

## CHAPTER 2

### LITERATURE REVIEW

In this chapter I shall review the literature in the two main areas of my research questions and study; English for specific purposes (ESP) and attitudes and motivation. Motivation is closely linked to attitudes and a study of English for specific purposes gives an overview to the research and questions some of the key assumptions about ESP courses, namely whether an ESP course is distinct and different from a general English course. Also I have looked at previous studies to gather information on whether students want general English in conjunction with their ESP courses or whether instructors want to teach general English or at least have a broader focus during their ESP course.

The review of motivation strongly links attitudes with motivation, and research suggests that motivation or having a positive attitude towards studying the second language (L2) is vital to successful learning. Therefore it is important that attitudes be taken into account when designing any language course, whether for specific purposes or general English.

#### English for Specific Purposes

English for Specific Purposes (ESP) or English for Special Purposes arose as a term in the 1960's as it became increasingly aware that general English courses frequently did not meet learner or employers wants. As far back as 1977 Stevens (1977) set out to encapsulate the term and what it meant. Bruton, Candlin and Leather (1976a) studied the discourse of doctor-patient communication and applied their findings in specialist course

design (Bruton, Candlin & Leather, 1976b). This is one of the earliest examples of how analyzing the communicative characteristics of the workplace could then lead to a specific purposes course. Robinson (1980) wrote a thorough review of theoretical positions and what ESP meant at that time. Coffey (1985) updated Strevens's work and saw ESP as a major part of communicative language teaching in general.

At first register analysis was used to design ESP courses. Register analysis was the focus on grammar and structural and non-structural vocabulary found in target situations within the ESP environment. The underlying idea behind register analysis was; that while the grammar of scientific and technical writing does not differ from that of general English, certain grammatical and lexical forms are used much more frequently (Dudley-Evans & St. John, 1998). A course in basic scientific English compiled by Ewer and Latorre (1969) is a typical example of an ESP syllabus based on register analysis.

However, using just register analysis failed to meet desired outcomes. Thus new courses were designed to meet these perceived failures. Target situation analysis became dominant in ESP course design as the stakeholders and employers demanded that courses better meet their needs. Technical English (Pickett & Laster, 1980) was an early example of a textbook using this approach.

Hutchinson and Waters (1987) gave three reasons for the emergence of ESP, the demands of a brave new world, a revolution in linguistics and a new focus on the learner.

Today it is still a prominent part of EFL (English as a Foreign Language) teaching (Anthony, 1997b). Johns and Dudley-Evans (2001, p.115) state that, '*the demand for English for specific purposes... continues to increase and expand throughout the world.*' The '*internationalism*' (Cook, 2001, p.164) of English seems to be increasing with few other global languages i.e. Spanish or Arabic, close to competing with it.

Under the umbrella term of ESP there are a myriad of sub-divisions. For example English for Academic Purposes (EAP), English for Business Purposes (EBP), English for Occupational Purposes (EOP), and English for Medical Purposes (EMP), and numerous others with new ones being added yearly to the list. In Japan Anthony (1997a, p.1) stated that as a result of Universities being given control over their own curriculums *'a rapid growth in English courses aimed at specific disciplines, e.g. English for Chemists arose.'* It could be said that ESP has increased over the decades as a result of market forces, globalization and a greater awareness amongst the academic and business community that learners' needs and wants should be met wherever possible. ESP courses were designed to meet the learning gap that general English textbooks could not provide.

As Belcher (2006, p.134) says ESP now encompasses an *'ever-diversifying and expanding range of purposes.'* This continued expansion of ESP into new areas has arisen due to the ever-increasing globalized world (Robertson, 1995). As our global village becomes smaller so the transfer of resources, capital, goods, and information increases. Flowerdew (1990) attributes its dynamism to market forces and theoretical renewal. Belcher (2004) also noted trends in the teaching of ESP in three distinct directions: the sociodiscoursal, sociocultural (See Mitchell & Myles, 1998), and sociopolitical. Kavaliauskiene (2007, p.8) also writes on a new individualized approach to learners *'to gain each learner's trust and think of the ways of fostering their linguistic development.'*

From the outset, the term ESP was a source of contention with many arguments as to what exactly was ESP? Even today there is a large amount of on-going debate as to how to specify what exactly ESP constitutes (Belcher, 2006, Dudley-Evan & St. John, 1998, Anthony, 1997). I would add that as general English courses become increasingly specialized and learner centered with many courses using needs analysis, it is getting harder to describe what ESP is and what is 'general English'.

