following is an excerpt taken from the interviews:

Interviewer: *When you came back here for studying, why didn't you live with your mother?*

Celine: *My mother lives very far away. Plus, I am used to living on my own, since I was 12 years old, so it seemed like a strange idea to go back home.*

Interviewer: *So you wouldn't live with your mother even if she was living somewhere close to campus, can we say that?*

Celine: *Probably, yeah. Unless I had to. But I really said 'I don't want to live with you, I want to live on my own.*

Financial independence is also very important for Celine. During the interviews she many times emphasized that she is supporting herself for years. When I asked her about her current financial status, she said that she is taking government loan, and she is also working in a part -time job. She then added in an embarrassed mode that her mother is paying a portion of the college tuition, but she emphasized over and over again that it is a very small portion. So, in her view, taking some financial help from her mother is something to be embarrassed about, and this shows how important the financial independence is for her.

Celine wants to make all the decisions about her life herself, and she thinks that depending on her mother, or on any other family member, financially or in any other way would restrain her independence for making her own decisions. The same philosophy is shared and followed by her family members in their behavior towards her. The following excerpts demonstrate the relationship between her and her mother and her brothers.

I discuss about my decisions with my mother, but I don't ask for permission. I wouldn't change my mind even if she says no for something because it's my life, it's my future.

They [her brothers] *give me some advice but they never tell me what to do. Their philosophy is 'it's your life, do what you think is the best.*

Child raising habits or practices in a society provides many clues about the underlying cultural values of that society. Therefore, at one point of the interviews I asked Celine about the values she would want her child to develop, following is her answer and our conversation after the

answer:

Interviewer: *What kind of values would you want your child to develop?*

Celine: *Honesty, individuality, sense of self, integrity.*

Interviewer: *How would you define an individualistic person?*

Celine: *Someone who is not aiming to please other people, who is happy for themselves, and who is not afraid of doing what he feels right.*

Interviewer: *What is wrong with pleasing other people?*

Celine: *You have to please other people, but at a fundamental level. If you try to please others at every level, you cannot please yourself, you cannot be happy.*

Interviewer: *So individuality has a lot to do with happiness, right?*

Celine: *Yeah.*

As it is clearly seen in the excerpt, Celine puts individuality among the first values she would want her child to develop, and she associates individuality with happiness and pleasing oneself in life. These ideas are not different from the ideas of many American mothers and early childhood education teachers (Hoffman, 2000).

Celine's father's behavior to her brothers when they turned eighteen is another example of ideas related to child raising in America. Celine describes the situation as:

Celine: *When they were 18 they (my brothers) left the house, they moved to California. My dad said they should move, he said 'you are eighteen and you are on your own, I don't support you anymore'.*

Interviewer: *What do you think that behavior of your father brought to your brothers?*

Celine: *I think they are both pretty self -sufficient, they are independent people, they can make their own decisions.*

I think by doing so Celine's father wanted to cultivate independence, and individuality connected to independence, as early as possible in his children, and Celine appreciates that behavior by saying that leaving home at that age made her brothers self -sufficient and independent. In fact, what Celine's father did was not different from what many parents try to do across the U.S.A.: encouraging youths to be socially and economically independent (Shkodriani & Gibbons, 1995).

Since individuality was one of the emerging themes when I analyzed the first three interviews, in order to delve deeply into the theme of individuality, during the fourth interview I asked Celine her opinions about some situations which Hofstede and Hofstede (2005) state as the features of individualistic societies. The following are the excerpts from the fourth interview. Each question I ask focuses on one feature of individualistic societies.

Interviewer: *Do you think a job should be challenging or no?*

Celine: *Challenging is difficult. Typically the more challenging it is, the more accomplishment you make, the more important the job is. I would pick the challenging job.*

Interviewer: *Do children in American society learn to think in terms of 'we' or in terms of 'I'?*

Celine: *Typically in terms of 'I'. And even in school they foster individuality. You do have to learn to work in a group but you work in terms of yourself, what your preferences, goals, opinions are, they are always welcome, they want to get to you personally.*

Interviewer: *What do you think about speaking one's own mind? Is it an important characteristic?*

Celine: *Yeah, I think it is. If you cannot articulate what you want, then you will be lost, you should know what you want.*

Interviewer: *Which one do you thin is encouraged in American society, showing happiness or showing sadness?*

Celine: *Happiness. Why would sadness be good to show. If you show a happy face, it shows that you can manage your life, you are optimistic, you are energetic. These are all very important in the USA.*

Interviewer: *But if you show your sadness, other people may help you?*

Celine: *People usually don't want to help you.*

As the excerpts clearly demonstrate, all the answers Celine gave to my questions reflected her individualistic perspective in life, which is no surprise. These excerpts once again show that American society is a highly individualistic society, and members of this society connect their individualism to many aspects of their lives from child raising to selecting a job.

4. Conclusion

The purpose of this paper was to report the results an ethnographic interview conducted with a female American college freshman in order to discover some underlying cultural themes in American culture. Two main underlying themes emerged from the data collected for this study: mobility and individuality. Both of the themes were no surprise to me as they were also revealed by many other researchers in many different settings with many different research designs. However, seeing how they are reflected in a college freshman's life was a new and different approach to the understanding of those two underlying themes of American culture.

'Ethnographic interview' as a research design was very useful to discover underlying themes in American culture. Since mobility and individuality were the two continuously reoccurring issues during the interviews, I reported those two as the main underlying themes in this paper. However, I also want to emphasize that many other interesting topics emerged from the data such as attitudes towards friendship or attitudes towards education.

Cultural aspects of language in general, and the concepts of mobility and individuality in American culture in particular should be discussed in the ESP classrooms in order better equip the learners against possible communication problems that might occur due to cultural illiteracy.

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L1 use in English Courses at University Level,

a survey of literature on students and teachers' perspectives

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Introduction

In EFL university courses L1 use is an issue to consider when learning shifts towards specificity either in the form of focused reading or to get linguistic skills for the world of work.

L1 use contrasts the pedagogy of teaching English through English, whose rationale, in name of proficiency, wishes for implementation by maximizing FL exposure. Generations of FL teachers have shared this prescription, together with phases of guilt, frustration or inadequacy when practice suggested the mother tongue approach (Mattioli, 2004: 22; Macaro, 2001:535).

This Use -English -Only pedagogy has been questioned (Macaro, 2001; Mattioli, 2004; Nation, 2003; Owen, 2003; Wechsler, 1997) and results show L1 can be complementary to foreign language acquisition and not a betrayal to good teaching practices.

Research at university level has also taken into account learning strategies and students' and teachers' opinions (Burden, 2000, 2001; Critchley, 1999; Janulevičienè & Kavaliauskienè, 2002; Kavaliauskienè & Kaminskienè, 2007; Schweers, 1999; Tang, 2000). Outcomes are in favour of the *judicious use* (as defined by Atkinsons, 1993, quoted in Mattioli, 2004: 21) of L1 in English language classes, and consider its application an important learning tool.