For example Strutt (2003, p.4) in his introduction, describes his textbook (English for International Tourism) as needing no specialized knowledge '*it is not technical or over-specialized in nature.*' If writers' believe that their textbooks are not really specific or technical, then it becomes harder to describe using them as teaching ESP. The Language of Business English: Grammar & Functions (Brieger & Sweeney, 1994), what one might think of as an ESP textbook looks remarkably similar to any general English textbook using grammar as a means of structure. It is only that all examples are used within a 'business' context that separates it from a normal EFL textbook. Ellis and Johnson (1994, p.10) on listing several differences between business and general English then went on to say '*we acknowledge that there are many situations where the distinctions are not so clear.*' Donna (2004, p.2) also admits business English '*has much in common with general EFL*' but argues that the aims of a business English course are different, she focuses on students' and stakeholders' expectations and student's work as being different from general EFL classes. Although this sounds good, I disagree with her. In recent years all English courses are becoming focused on expectations of the learners' and output produced during the course, so once again it seems we lack a vital 'ESP' ingredient.

Wright (1992, p.1) described one of the differences succinctly; general English is concerned with everyday life these '*universal topics are socializing, shopping, traveling, eating out, telephoning friends.....So when one learns a language, one must be exposed to linguistic items relating to these universal topics. This is the task of a general English course.* A specific English course may contain material pertaining to a general English course but (Wright, 1992, p.1) '*when we reach the stage at which any topic constitutes an individual's profession, it becomes crucial that he have mastery of the specialized language pertaining to it.*' A simple distinction to make between ESP and general English is that ESP builds upon what has been learnt and studied in earlier general English classes.

Dudley-Evans and St. John attempted (1998) to apply a series of characteristics some absolute and some variable to resolve arguments about what ESP is. This followed on from earlier work by Strevens (1988).

Definition of ESP (Dudley-Evans & St. John, 1998, p.4)

*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 (for example an EAP course which only teaches writing, or a business course which only teaches presentation).
- 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.

This description helps to clarify to a certain degree what an ESP course constitutes. I would argue though that things have changed dramatically since his definition was written and today many ESP learners are of below intermediate level. Maleki (2006) demonstrated that low English language proficiency of Iranian EFL students hindered their academic progress. He also states that strong language proficiency is needed for university level ESP

courses. Also it would be expected of all general English courses to meet the specific needs of learners.

Perhaps one of the main distinguishing characteristics is that certain but by no means all ESP (especially EOP) courses are carried out for a group of workers from one area of work. There are a number of other characteristics of ESP that several authors have put forward. Belcher (2006, p.135), states that '*ESP assumes that the problems are unique to specific learners in specific contexts and thus must be carefully delineated and addressed with tailored to fit instruction.*' Mohan (1986, p.15) adds that ESP courses focus on preparing learners '*for chosen communicative environments.*'

Learner purpose is also stated by Graham and Beardsley (1986) and learning centeredness (Carter, 1983; Hutchinson & Waters, 1987) as integral parts of ESP. Thus it could be argued that ESP from the outset focused on learner centered teaching, a situation that was certainly not true of traditional general English courses. As stated above however, this situation has changed dramatically in recent years.

Lorenzo (2005, p.1) reminds us that ESP '*concentrates more on language in context than on teaching grammar and language structures.*' I would agree with him, but would argue that grammar still plays an important and necessary part in an ESP course. He also points out that as ESP is usually delivered to adult students, frequently in a work related setting (EOP), that motivation to learn is higher than in usual ESL (English as a Second Language) contexts. This area of motivation is also of interest in my research. Carter (1983) believed that self-direction is important in the sense that an ESP course is concerned with turning learners into users of the language. Thus ESP played an integral role in communicative language teaching.

Flowerdew (1990, p.327) points out that one reason ESP has problems in establishing itself in a clearly defined area within ELT (English Language Teaching) in

general 'is that many of the ideas closely associated with ESP have been subsequently appropriated by the 'parent' discipline.' He gives as an example functional/notional syllabuses which have been adopted into the mainstream of language teaching. He also includes the example of needs analysis which traditionally distinguished ESP courses from general English course design. Also one of the main distinguishing factors of ESP from general English is the continued high focus on the learner. Not just at the outset of a course but increasingly during a course as well.

Another area of debate within ESP concerns the role of methodology. Widdowson (1983, p.87) has argued that '*methodology has generally been neglected in ESP.*' However, today there are so many various courses under the ESP umbrella that it is impossible to discuss this question, clearly different methodologies have to be used according to the course design and goals and outcomes of those courses. An instructor within the ESP umbrella might well have to change their style depending on the course taught. Wright though, (1992, p.5) believes '*Methodology is also of crucial importance. Since ESP courses aim to develop linguistic skills relating to particular spheres of activity, not only the nature of the linguistic items introduced, but the ways in which they are introduced and how they are practiced, are highly significant.*'

What is an undisputed fact is that any ESP course should be needs driven (Wright, 1992), and has an '*emphasis on practical outcomes.*' (Dudley-Evan & St. John, 1998, p.1). Therefore needs analysis is and always will be an important and fundamental part of ESP (Wright, 1992; Ellis & Johnson, 1994; Gatehouse, 2001; Graves, 2000; Scrivener, 2005).