Advocates of this theory do not deny the benefits of FL exposure and practice, but are aware that a responsible mother tongue use can save classroom time to be devoted to other learning activities.

L1 use

Everyday practice acknowledges a limited use of L1 in class because in accessing foreign texts "no matter how good the students are… the majority keeps mentally translating" (Kavaliauskienè & Kaminskienè, 2007: 133), or as Wechsler puts it: "learners can not escape the influence of first language" (Wechsler, 1997) and even proficient learners recur to L1 by glossing new FL words (Baker, 2006: 22).

Considering L1 latent in learners' mind in variable degrees, its use in classroom management offers advantages and pitfalls.

The former are affective and practical. Affective reasons reduce psychological barriers in countries where English is considered an imposition for socio -political issues. L1 use, in such cases, makes students realize their mother tongue and their own cultural values are not less worth than the FL ones (Schweers, 1999). Among the practical issues the most important is the teaching of grammar, spelling and phonology, vocabulary, language similarities /differences and

cultural issues (Schweers, 1999). L1 also facilitates FL acquisition by helping teachers realize what students have learnt and to explain mistakes or misinterpretations through translation exercise (Baker, 2006: 22).

Drawbacks mainly concern the wrong habit of word -to -word translation which hinders learners' autonomy in FL communication; in such instances this methodology is seen as a shortcut because students may realize that one -to -one relation between L1 and FL does exist (Gabrielatos, 1998: 21 -23).

Students' and teachers' opinions on L1 use

The bulk of research on L1 use has, to my knowledge, concentrated more on General English and secondary education (see Macaro, 2001: 531 -2; Mattioli, 2004: 21 -23). In recent years some attention has been paid to this issue at tertiary level teaching, considering both students' and teachers' perspectives (Burden, 2000, 2001; Critchley, 1999; Janulevičienè & Kavaliauskienè, 2002; Kavaliauskienè & Kaminskienè, 2007; Schweers, 1999; Tang, 2000). Schweers and Tang survey university students in Puerto Rican and Chinese contexts, respectively; Burden's questionnaire refers to conversation classes, Critchley's concentrates on students' wants, both in Japanese tertiary institutions; Janulevičienè & Kavaliauskienè's (2002) and Kavaliauskienè & Kaminskienè's (2007) works are based on ESP needs in Lithuanian university courses.

Each research was undertaken to study problems within single learning contexts and sheds light on local needs. I have put these results together to give a synoptic table to guide less experienced teachers (see table 1).

My grid reproduces the entries common in at least three surveys and the percentage of favourable answers given by students (S) and teachers (T).

Kavaliauskienè & Kaminskienè's work has not been taken into account as issues are too specifically related to translation activities, from their article I have used the results cited from a previous research (2007: 134) I have been unable to track.

An item present in many surveys but not considered here concerns the amount of time to be devoted to L1 use; this is an interesting topic to check learners' and teachers' point of view but has not been reported as in everyday university practice no one can think of a L1 -time in terms of minutes after which L1 cannot be used.

On row 1 and 2 the cells with the question on *teacher* and *student use of L1* in Janulevičienè & Kavaliauskienè's survey and those on row 3 and 4 in Critchley's on *new words* and *grammar* are linked as the original questions consisted of a single item.	Critchley (1999)	Schweers (1999)		Tang (2000)		Burden (2000/2001)		Janulevičienè & Kavaliauskienè (2002)		Kavaliauskienè & Kaminskienè (2007)
	S %	S %	T %	S %	T %	S %	T %	S %	T %	S %

TEACHER USE OF L1	87	49	NA	50	NA	73	86	83	86	NA
STUDENT USE OF L1	NA	88.7	100	70	72	73	89			86
VOCABULARY	24	22.7	12.6	69	39	50	70	74	46	74
GRAMMAR		NA	NA	72	39	37	63	NA	NA	NA
GIVE INSTRUCTIONS	22	NA	NA	6	6	30	65	NA	NA	NA
TESTING	NA	1.4	0	NA	NA	18	24	9	21	NA
EXPLAIN A TASK	8	NA	NA	NA	NA	24	52	NA	NA	NA
DIFFICULT CONCEPTS	NA	86.2	22	48	44	NA	NA	72	90	90
L1/L2 DIFFERENCES /RELATION	12	NA	2.5	NA	NA	53	63	NA	NA	55
COMPREHENSION	29	20.2	10.4	69	39	43	56	55	46	NA
RELAX	2	5	15	8	NA	61	78	34	21	NA

Tab 1: synopsis of data of students' (S) and teachers' (T) perceptions on L1 use

Results show the interviewed students and teachers seem favourable to L1 use in terms of explanation of grammar, vocabulary items, difficult concepts and for general comprehension. Both agree to avoid mother tongue in testing but seem better disposed to its use to build a relaxed environment and for contrastive analysis in linguistic/cultural matters. These outcomes may reflect different ideas on learning, namely short term for the students, whose life-span, one can imagine, does not go beyond the lesson and/or the end-of-course examination, and longer term for the teachers, whose pedagogy aims at making students proficient language users. They are nevertheless important to build learner-centered courses which consider methods and students' needs and wants.

Conclusion

In the reviewed literature students seem to prefer L1 use and teachers subscribe to the *judicious use* of mother tongue. At university level, where language specificity is higher, it can save time and increase students' motivation. In such cases it can be considered an important learning device to suggest "equivalence" or as a medium to avoid the teacher playing like "a contortionist" in the struggle of keeping away from a simple L1 explanation (Cole, 1998). Moreover, acquiring the habit of codeswitching can prepare learners to the world of work where this ability will serve everyday interaction (meetings, phone talks, e -mails) with foreigners or in contexts where two languages are commonly used in the same workplace on a daily basis (see Cheng & Mok, 2008; Chew, 2005; Li & Mead, 2000; Louhiala -Salminen & al., 2005).

What is up to now lacking is a broader research to establish parameters to build a framework of "principled use" by comparing results from different countries and from different learning situations. To make comparison easier, questions should have the same items and the research should take into account the learning group e.g. monolingual or multilingual; the teacher, that is native or non -native speaker; it should also consider two basic questions: 1) "when?" and 2) " what for?". Questionnaires should be administered twice to the same group, at the beginning to check learners' opinions and at the end of the LSP course to evidence the efficacy of L1 use. A version with yes/no answers could do at the beginning of the course, whereas one with multiple choice answers could serve the end -of -course survey.

My suggestion is to use L1 with an homogeneous group as concerns the learning outcomes and the language specificity. This should be possible with the class attending the same university subjects or having common learning aims, and not as is the case in larger Institutions where teachers lecture an audience reading different majors.

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Improving ESP Teaching through Collaboration:

The Situation in Hungary

Abstract

Several barriers exist to professional ESP teacher development, especially when seen from a background of the need to realign the teacher -teacher and teacher -student relationships presently evident in Hungarian higher education. This need is truly endemic across all disciplines in Hungarian higher education, and ESP teaching is no exception. The authors further argue that inaction would preclude the ability of Hungarian ESP to ready itself for the approaching challenges of CLIL and TTFL course expansion in future curricula.

The 21st Century is one in which higher education institutions must provide 21st Century -readied teachers for 21st Century students. As contrite as this statement may at first seem, this is indeed the one message that Hungarian higher education largely appears to not be getting. While many colleagues in our EU neighboring countries have moved into the 21st Century by developing and adopting new ideas on professional approaches, methods, materials and necessities, we see our disciplines being pushed back into the conditions seen in the 1980s. We need to fight back in a way that we can control, and that is in adjusting how we work together within our departments and also with our students. It is additionally our argument that change within our own teaching must come before we venture into CLIL and TTFL programs.

Ever since Savignon (1972) coined the term *communicative competence* and encouraged colleagues to move away from stressing rote learning and to focus on teaching learners to interact through L2 with each other, there have been numerous movements within ESL to devise the ideal classroom for *communicative language teaching* (CLT). Van Ek (1975) gave language teaching a roadmap for development which emphasized learner needs, and this was in turn specified by a perceived need for empowerment of the individual learner, by focusing teaching on *learner choice*. (Candlin 1978) What Savignon had proposed as the necessity to develop *coping strategies towards communicative competence* in the learner, came to be augmented by Canale and Swain (1980) to become a need to teach *strategic competence*, through which the learner might achieve a level of L2 knowledge, which would prepare him/her for active, proper and successful interaction with native speakers of L2, by further providing the learner with *grammatical competence, sociolinguistic competence* and finally *discourse competence*. (This final pillar is found in Canale 1983) Thus, we have enjoyed four distinct, yet dynamically interacting, pillars upon which to build sensible and right L2 programs for our students for some 30 years now.

Elsewhere, Wiwczaroski has published extensively on the trends, backwards and forwards, in ESL teaching in Hungary, and shared his opinions and experiences along the way. (See references section at end of article) The thrust of these comments over the past several years has been that, in developing our own programs for ESL and ESP courses, we must not become insular in mindset. In other words, we must attempt to keep an eye extended over the horizon as we would view it, because like it or not, all L2 teaching is simultaneously educational and political in nature. Our work in L2 teaching cannot be removed from the larger context of L2 policy, and we have, unfortunately, little opportunity to affect the shape such policies take.

Unlike practically every other discipline on offer at colleges and universities, ours almost alone is shaped and misshaped by outsiders, who have little idea about or interest in our discipline and its needs, much less of the actual needs of our students. Thus, in selecting what we teach and how we teach it, in many cases, we are governed by the demands of non -L2 teacher administrators and bureaucrats. (Compare Wiwczaroski 2006)

ESP is presently under attack. Across the nation, from faculty to faculty, administration is dismantling ESP and thereby causing unprecedented damage to the abilities of our graduates to obtain proper and just L2 training towards successful employment. While the business community is clamoring for better ESP skilled graduates, our higher educational institutions are retreating into doing what is frankly the job of the elementary and secondary schools: to simply provide students with L2 classes towards the students obtaining an *intermediate level state accredited language certificate.* Comparing this motivation to what students are offered as learning goals across Europe (Compare Nikula 2005), one would think our universities had decided to become kindergartens. While we fully comprehend the predicament universities find themselves in - our students must obtain these certificates to receive diplomas - we would hope that our administrators would begin to put as much leverage on policy makers for elementary and secondary education to begin to meet their responsibilities in teaching and assuring the necessary L2 competency levels reflective of European schools (Laitinen 2001), as they do on us to become miracle workers. Instead of allowing the schools to continue to pass unprepared students on to universities, for many of whom it is simply too late to help, we need to demand that when students arrive to university with e.g., an *érettségi* in English, that their real knowledge reflect that awarded competency level.

We propose to discuss below a different route for us as L2 teachers in higher education, which should at least be possible for those of us left in ESP teaching. First, we wish to discuss what we see as underlying problems with teaching/learning, before outlining my specific proposals for change.

The role played by teachers has always undergone constant change. The teacher has become not merely a resource for knowledge, but minimally a kind of living, interactive unit for data retrieval, technology and education linkage and mentoring. The learner must interact with the teacher to some degree, in order to find his/her way forward in tackling a body of knowledge. Indeed, becoming a learner of the 21st Century involves the student assuming and meeting a variety of responsibilities. These are grounded in active preparation and participation, but unlike the 20th Century student, that of today must serve as a collaborator, i.e. a partner in their own learning. This move began in the scientific disciplines in Canada, some 20 years ago, with the introduction of problem -based learning courses. (Sweller 1988) As language teaching today is based on a notion of language as communication, students are meant to learn how to use language to make meaning in transmitting a message to a target communicative partner, either orally or in writing. Problem -based and inquiry -based courses, also known as minimal guidance courses, demand e.g. of students that they gather the knowledge necessary for fulfilling set communicative tasks in a target language, in classroom presentations. The idea in ESP courses taught using such *foci* is that students will confront 'real life' tasks, and thereby be better prepared for the job market. Towards this end, teachers may provide a range of written materials to set a context within which the students should work, but it is generally up to the student how to develop their work from there. In other words, *the student may well end up being left to develop linguistically on their own.*

Unfortunately, today's Hungarian students enter university with a severe lack of intellectual curiosity. What we mean by this is, the average student today does not use the library, does not read and does not show interest in subjects which he/she perceives as existing outside their 'worlds'. This situation means that the information the students should be gathering, filtering,

interpreting and using is often either simply copied from the Internet or an overgeneralization of a citation from Wikipedia. In either case, when left to their own devices, any intellectual interrogation is lacking in most student work.