It is '*the corner stone of ESP and leads to a very focused course.*' (Dudley-Evans & St. John, 1998, p.122) state grandly, indeed needs analysis might have once been the corner stone of ESP but is now increasingly common for many EFL situations. Holme (1996) offers a useful analogy of a general English book designed for a stereotypical

European teenager. Clearly the book designers must have carried out a needs analysis (or something similar) when designing their book. Holme (1996, p.3) thus believes that '*ESP is simply a narrowing of this needs spectrum.*'

Kaur (2007, p.1) points out correctly though that it is not just general EFL courses that neglect needs analysis and describes the situation of Malaysia where '*many instances of ESP teaching and especially of course design are often ad-hoc and not entirely based on comprehensive needs analyses.*' Poon (2007) suggests a lack of time was a major factor in courses not being designed after a thorough needs analysis was carried out. Although time is a major factor in an exclusion of a needs or deficiency analysis (which of their target situation needs they lack or need to study more), money is also a major factor.

Clearly an in-depth needs analysis with an examination of target situations even for a small group of learners would cost several hundred dollars, a sum that many stakeholders with tight training budgets might balk at.

Needs analysis evolved in the 1970's (See Munby, 1978) to include 'deficiency analysis', or assessment of the 'learning gap' (West, 1997, p.71) between target language use and current learner proficiencies. However, since the 1980's there has been debate if gathering expert and data driven objective information about learners is enough (Tudor, 1997). Nowadays there is increasing focus on looking at learners' subjective needs, '*their self-knowledge, awareness of target situations, life goals, and instructional expectations.*' (Belcher, 2006, p.136). There is also an increasing focus on '*appropriate perspectives on language learning and language skills.*' (Far, 2008, p.2).

Clearly the subject of needs analysis is fundamental to all English instruction today, and the key question is whether the needs analysis is carried out in a thorough manner, with all participants involved, or whether it is carried out in a haphazard fashion. We also have to look closely at perceived needs and wants and realistic or obtainable or desired



wants. Clearly there will always be a tension and friction between the teaching triangle of instructor/s, students and stakeholders.

Certainly though ESP was a driving force behind needs analysis as Richards (2001, p.36) says, '*The emergence of ESP with its emphasis on needs analysis as a starting point in language program design was an important factor in the development of current approaches to language curriculum development.*'

There is another aspect of ESP courses that is debated widely, that is how broad or narrow a focus should the course have (Dudley-Evans & St. John, 1998, Flowerdew, 1990). Should a course focus on subject area content exclusively and a set list of target situations or skills (narrow focus) or set out to cover a wider range of skills and target events (broad focus) perhaps even beyond the immediate perceived needs of the learners. I believe that the narrow focus approach can be disempowering to students and wherever possible instructors should expand their students' horizons. Carter (1983) identified one type of ESP as English as a Restricted language. An example cited by Gatehouse (2001) is air traffic controllers, another example was hotel waiters. However, I do not agree with the second example, hotel waiters could be expected to use language not just in a restricted range.

Clearly for certain types of courses, the focus can start or end up being narrow. Kaur (2007) found that students were very happy with a narrow focus course as they felt no time was wasted during their course. However, Mackay and Mountford (1978) point out, and I agree with them, that knowing the restrictive language of their target situation would not enable them to function outside of that narrow context.

Students' and stakeholders' perceptions may be misguided and only focused on short-term goals. This then means that an adept instructor has to change those perceptions before or during a course. This then is a key issue not just in ESP but in all English

courses, do students actually want a narrow focus, and if so, does it not limit their English progress? I deem this issue will become increasingly important.

Jasso-Aguilar (1999) examined how perceived stakeholder needs of hotel maids in a hotel in Waikiki failed to meet the expectations of the actual learners' themselves. Stapa & Jais (2005) examined the failure of Malaysian University courses in hotel management and tourism to meet the perceived wants and needs of the students with a lack of skills and genres covered in their courses. Therefore it is clear that needs analysis must include the students' input from the beginning of a course design. Stakeholders, institutions and employers will often perceive wants and needs differently from students.

Recently new debate has arisen as to the authenticity of materials within ESP. Although from the outset of ESP, the use of authentic materials was a fundamental concept. Authenticity was the main idea behind ESP exercise typology (Coffee, 1984). Bojovic (2006) believes that material should be authentic, up to date and relevant for the students' specializations. However, as Wang (2006, p.2) points out '*authentic materials are not automatically good materials or necessarily appropriate for learners and their specific roles.*' They can contain cultural and social knowledge which goes beyond learners' interpretation (Widdowson, 1990). Wang (2006) points out though, that authentic materials can lead to increased motivation as they have a real communicative purpose. I agree with this, authentic materials have a prominent role to play in any English classroom and especially if possible in an ESP course. Wright (1992, p.6) thinks if the language level of the learners is low then authentic materials may have to be adapted; if their level is higher then '*the degree of authenticity becomes greater.*'

The fact that ESP should be materials driven was set out long ago by Dudley-Evan and St. John (1998). This has driven a need for instructors to evaluate their course books more closely to see just how suitable a match they are for their students.