There are other dangers within such an approach, and published data from the field of educational psychology shows how the root of all evils related to low student performance and knowledge retention is grounded in a fundamental misconception in modern education of how learning works in the human brain. (Kirschner 1992) In classrooms and textbooks, students are confronted with interesting and entertaining tasks which force them to load their working memories. Working memory may be defined as the cognitive structure in which conscious processing occurs in the brain. In other words, individuals are only aware of the information currently being processed, and this information, unless it is processed further, will escape processing into the architecture of what is called long -term memory within 30 seconds. (Peterson & Peterson 1959) More telling for educators should be the finding that the capacity for loading one's working memory is extremely limited. We simply cannot process more than a few items at a time in our temporary memories, which is why we often have to ask for information to be repeated to us, if more than a small string of data are orally transmitted to us, even if the information was only just provided. Of the number of items the human brain receives for processing into long -term memory, perhaps only a single item will ever be processed for long -term storage. The interplay between both kinds of memory is crucial to learning, as it is the retrieval from long -term memory *back into* working memory which allows humans to actually use what they have learned. (Compare Sweller 1988) As the ability of long -term memory to provide the working memory to a mentally and physiologically healthy individual with information is practically limitless, as L2 educators, we need to ensure that what we are teaching our students gets stored into long -term memory. After all, the goal of education is to get students to store information into their long -term memories for use long after they have graduated. In L2, this necessity is even more crucial, as students must also learn strategies for maintaining their L2 knowledge and skills throughout their lifetimes. If we do not ensure proper learning and integration into long -term memory, the knowledge we are attempting to transfer to our students in our classrooms and homework assignments will be forgotten before the student leaves the classroom on the same day they are exposed to the new knowledge and seconds after completing their homework assignments.

This brings us to our suggestions for bringing our teaching – and therefore our students - into the 21st Century:

1. Our students live in a world which is dominated by stimuli that almost exclusively acts on their working memories. Considering the fact that they live in a multimedia world, filled with fleeting images and sound bites, we need to develop an approach based on strong repetition of bits of knowledge, which may through reinforcement and interlinking of course contents, lead to storage of L2 knowledge in their long -term memories. This means teachers must begin to work in close cooperation in designing ESP courses, so that the material in e.g. a translation class is reworked from a different, yet reemphasizing angle, in an accompanying academic writing course. Without the repetition, there will be no further cognitive processing, and therefore no true learning. The questions we as ESP departments need to answer are: are we designing and teaching courses that are presented to our students with the student in mind, or are we simply screening the students upon enrollment and then teaching what we want? Are we really setting obtainable goals, the results of which are measurable and would show student improvement in L2 and ESP? (See and compare Hellekjaer and Westergaard 2003)

2. Writing, writing, writing. Students need to be approached in a new form of mentoring, to understand that written grammatical and essay assignments are in their interests. Without putting new English vocabulary and grammar forms to paper form the student's own head, any new

knowledge from a textbook or lesson will be quickly lost. University studies are supposed to be geared, after all, to mastery of subject material. Writing is one integral step towards that goal. To avoid giving such assignment is to undercut the efficacy of a course and keeps the student on the road of only using working memory and losing new knowledge 30 seconds after exposure to it. (See Hellekjaer & Wilkinson 2003)

3.   Stop plagiarism from the Internet. Do not simply give the student who appears in class with obviously plagiarized material a failing grade. This does not solve the problem. Enforce academic ethics through repetition of the assignment, and explain to the student the dangers of such activity in their later careers. But make the student do the assignment themselves.

4.   Oral presentations must be reinforced by written reports which expand on the orally communicated material and demonstrate a command of the expected vocabulary and the requisite grammar to communicate the material content in a proper manner. A clear thesis, the paper's structure, tone, style, use of transitional elements, spelling and of course a polished proofreading must be demanded. Students who lack these basic skills require a rigorous introduction to writing skills and must receive it. (See Wiwczaroski 2003a)

5.   Conference meetings about students enrolled in e.g. communication and translation specialization programs. Share your thoughts and concerns about how a student is developing (or not) with colleagues in regular meetings with other colleagues who teach the same student. Develop a plan for improving all these students, and ensure follow -up.

6.   Conference with the students themselves; on a one -on -one basis. As Löscher and Schulze conclude, "in foreign language classroom discourse, the topical and the didactic aspects clearly dominate, the interpersonal aspect, however, is excluded to a large extent." (1988: 193) If this is true of your courses, then steps should be taken to rectify this problem. Students have a right be informed and teachers have a responsibility to inform students about exactly what is expected from them, that they might excel in a course. This however equally demands that the student be given a clear agenda for what they must do to be able to achieve learning goals, as well as guidance when they are falling short. Our experience tells us that, in most cases, whenever a student recognizes that a teacher is committed to their development and success, then that student is motivated more. There are no 'magic bullets' which would work to motivate all students, but every individual success is worth the extra effort. In short, what is needed is: More teacher availability to students, more mentoring and more dialogue.

7.   Conference meetings about teaching. Too often, teachers do not know their course assignments until the last minute before the semester begins. They often 'take over' assignments from a colleague, and are expected to continue teaching the next segment of a multi -semester course of study. Continuity and, as discussed previously, reinforcement are however keys to learning. Is your department ensuring an uninterrupted flow of learning for its students? When a class is 'handed -over' to a new teacher, is the 'hand -off' accompanied by a teacher -teacher meeting to discuss the class, its syllabus, materials and the students themselves and where they are and what they need to develop? If not, this needs to be addressed also. Too many students arrive at university L2 courses inadequately prepared. At faculties such as mine, which specialize in agriculture, it is too often the case that students come from rural area schools in which they have met a new English teacher every year of their studies, with a new course book and no continuity in their L2 education. This situation must be halted at university, and continuity and reinforcement of learning content and objectives assured. This is fundamental.

In light of the move in some faculties towards pushing for the creation of new CLIL and TTFL courses, it would be advisable to truly work for the integration of these seven points into the way our departments and staffs conduct their daily activities. Indeed, the management of foreign

students coming to study in our universities would require no less from us: the true face of 21st Century teaching and learning is one of *learning management,* and just like companies, we have products and require the right relationship with our customers, the students, in order to provide our product with the best possible guarantee. Our own efforts will serve as our marketing mix, and the success of our students in meeting the goals we set for them – and especially in their being able to utilize the skills and competencies we wish them to learn to employ - will be our best advertisement. This change, unlike so much other seen today, is truly up to us.

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Evaluation of Highly Recommended: A textbook for the Hotel and Catering Industry

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The Book

The Context

This book has been designed for younger adult learners on hotel and catering courses in schools and colleges, or for people training for a career in the hospitality sector. I am evaluating this book for 1st year Hotel and Tourism students in the general English program of Payap University, Chiang Mai, Thailand. All the 1st year students attend this course. This course focuses on all four language skills namely: speaking, listening, reading and writing. They have an assigned general English textbook *Straightforward pre Intermediate.* However at this point in time they have no specialized English book for their potential careers. I carried out a needs analysis of one of these classes and the results were that many students did indeed want careers in hospitality; therefore I will proceed to evaluate this book with the purpose of perhaps introducing it into their syllabus. McCarten (2007,26) states '*making vocabulary personal helps to make it more memorable.*' Thus this book should appeal fully to the students' intrinsic motivation and aid their learning (Gardner, 2000, Walqui, 2000).

Zhang (2007) proposes 3 major steps in evaluation of a textbook. First select a unit from one volume of the textbook, decide on the criteria for your evaluation and lastly evaluate the effectiveness of the textbook in matching their claims with learners' needs. I hope to cover these steps in this evaluation. Evaluating materials for ESP (English for Specific purposes) is a vital skill which as Anthony (1997,3) states '*is perhaps the role that ESP practitioners have neglected most to date.*' However as Belcher (2006,137) points out '*ESP is often seen as a materials - driven rather than a methods -driven enterprise.*' Thus one can see a clear emphasis on materials from the start and an eclectic mixture of methodologies employed within the industry as a whole.

Appropriateness

This book has been revised and updated to take into account changing practices and new technologies such as computerized reservation systems in the hotel trade which is good. It also importantly is at the right level for the 1st year students at Payap. It is an elementary level course

book. The majority of students I have determined in the first year at Payap are around the elementary level; therefore it would suit the majority of learners. The authors claim in their revised edition to include more listening and speaking practice which is precisely what the students' need. They also have included an extended real world activity at the end of every unit designed to get students talking about real situations, I believe this book has been well thought out and the revisions have kept it abreast of new vocabulary. This textbook feels very modern; the majority of exercises and tasks are for listening and speaking. The most important English skills needed for workers in the hospitality sector. Research by Newton (1995), Joe, Nation and Newton (1996), Nation (2001) emphasizes the importance of spoken communicative activities.

As suiting younger elementary students the units have been kept short, only 2 pages for 1 unit and as you can see from Appendix 1 they have divided units on the basis of Communicative Areas which is perfect for the students at Payap. In the needs analysis and class observation of the students the author could see a real lack of communicative skills amongst the students. As the length of the units has been kept short; there are 28 units in the book covering a large variety of situations which are common especially in the hotel and restaurant industry. Johns & Evans (1991) state *'that the students target English situations have identifiable elements.'* This book clearly covers many of those identifiable elements although it is of course impossible to cover all possible situations that students would encounter in their working lives. Also as Jasso -Aguilar (1999) found out specific language needed for work purposes may not meet the needs or long term goals of hotel workers. Clearly it is a hard task to design an ESP textbook which meets not just the immediate work related language needs but the long term goals of proficiency in English which students may desire.

Motivation

This writer believes this textbook would be very motivating to learn from. Every unit has a large variety of authentic pictures, diagrams and computer screens to illustrate the unit and help guide the students as to what exactly the unit is dealing with. The pictures give a clear context for the activities and vocabulary that follow (Benz and Dworak, 2000; Cunningham, 1987; Harmer, 2006; Nation, 2001; Hunt and Beglar, 2002; Thornbury, 2002). Appendix 2 is an example of one of the units from the book, Unit 3: Taking room reservations. There are pictures of rooms and a computer screen showing a computerized room reservation system. In today's world we rarely phone a hotel to book a room, so this is authentic and up to date.

Each unit is laid out the same which the author thinks is fine for this level of student. Dudley -Evans & St John (1998, 171) state that materials need to be *'consistent and to have some recognizable pattern.'* The familiarity gained from studying the book should mean the students become accustomed to the book quickly and know precisely what is expected of them from each segment of the unit. Every unit starts with an outline of the unit and expected language structures to master. Every unit contains a starter or warm up exercise designed to elicit language and encourage motivation. There then follows a listening exercise which introduces language in an authentic manner. There then is a language study section with structures to practice. This section contains the grammatical structures which students should learn. Finally every unit contains a speaking activity for pairs which uses all the vocabulary previously covered. This matches Dudley -Evans & St John (1998, 172) aims for materials that *'the input would be used outside the learning situation.'* This section is very practically focused designed for use in real life situations. It has a very purpose -related orientation which Gatehouse (2001) believes is an essential component of any material designed for specific purposes. At the very end of each unit is a section titled 'more words to use' this serves as useful vocabulary that students should know and learn if they haven't already done so.

Appendix 3 shows the workbook content for Unit 3. The workbook has also been designed well

with a clear layout, a variety of interesting tasks and further pictures from the genre of Hotels such as emails, information cards, maps, menus, and recipes. The workbook could be used in class for further writing practice or as a self study aid for students to do in their own time to review vocabulary and grammar from each unit. The workbook fulfills Dudley -Evans & St John (1998) requirements in that it has answer keys at the back of the book. Also the books (textbook and workbook) can aid self study in that they provide a clear matrix of objectives, skills and language functions that students can choose from if the self study route is employed.

As mentioned previously the book is very up to date with the new edition being revised and produced in 2008. Many of the units use examples of computer technology where appropriate. Appendix 4 is a collocation of terms used with room from the Collins Cobuild database with items of language used from the book outlined in yellow. Clearly the language is common and used frequently and therefore of use to the students.

Methodology

The methodology of the book is modern and communicative based. New language is presented in PPP form (presentation, practice and production) in the first sections of the unit and then students are expected to produce the language firstly in more controlled activities and then finally in freer fluency promoting tasks at the end of each unit. Language structures are given clear examples in the language study section and then students are expected to practice specific grammar points or chunks of language by first practicing simple writing activities. I believe students are given a lot of autonomy in the book. It would be entirely possible for students to use this text book as a self study aid at home although they would need at least one other student to practice the pair work speaking activities. Gatehouse (2001, 3) states that *the catchword in ESL circles is learner -centered or learning -centered.'* This textbook meets those criteria.

The listening activities have been set deliberately easy as the expected level of the students is elementary. But each unit has different tasks, sometimes true/false or yes/no checklists. In other units; sorting sentences, matching, ticking correct sentences or labeling pictures are all used as activities. The whole book has been designed very well to include a variety of task types within the overall framework and structure of the book. The use *'of a wide range of types increases motivation for both the learners and the teacher.'* (Dudley -Evans & St John, 1998, 178).

Language

As can be seen from Appendix 1, following the communicative area the language items are broken down into two categories. First situational or functional language which is to be expected from a textbook designed to teach specialized language for hotel and hospitality students or workers. Second each unit has language structures outlined. These language structures closely follow that of an expected general English book containing mainly grammar points. For example Unit 3 (Appendix 1) lists situations/functions as requesting information and structures as Do, Does, prepositions of time: on, at, in, from….to. It seems though that the main decision for use of language covered in each unit was the actual communicative area. For example in Unit 7 the communicative area is serving in the bar, functions are requests and structures are requests and offers with can, could, shall, would you like?

The author doesn't believe that this mixing up of grammar is wrong, research has shown the students learn different grammar at different points in their lives and the grammar covered in this book would have been covered by all students at the middle or high school level.