Evaluating materials for ESP is a vital skill which as Anthony (1997a, p.3) states '*perhaps the role that ESP practitioners have neglected most to date.*' Zhang (2007) set out a series of steps to evaluate materials used in class. Brunton (2009) evaluated a modern ESP course book designed for Hotel workers using these criteria. Ironically it is the very success of ESP that has given rise to this debate, and perhaps failure of recent ESP courses. Bookshelves are filled with a large amount of books designed for ESP students; this plethora of material thus reduces individual instructor's motivation to construct their own course content with a focus on the immediate learners' context and particular needs. Anthony (1997b, p.3) argues that '*materials writers think very carefully about the goals of learners at all stages of materials production.*' Clearly this will not happen when designing or using a generic assigned course book. Gatehouse (2001, p.10) believes that there is a value in all texts, but goes on to say that '*curricular materials will unavoidably be pieced together, some borrowed and others specially designed.*'

Anthony (1997b) had a very negative view of teaching from ESP course books believing that teachers were often slaves to the book or worse taught from textbooks which were unsuitable. Wright (1992, p.9) arguing against textbook courses says '*The scope of existing materials is often not appropriate to the needs of a particular group of trainees. Textbook courses are too broad or too narrow, too long or too short.*' However, he acknowledges that the reason for ESP courses often using textbooks is that teachers do not get paid to design their own specific materials for a specific class of students.

Toms (2004, p.3) strongly argued, especially against using a general English course book for learners with specific needs stating that the '*course book has an ancillary, if any role to play in the ESAP syllabus.*' Clearly though he is taking the narrow focus approach, which I do not agree with. Surely we would want students to be able to talk about themselves and their lives along with an ability to read and summarize academic texts? A

further argument for the use of general English in conjunction with specific English was put forward by Spack (1988) who found that academic students frequently had a problem with general English words. Finally Skehan (1998, p.260) argued that using course books goes against all notions of learning centeredness with regards to the individual stating '*the scope to adapt material to learner differences is severely constrained.*' I would argue though, that if a proper needs analysis has been carried out and students are given the chance to negotiate the curriculum with the instructor, then a good ESP instructor can indeed adapt written materials and make informed choices as to what material to include and what to leave out.

In an ideal world the instructor would have one to two hours of preparation time for every hour of teaching, this frequently does not happen, therefore textbooks are frequently a 'starting point' but not the end point when making decisions on what to teach in class.

Curriculum development is another important issue in ESP. Bloor (1998) discussed issues related to ESP design similar to the work of Dudley-Evans & St. John (1998) who set out a detailed summary of ESP course design. Richards (2001) wrote a detailed account of the history of ESP course design. Xenodohidis (2002, p.7) states that '*the goals should be realistic, otherwise the students would be de-motivated.*' Certainly having clear goals is necessary for a course. Chen (2006) stresses the importance of an identification of a 'common core' of English language needs as well as a diverse range of discourse and genres to meet 'specific' needs. However, as back as 1980 Chitavelu (1980) spoke about having a 'core' of language in an ESP course. Anthony (1997a, p. 3) thought that '*one of the main controversies in the field of ESP is how specific materials should be.*' In this context he was talking about team teaching with a general English teacher. He argued that a lack of specificity from course books leaves the instructor with no choice but to design

materials that are appropriate for the students. I would argue that all course books need to be adapted to suit the learners.

Gatehouse (2001) successfully integrated general English language content and acquisition skills when developing the curriculum for language preparation for employment in the health sciences. This shows that it is possible for general English to be successfully included in an ESP course. In an ESP course for employees at the American University of Beirut, as described by Shaaban (2005), the curriculum development and course content also focused on a common 'general' core for the learners.

It is agreed that when designing a curriculum for ESP students in the field of EOP (English for Occupational Purposes) that learning tasks and activities should have '*a high surrender value*', meaning that the students would be able to immediately use what they learned to perform their jobs more effectively (Edwards, 2000, p.292). Designing the course based around this belief increases the students' intrinsic motivation which should aid their learning (Gardner, 2000, Walqui, 2000). McCarten (2007, p.26) states '*making vocabulary personal helps to make it more memorable.*' So ESP courses can have an advantage over general English courses. Today English instructors are aware of the importance of making all tasks and activities personal, thus again the line between ESP and general English has become blurred. Hutchinson and Waters (1987) believed that all decisions as to content should be based on the learners' rationale for learning. When designing a curriculum or syllabus Johns and Evans (2001, p.117) suggest '*that the students' target English situations have identifiable elements.* Thus once the elements have been identified the process of curriculum design can proceed. However, many ESP course today are delivered without a target situation analysis being carried out.