The actual language used in the book isn't highly specialized considering the nature of the industry most of the language used could be considered general English; and as the book's level

is elementary the language had to be kept reasonably simple and specific in the sense of getting students to practice the main structures of a unit without being bogged down by large vocabulary lists which can de -motivate students (McCarten, 2007). As was said earlier though the language feels to be authentic and realistic and I carried out a survey of hotel and restaurant workers in Chiang Mai, Thailand to find out their feelings about the language used and whether it was authentic and language they encountered in their every day lives. The results were positive with several workers saying they thought the language used was useful and relevant to their occupations.

Conclusion

The author was very impressed with this book, having taught for several years one gets an intuitive sense of whether you would enjoy teaching a book and whether your students would enjoy learning from it. The layout generally was excellent, colorful and clear. The units were well designed with a clear presentation, practice and production methodology. The language was well thought out for elementary level students. The units were short and very varied Dudley - Evans & St John (1998, pp.177)) state that '*variety is essential in any English class but……particularly important in an ESP class.*' and the tasks themselves changed although keeping a structure throughout the whole book. The book has clearly been designed with the goal of practicing a variety of situations which hotel or restaurant workers would encounter. Anthony (1997, pp.3) states that '*materials writers think very carefully about the goals of learners at all stages of materials production*' this book shows that. Bojovic (2006) believes that material should be authentic, up to date and relevant for the students' specializations. I believe this textbook meets all these criteria.

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A needs analysis survey: The case of tourism letter writing in Iran

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The aim of ESP courses is to equip the learners with a certain English proficiency

level for a situation where the language is going to be used, i.e., target needs. In the last few years, needs analysis researches have tended to an increased interest in investigating the most effective ways of improving the ability of workers in using ESP in the workplace. One of the skills required in the field of travel and tourism is writing. Accordingly, the current study aims to determine the letter writing needs of tourism students. To this end, a complete list of sample business letters was taken to experts in the field of travel and tourism and hotel managers. The long list was truncated to be more easily handled in the second phase of the study. The newly drawn list of letters was sent to five hotels and twenty travel agencies in Iran to find the most frequent topics they deal with in their daily correspondence as their needs. To have confidence in the agency choices, the researchers also measured the interrater reliability coefficient among different agencies and hotels.

Introduction:

The advancement of business and communication technology in the course of past twenty years has revolutionized the field of English language teaching and has radically swerved the attention of course designers from teaching English for Academic purposes to teaching for more specialized purposes (Al -khatib, 2005).

The aim of ESP courses is to equip the learners with a certain English proficiency level for a situation where the language is going to be used, i.e., target needs (Sujana, 2005). It is agreed that any decision made in designing language teaching programs in ESP contexts should hinge on the learners' needs for learning English (Robinson, 1991, Strevens, 1998; Dudley -Evans and St. John, 1998; Sujana, 2005).

However, pinpointing the students needs is a challenging task since needs have been defined from various perspectives. In this respect, Hutchinson and Waters (1993) have classified needs into necessities, wants and lacks. According to them necessities or target needs are concerned with the demand of the target situations (i.e. what the learner needs to know in order to function effectively in the target situation). Lacks refer to the learner's existing language proficiency in order to help determination of the starting point of the teaching and learning process. And, wants relate to what the learner would like to gain from the language course. Therefore, course designers must be well informed of the workplace culture, the vocational needs of the workers and the constant changes that are taking place in order to help improve communication in the work place (Leung, 1994).

In the last few years, L1 and L2 acquisition researches have tended to an increased interest in investigating the most effective ways of improving the ability of workers in using English for specific purposes in the work place (Li So -mui and Mead, 2000; Al -khatib, 2005).

Nowadays English is necessary to obtain a job, get promoted and perform effectively in the world of work. This demand has generated the incursion of a new linguistic branch within the field of ESP, namely, English for occupational purposes. (EOP) (Dominguez & Rokowski 2005)

One of the skills required in workplace is writing which is among the most laborious skills at tertiary level. The need to develop the skill stems from the rapid change and development of the job market that requires graduates to acquire certain level of writing skills. Consequently, writing courses offered at university level should be based on skills related to job needs and job functions to ensure that learners are provided with the essential writing skills to perform at the workplace (Stapa, 1998).Therefore, in ESP context, the pragmatics and types of texts have to be explicit and narrowed. This not only helps the learners to realize the importance of acquiring the skill but also leads to a well -structured and organized programme (Stapa, 1998).

Accordingly, the crucial issue to ESP is the necessary starting point in material development and course design. This is considered critical because material developers have to be selective at specific content -based materials and topics to ensure relevance (Stapa, 1998). In this respect, Clarck (1999) has recognized templating as a needs analysis approach to analyze the training content by the careful review and analysis of a template. This technique is used to determine content or developing learning objectives associated with the operation or maintenance of a specific system.

Considering the above mentioned facts and employing templating approach, the researchers aim to

analyze the contents required by tourism students for writing letters at work place.

Background

Broadly defined, needs analysis (NA) is a procedure to collect information about learners' needs (Richards, 2001). The importance of NA is emphasized in English for Specific Purpose (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987) and English for Academic Purposes (Jordan, 1997), and also in general language courses espousing learner -centered curricula (Nunan, 1988; Tudor, 1996), task -based curricula (Long & Crookes, 1992), as well as performance -assessment (Norris, Brown, Hudson, & Yoshioka, 1988). The teaching of English for Academic Purposes (EAP) falls within the framework of what is generally called English for Specific Purposes (ESP), taking place in essence, and as its name suggests, in an educational environment. The reasons for its increasing relevance is due to the fact that English has changed from simply being another foreign language into having become a universal form of communication in all walks of life. Dudley -Evans and St. John (1998:95) state that the teaching process of any kind of language for occupational purposes should take as a starting pint the analysis of the four traditional skills within an appropriate context, that being, as far as possible, the conditions given in the workplace. Moreover, they subscribe to the idea that an effective syllabus must attempt to overcome the deficiencies of the educational system under which they are operating. EOP therefore encircles a reaction against the conventional humanistic approach wherein both teachers and students abide by the academic objective of knowing everything about the language being studied instead of concentrating attention on those skills most relevant within the workplace in the time allotted in the educational environment. (Dominguez & Rokowski 2005) EOP can be defined as "the portion of the curriculum which prepares students for gainful employment in occupations ranging from low -skilled to sophisticated jobs in technical fields. (Anthony, 1997, p.56).EOP programs focus on developing communicative competence in a specific field, such as aviation, business, or tourism. EOP is more general compared to ESP because it does not focus on the specific job disciplines but it is more on general basic

skills required by students in order to prepare students for the workforce. Examples of basic skills in EOP are reading, writing, listening and speaking. In the context of this study, writing skills required to perform in job functions are for example report writing, letter writing and memo (Anthony 1997).Some courses prepare students for various academic programs such as offering a seminar for graduate teaching assistants to train them in public speaking skills, while others prepare students for work in fields like law, medicine, tourism and graphic design.(Hortas 1995).Among the many vocational areas that make the world of English for specific purposes, that of English for tourism is one of the most attractive because all of us are tourists on countless occasions, bringing our own real experiences to the classrooms. In the field of English for tourism students most of the studies have focused on the analysis of the required skills and needs in work place, adequacy and appropriateness of instructional materials and strategies, and involvement of students in the procedure of syllabus design.