Dudley-Evans and St John (1998, p.171) state that materials need to be '*consistent and to have some recognizable pattern.*' This is to aid students' learning strategies

(Oxford, 2000, Oxford & Crookall, 1989, Skehan, 1989). I believe that this is wise for lower level learners, but not really necessary for higher level students. Indeed intermediate and advanced students might become bored if materials are seen to be repetitive. Materials also have to have a very purpose-related orientation which Gatehouse (2001) believes is an essential component of any material designed for specific purposes. Having a clear purpose behind materials also promotes motivation (Dornyei, 2001a).

Gao (2007, p.6) sums up issues of ESP course design in her paper about an ESP course for business students in China, *'when designing an ESP course, the primary issue is the analysis of learners' specific needs. Other issues addressed include: determination of realistic goals and objectives; integration of grammatical functions and the abilities required for future workplace communication, and assessment and evaluation.'*

Today the debate is moving towards the area of negotiated syllabi, if learners' can state their wants and needs, then surely they can also help design their own courses? As Kaur (2007, p.9) says, *'When ESP learners take some responsibility for their own learning and are invited to negotiate some aspects of the course design.....they feel motivated to become more involved in their learning...'* I agree with Kaur's comments. However, Skehan (1998, p.262) discusses the process approach toward course design and warns against negotiated syllabi if the learners do not know how to be *'effective learners.'* I think this is ignoring the positive points that arise from giving students' choices. An instructor can also have the final say in a negotiated syllabus if student choices are detrimental to their own learning.

Williams and Burden (1997) set out a list of learning strategies and skills that teachers should develop in students' to enable autonomous and more independent learning to take place. Thus an instructor can work with the students not just on language skills but

simultaneously with learning skills and strategies (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987; Dudley-Evans, 1997; Dudley-Evans & St. John, 1998; Douglas, 2000).

It should not be forgotten though that even a successfully designed ESP course may have a mismatch between skills. As Ping and Gu (2004) found out on researching a technical communication course in China, in their summary they found that students technical reading and writing skills had increased but their ability in speaking had not. I would argue that time may have been a constraint in the course and the instructor most likely chose to focus on reading and writing.

Finally we should not forget the role of the instructor in an ESP course. Swales (1985, p.214) commented on a lack of 'specialized teacher-training' within ESP. Some 25 years later the same situation still applies. Many instructors, who have taught ESP courses including myself, have received no special ESP teacher training. This lack of special training may impact on the effectiveness of instruction.

Another area of constant debate has been whether a true specialist in the field is better equipped to teach an ESP course. In a paper on teaching a medical science course Maleki (2008) found that student satisfaction was far higher with the TEFL teacher's class than the GP's (General Practitioner) class. This goes some way in showing that a greater awareness of teaching methodology is more important than a wide range of knowledge in a specialist field. Zoumana (2007) however, conducted a study on pre-service ESP teacher training and thought that a basic knowledge in the technical field is required to make an ESP teacher operational. I would support Maleki's findings more, in my experience of teaching ESP courses a lack of specialist technical knowledge was rarely of issue. If an instructor does find they lack technical knowledge then they can elicit said information from students or stakeholders involved.

As Robinson (1991) asserts, an ESP teacher or instructor should be flexible, and in my own opinion any EFL teacher should welcome the opportunity to teach an ESP course as a chance to perhaps learn something new and increase their own knowledge span. In Qatar, I was given a large technical science book to be used for instruction in the class. This then became a weekly lesson in the sciences for the instructor as well as the students. Maleki (2008) finishes his paper with a controversial statement that specialists wishing to teach English gain necessary teaching qualifications, I do not believe that this is necessary but attending a short four week teacher training course (i.e.: TEFL, TESL, CELTA) would be of great benefit.

Scrivener's (2005, p.324) comments on what an ESP course means for teachers might seem overly simplistic to ESP experts but I believe the advice is good. *'Go on teaching all the normal English you already teach in all the ways you know how to do already, but use lexis, examples, topics and contexts that are, as far as possible, relevant to the students and practice relevant specific skills.'*



In conclusion to illustrate the complex interaction of factors involved in ESP and ESP courses I have drawn a picture of the different factors and likened it to a juggling act (Figure 1) where you must juggle various factors in a course and decide on your course of action.