The skills required in the related job were addressed by Martinez (2001),Murphy and Brown(1998), and Sujana (2005).The study conducted by Martinez (2001), indicated that EOP programme mostly incorporate basic job readiness skills such as job search, interviewing, preparing resumes, letters, and filling out work -related forms. Murphy and Brown involved three different groups of adult learners who were doing English courses revealed that it is important to provide tangible evidence to these learners that the courses would help them to obtain employment and would facilitate a variety of job readiness and employability skills. (1998). Competency based approach in designing English curriculum for tourism students was proposed by Sujana (2005). In establishing needed competencies in a particular workplace, he holds, a course designer can start from target needs, identify the duties of professional workers, translate the needs into competencies, translate the competencies into linguistic and other specifications and develop teaching/ learning activities to develop competencies. Stapa (1998) investigated the needs and expectations of Tourism and Management students with regard to the writing courses offered in three collages in Malaysia, and sought to see if the current writing programmes for hotel management and tourism students reflect the specific writing needs required at the workplace. The need to write formal letters and reports were the two highest skills required performing the jobs. Most respondents also indicated that they are not satisfied with the present syllabus offered at the collages and believed that the syllabus dud not equip them well in order to enter workforce.

Al -Khatib (2005) examined the communicative needs of tourism and banking personnel by shedding lights on their perceptions of needs, wants, lacks, and attitudes toward English in order to include what is needed and exclude what deemed less important to them. It has been observed that the type of work plays a significant role in evaluating and using of English. The most common reasons for communicating as a travel agency worker were found to be offering destination guides, writing and sending email and faxes, making on -line ticketing, browsing the internet, making on -line hotel booking, etc. Travel agency users were found to be heavier users of English than their banking counterparts. The results of the study indicated that the most important skill for tourism personnel is writing.

When instructing an EOP course an issue to take into consideration is that using adequate language learning and professional strategies are required in tourism field. (Laborda 2002). Inclusion of the strategies development in the academic process was found to provide both group and individual improvement.

In designing a course for students of culture and tourism, Barancic (1998) used an integrated approach to get the students involved in the syllabus he wanted to teach. The approach he invented consisted of 8components: knowing the class and their knowledge, determining the goals to achieve, the way we measure the success, making decisions with students involved, creating syllabus, deciding on the real teaching techniques and method and getting feedback

during the course. The application of the approach indicated that the teachers are faced with needs which are of a less academic and more realistic nature.

In a study on the contribution made by students with work experience to the development of courses for Hotel management and tourism, Leung (1994) found that: a - student's involvement in syllabus negotiation based on the experience in the industry(Hotel management) help the design of a need -based course, b - students provide valuable information on changes in workplace culture, for instance subservient politeness on the part of Hotel staff is giving way to a more outspoken, decision -making politeness, c -students suggestions as to what has to be learnt to cope with the vocational needs for tourism management can inform both the immediate learning environment and subsequent course planning activities. (Leung -1994)

Rationale for the study:

In the tourism field, English is used widely for inbound and outbound travel as well as in client contact (Leung, 1994). Moreover, tourism is rather a nascent course at the tertiary level; therefore, it is quite a demanding task to write the English syllabus and develop the course (Walker,

As Carson (2000) holds carefully identified needs and appropriate teaching materials for tourism students will produce satisfied customers as well as plenty of professional fulfillments for those committed to doing a good job.

Keeping this in view, it is felt that writing courses offered at university level should target on skills related to job needs and job functions to ensure that the learners are well equipped with the required writing skills in order for them to perform at the workplaces.

Method:

Since EOP (English for occupational purposes) is more concerned with the content and format, initially a complete list of sample business letters containing 591 letter topics was downloaded from 4hb.com letters and forms website. Due to the length of the list, it was speculated that checking such an exhaustive list might not be manageable, hence time -consuming. Consequently, a pilot study was arranged to firstly, truncate the original long list into a more relevant one and secondly, to become familiar with likely hurdles that one may face in dealing with travel agents and hoteliers.

To this end, the tourism students were given instructions to take the complete list to the travel agencies and hotels. They were required to ask a concerned travel agent to tick the titles they mostly deal with in their foreign correspondence.

As Bhatia (1993:35) has predicted it was "difficult to find a truly resourceful specialist informant". Furthermore, it took effort and time to explain the purpose of enquiry to both travel agents and hoteliers. To cope with these problems, the letter writing list was translated into Farsi and the attempt was made to explain the goal of the research to the travel agents and hoteliers.

Based on this pilot study, out of the 591 topics, 103 topics were sieved to be included in the final truncated version to be taken to the agencies. The rationale behind selecting these 103 topics was the number of the topics most frequently ticked by hotels and agencies in the pilot study. The newly drawn list was predicted to be more manageable and relevant to the job.

To specify the corresponding writing needs of tourism students, the newly drawn letter writing topics list was handed to 74 tourism students to take to 14 travel agencies and 4 hotels in Isfahan

and 6 travel agencies in Tehran. Finally, the frequency of selected topics by agencies and hotels was counted and the interrater reliability coefficient was computed.

Data Analysis & Conclusion

For the present study the tourism students' letter writing needs are defined as the most frequent letter subject marked by experts in travel agencies and hotels. Those letters the frequencies of which were higher than 10 i.e. marked by more than 40% of experts were selected as their writing needs. (Table1)

The frequency count of letters revealed that "Reservation" is regarded unanimously as a pressing need for tourism students by all the agencies and hotels. (Frequency= 224, 100%)

The second and third commonly marked letters were, as the table shows, "Thank you for tour" and "Announcement of special discount offer" with frequencies of 20 and 18 respectively.

Out of 24 agencies and hotels which received the letters list 17 marked 'Complimentary letter to hotel ", 16 marked "Announcement of price reduction" and 15 considered equally "Announcement of price increase", "Apology after cancellation of order" and "Bill of sale as important, i.e. as the forth, fifth and sixth frequently marked subjects.

"Complaint letter", "Congratulation for increased sale", "follow -up letter to travel agency" and "Apology for delay of refund" all were similarly regarded as significant by 13 experts (54%).

The next predominant letters were "Announcement of new discount" (frequency=12), "Guarantee" (frequency = 11) and "Reply to complaint", "Reply to inquiry ", "Employment agreement", "Announcement of change of address "and " Inquiry letter"(frequency=10). (Table 1)

To answer the second research question as to the degree of consistency between the answers from receivers of the list as well as the reliability of the instrument correlation was calculated for total agencies in Esfahan and Tehran and hotels and separately for Esfahan agencies, Tehran agencies and hotels.