### The ESP Juggling Act

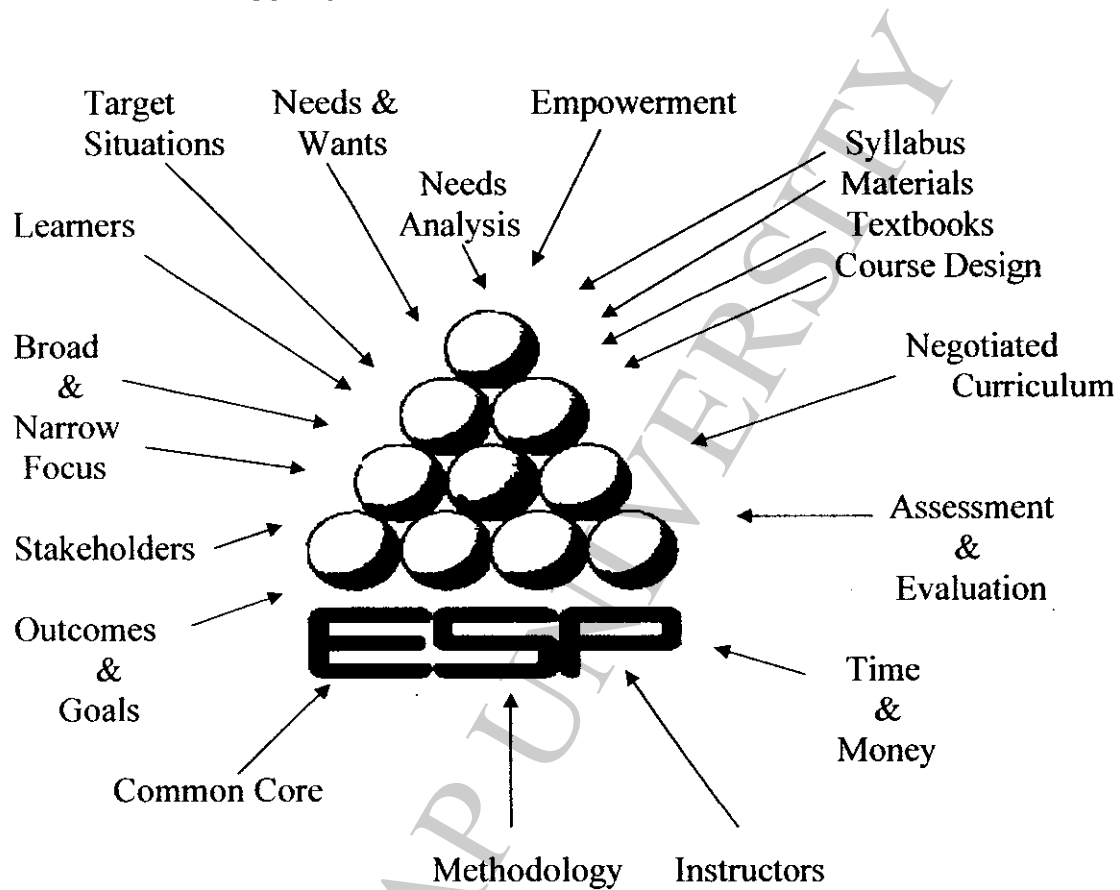


Figure 1. The ESP juggling Act.

As can be seen an ESP course involves juggling a lot of factors, therefore in my study I do not set out impose a panacea to the difficulties of ESP course design. Indeed many of the factors in Figure 1 are relevant to general English courses as well. Figure 1 is a summation of the factors discussed in the literature review. It is obvious that all courses by necessity have to include a number of factors and that those factors can exert positive or negative pressure on others.

Thus if time is of the essence, then a narrow focused approach may be necessary. If money is tight a generic textbook will be used. If stakeholders' and students' perceived wants are opposite to the instructor's then negotiation will have to take place as to the course content and syllabi. Is the textbook suitable or do authentic materials have to be introduced? Will the syllabi be negotiated fully or partly? Is empowerment an issue and more importantly does the instructor believe it to be important and if so how would this change course design? I will use these factors and the figure when discussing the results of my research.

In this review it can be seen that the distinction between ESP and general English is fuzzy and lacks clarity. As English teaching throughout the world becomes increasingly professional and highly organized and as learners' and stakeholders' needs are met, differences between the two EFL branches will decrease sometimes to the point of touching. Figure 1 shows the main factors involved with ESP courses but shows that the majority of these factors also have relevance for general English courses as well.

The main distinguishing point between many ESP and general EFL textbooks is that the ESP book will mainly stick to one area or context whereas general English books will set out their lessons within a variety of contexts or situations. One could almost argue that any so-called ESP course that proceeds using a generic textbook is similar to a general English course, and that it is only custom-made, designed and delivered courses using authentic materials delivered by an experienced practitioner or instructor that is true 'ESP'.

It has become clear in this review that ESP courses have fractured and sub-divided, today you have 'general' ESP courses, where a teacher is given a course book 'BANKING 101 – Intermediate Communication Skills' and told to teach a diverse group of banking employees. No needs analysis has been or will be carried out, no real target situation

analysis has been done and there will be no real evaluation of the course at the end of the teaching cycle. Personally I have had experience of this type of ESP course.

At the other end of the spectrum you have highly professional ESP courses custom designed to a select group of employees. I would argue it is only this type of course that can truly call itself ESP. Perhaps it is time to add a new acronym to the already bewildering list of terms in the literature and profession. GESP (Generic English for Specific Purposes), perhaps ultimately it is up to the lowly instructor to decide on what end of the spectrum his or her course will be?

As we enter the next decade it can be seen from this discussion that ESP continues to evolve along several distinct paths. All these branches however, share something in common; an increasing focus on learners, not just their immediate wants and needs but future wants and needs as well. A move toward negotiated or process orientated syllabi with students' actively involved with their courses. A continued focus on individual learning, learner centeredness, and learner autonomy. A move away from ESP course books towards a more eclectic approach to materials, with an emphasis on careful selection of materials to meet learners' wants and needs. A continued high-emphasis on target situation analysis, deficiency analysis, and needs analysis, and following the course delivery a more objective approach to evaluation and assessment of the course (Graves, 2000).

Certain aspects of ESP continue to have debate, as to best teaching practice, for instance whether the course should be narrowly focused, just on immediate students needs. What could be termed a restrictive syllabi or a broader focus that also teaches skills and situations and hence vocabulary and grammar outside of the needs analysis. It is also open for debate whether students should be allowed to choose (if they have a choice) the narrow focus approach. On paper it might seem like a worthwhile approach but I would argue it

does not empower learners' and rewards them for sticking to '*what they know best*'. Thus even in a negotiated syllabus, it is the teacher's choice to broaden the English skills and abilities of the students' beyond what they or involved stakeholders feel is necessary for them.

ESP is today more vibrant than ever with a bewildering number of terms created to fit the increasing range of occupations that have taken shelter under the ESP umbrella. It seems with increasing globalization and mobility of the world's workforce that the demand for specific courses will not decrease but only rise. As newer emergent economic powers arise e.g. India, Dubai, Qatar, Malaysia, and Eastern Europe this will fuel demand for worker's to have good command of English for their workplace. Perhaps stakeholders and learners also realize that English can be used for social purposes, as a means of empowerment and self-expression and not restrict themselves too narrowly to just a few target situations.

### Motivation and Attitudes

The motivation to learn or study an L2 (second language) has long been recognized as an important attribute for successful learning (Dörnyei, 1998; Gardner & Lambert, 1972; Gardner, 2000).

The Cambridge Dictionary Online (2009) defines motivation as '*enthusiasm, need or reason for doing something.*' According to Dörnyei (2001a, p.9) '*early theories of motivation were strongly influenced*' by the Austrian psychiatrist Freud. Maslow's (1970) hierarchy of human needs also influenced early research in motivation.

He proposed there were five classes of needs starting from the most basic, and as each need was met, the individual would then focus on obtaining the next need on the list. The list in order from most basic to the most advanced was; physiological, safety, love,

esteem, and self-actualization. What is remarkable is that even today we can place reasons and motivation for studying an L2 in all these positions. Personally, I find myself motivated to learn the Korean language better as a result of love and esteem.

According to Deci and Ryan (2000) motivation is a set of behaviors that will bring about desired outcomes or goals. Motivation or the student's attitude plays a key component to successful L2 acquisition. In my eight years' experience of classroom EFL teaching; motivated students frequently outperform less motivated students, regardless of potential aptitude or intelligence. Motivation however, is an extremely complicated area to research.

Harris (2007, p.1) points out that '*most people define motivation based on their own personal feelings.*' Personal feelings are very often hard to quantify. This then makes a lot of research in the area questionable. We have to assume that students know themselves well enough to define and quantify their own motivation. Furthermore, Dörnyei (2000) thinks because there are so many meanings no one seems able to define it adequately.

Marchese (1997), believes motivation, like learning is complex because it requires the understanding of a whole person and whole brain activity, and therefore can not fit into set categories. Indeed it is so complicated that it is necessary to breakdown motivating factors within the individual. In addition, it is also necessary to accept different theories of motivation as many have valid and relevant views. Ryan and Deci (2000) believe that motivation does not act as a single unit. There are different amounts and different kinds of motivation. I agree with their view, what motivates us if we accept Maslow's hierarchy of human needs is an ever increasing set of wants and needs, which if we believe in the famous rule of economics, can never be fully obtained.

I am sure we have all met the extremely successful second language learner who on appearance seems to be near fluent, yet they are frustrated with their own English

abilities. This is a clear example of self-actualization, where the motivation to become even better at English comes from within the learner. Modern global society would accept them as near flawless English speakers, perhaps with abilities and vocabulary beyond that of certain native English speakers; therefore they are evidence of intrinsic motivation to learn (see below) at its most extreme form. As any language is '*so vast and complicated that it is literally impossible to master it completely*' (Wright, 1992, p.2).

What further complicates a discussion on motivation for the language learner is that motivation is never a constant. Dörnyei and Otto (1999, p.1) say it is not a '*static state but rather a dynamically evolving and changing entity, associated with an ongoing process in time.*' It clearly can and does change over time.