The correlation value for all 24 participants was 0.83, demonstrating a considerable degree of consistency in experts' decision on the significance of letter subjects for tourism students. The Cronbach's Alpha for 14 Esfahan agencies amounted to 0.79 and is considered high enough in terms of consistency. Among 6 Tehran agencies the calculated value of was 0.49. The widely - accepted humanities and social science cut -off is that correlation value should be 0.7 or higher. The low degree of consistency among Tehran agencies compared to those in Esfahan **_can_** be attributed to the accessibility of larger number of agencies in Esfahas, for the research was conducted in Esfahan, so much so that if we had doubled the number of Tehran agencies, the coefficient alpha **_might have been_** higher and hence the result would has shown more homogeneity.

The lowest correlation value was obtained from the calculation of consistency among 4 hotels (0.39).Similarly the limited number of hotels referred for data collection **_may_** be for the low value.

The findings of the current research can have two major implementations for teaching English for tourism. Firstly, this can provide English for tourism (EFT) teachers with a list of letter writing genres they are mostly in need of. Since according to Cubo (2006) whenever a teacher of EFT encounters with creating or adapting materials, the first drawback s/he faces is to obtain accurate and reliable information on the genres and discourse patterns used in the targeted

professional settings. To remove this problem Cubo (2006) proposes that we can bridge the gap between the teacher of English for tourism and corporations in the tourism industry by knowing about the genres (both oral and written) used by a particular discourse community in a particular professional setting.

Secondly, the present findings can serve a useful reference for syllabus design in general and designing an appropriate writing syllabus in particular. As Munby (1979) and Donna (2000) state to adjust the course material to particular needs in working environment, we have to follow real demands and interests from the academic and professional worlds. In ESP courses this relies on detailed information taken from questionnaires, interviews and tests for the evaluation and measurement of interests, demands and needs in the target context, i.e., agencies and hotels in the present study, as the future work place.

In a nutshell, due to budget limitation, the number of English courses currently offered to tourism students is quite limited. Therefore, using a template -based approach to letter writing needs analysis may be helpful in optimizing and economizing the course.

Letter title	Frequency	Percentage
reservation	24	100
thank -you for tour	20	83
announcement of special discount offer	18	75
complimentary letter to hotel	17	70
announcement of price reduction	16	66
announcement of price increase	15	62
apology after cancellation of order	15	62
bill of sale	15	62
complaint letter	13	54
congratulation for increased sale	13	54
follow -up letter to travel agency	13	54

apology for delay of refund	13	54
announcement of new discount	12	50
guarantee	11	45
reply to complaint	10	41
reply to inquiry	10	41
employment agreement	10	41
announcement of change of address	10	41
inquiry letter	10	41

Table 1. Frequency count and Percentage of letters marked by experts

	correlation
Esfahan+ Tehran+ Hotel	0.83
Esfahan agencies	0.79
Tehran agencies	0.49
Esfahan hotels	0.39

Table 2 - Total Correlation between Esfahan Agencies, Tehran Agencies, and Hotels and Correlation among Agencies in Esfahan, Tehran and Hotels separately

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APENDIX

Simple Business Letters (Letters and Forms)

1 - Acceptance of order with delivery in lots

2 - Acceptance of resignation

3 - Acknowledged receipt of goods

4 - Acknowledgement and Acceptance of Order

5 - Acknowledgement of application

6 - Acknowledgement of cancellation of backorder

7 - Acknowledgement of change in meeting date

8 - Acknowledgement of customer praise of employee

9 - Agreement to extend Debt Payment

10 - Announcement of Additional location

11 - Announcement of catalog price reduction

12 - Announcement of change of address

13 - Announcement of change of address for billing

14 - Announcement of new area representative

15 - Announcement of new discount

16 - Announcement of price increase

17 - Announcement of price reduction

18 - Announcement of special discount offer

19 -Apology after cancellation of order

20 - Apology for delay of refund

21 - Application for license

22 - Appointment for employment interview and testing

23 - Assignment of contract

24 - Bill of sale

25 - Business credit application

26 - Commercial account analysis form

27 - Complaint letter

28 - Complimentary letter to hotel

29 - Confirmation

30 - Confirmation of acceptance of employee Suggestion

31 - Confirmation of interview appointment

32 - Confirmation of purchase agreement

33 - Confirmation of telephone report of problem

34 - Congratulations on a job well done

35 - Congratulations on increased sales

36 - Congratulations on outstanding achievements

37 - Customer service request form

38 - Demand for delivery

39 - Demand that future payments be by certified check

40 - Employee suggestion for company meeting

41 - Employee agreement

42 - Employee information form

43 - Employment letter

44 - Financing statement

45 - Five -day demand for payment

46 - Follow -up letter, Travel agency

47 - Guarantee

48 - Inquiry letter

49 - Negative response to job application

50 - Negative response to job candidate interview

51 - New employee welcome

52 - Notice of change of address

53 - Notice of inability to ship

54 - Notice of promotion

55 - Notice to employee of new vacation policy

56 - Offer of 2% discount for speedy payment

57 - Part arrival notice, Request to schedule service

58 - Payment on specific accounts

59 - Photo and recording release

60 - Pre -employment checklist

61 - Pre -employment checklist form

62 - Promotional letter, accountants

63 - Promotional letter, bank

64 - Promotional letter, catalog sales

65 - Promotional letter, corporate security

66 - Promotional letter, direct mail service

67 - Promotional letter, domestic service

68 - Promotional letter, insurance

69 - Promotional letter, office space

70 - Promotional letter, public relations

71 - Promotional letter, service business

72 - Reply to complaint

73 - Reply to inquiry

74 - Request for advertising rate information

75 - Request for advice

76 - Request for attendance at meeting

77 - Request for clarification on applying payment

78 - Request for employment interview

79 - Request for full refund

80 - Request for information from credit reporting agency

81 - Request for listing of employee to be tested

82 - Request to locate former employee

83 - Retirement party invitation

84 - Retirement party invitation and gift (internal)

85 - Return of check missing signature

86 - Reservation

87 - Termination of employment

88 - Thank you for hiring

89 - Thank you for interview

90 - Thank you for offer to help, Accepted

91 - Thank you for payment after phone call

92 - Thank you for support during illness

93 - Thank you for tour

94 - Thank you for uniform design

95 - Thank you for your inquiry (price list enclosed)

96 - Thank you for your kind comments

97 - Thank you from restaurant following luncheon

98 - Thank you to applicants for testing

99 - Time note

100 - Verification of employment and letter of recommendation

101 - Welcome new customer

103 - Welcome to our family of customers and friends