It can also change or be affected due to a myriad of factors including learning history (Ushioda, 1998; Masgoret & Gardner, 2003), peers (Wentzel, 1998), social class (Hawkins, 1972), parents (Gardner, 1985), the location of the student (Hawkins, 1972), the student's culture (Jin and Cortazzi 1998; Hinenoya & Gatbonton, 2000; Kramsch, 2001; Olshtain et al, 1990), student autonomy (Garcia & Pintrich, 1996), the teacher (Breen & Mann, 1997; Noels et al. 1999; Dörnyei, 2001), the materials (Nunan, 1997; Brown, 2001), tasks and activities (Cheah, 2003; Dörnyei, 2003; Ellis, 2003; Harmer, 2006), physical setting of the classroom (Harmer, 2006), group interaction (Clement et al. 1994; Smith, 2001; Dörnyei & Murphey, 2003), external rewards (Koestner & McClelland, 1990; Dörnyei, 2001; Katsara, 2008), the social context (Krashen, 1977; Dörnyei, 1996), age (Long, 2005), hobbies and social activities (Lam & Kramsch, 2002), the day, the month, the weather, and the list goes on.

Also at this point I want to state that motivation can also change due to our physical condition. The link between body and mind has long been accepted. Therefore if our bodies are tired or sick our level of mental energy and thus motivation will change. This is

one area of research that has not been looked at closely, but clearly from long experience of teaching exhausted Korean High school students (and elementary) who have come from a ten hour day at school to a private institution to learn English for three more hours, it was their physical condition which underpinned the lack of motivation which was sometimes apparent in the classroom. Body rhythms or bio-cycles may also affect motivation, for example people who are active in the morning (morning larks) may have differing levels and times of motivation to those who are most active in the evening or nighttime (night owls). Thus people should try to study at the time when their own levels of energy are highest and avoid times when energy or mental activity is low.

De-motivated students can change their attitudes, for example in Lam & Kramsch (2002), Almon, a young Hong Kong immigrant to California was de-motivated to learn English at high school for a number of reasons, however his social interactions on the internet led him to change his attitudes and become motivated for communicative purposes and this resulted in a new motivation to learn and do better in his school studies. This supports theories of discourse (Hatch, 1983) that argue that interaction is vitally important for L2 learning.

Clearly then if motivation is capricious, if it never stands still, even for a moment researchers will always be left with an incomplete picture. As Dörnyei (2001a, p.2) says *'motivation is one of the most elusive concepts in the whole domain of the social sciences.'* He also comments on the current state of motivational research (Dörnyei, 2001a, p.2), *'contemporary motivational psychology is characterized by a confusing plethora of competing theories with little consensus and much disagreement among researchers.'* I would disagree with him, on this point, because if we look at L2 motivation theories, many contain in essence the same beliefs, and often it is the terminology that is different. For example Gardner & Lambert's (1972) view of instrumental motivation has parallels

with Deci & Ryan's (1985) extrinsic view of motivation. Intrinsic motivation has similarities with integrative motivation.

Calvin (1991, p.1) links motivation directly with needs and attitudes and notes that while researchers try to identify main components of motivation, *'teachers are mainly concerned about their students' attitudes towards and interests in language learning.'* I agree with Calvin that an instructor's interest in motivation should lie directly with students' attitudes and should also be focused on knowing an individual's needs as well as the class needs and overall goals. For example a less successful learner may have had classroom instruction with limited communicative practice which affects motivation (Cook et al, 1979). Presenting quality activities can *'make an enormous difference in students' attitudes toward learning'* (Dörnyei, 2003, p.14). Already we can see a strong link between attitudes and motivation.

Motivation therefore is strongly linked with needs analysis and learner centeredness (Liuoliene & Metiuniene, 2006), and current theories of motivation strongly support the view that it is equally as important to success in language learning as aptitude or intelligence. In a meta-analysis of 75 motivation studies, Masgoret and Gardner (2003, p.205) concluded that *'motivation is more highly related to second language achievement'* than other factors.

Harris (2007, p.1) believes 'motivation' to be an umbrella term and lists a series of *'components of motivation such as intrinsic, extrinsic, self-determination, attainment value, goal theories, affective factors, learner autonomy, valence, expectancy value, to name but a few.'* This list illustrates the confusing number of terms that exists in the field today. Brown (2001) also further suggests that language ego, self-confidence and self-esteem are all components of motivation factors.



Perhaps I should set down in a study of motivation, what researchers do seem all to agree upon. Motivation is concerned with the '*direction*' and '*magnitude*' of human behavior (Dörnyei 2001a, p.7), which includes:

- 1) the *choice* of a particular action – why we do it.
- 2) the *persistence* with it – how long we will do it.
- 3) the *effort* expended on it – how hard we are going to try and do it.

(Dörnyei 2001a, p.8)

Another prominent motivational theory in L2 learning is the Self-Determination Theory proposed by Deci and Ryan (1985). They described motivation as either intrinsic or extrinsic; they also added that people will be more self-determined if they experience autonomy, competence and relatedness. Ryan and Deci describe intrinsic motivation as '*doing something because it is inherently interesting or enjoyable*' and extrinsic motivation as '*doing something because it leads to a separable outcome*' (2000, p.55). The main point of separation is that intrinsic motivation comes from within the person; they want to study English or an L2 for themselves, for example to watch English movies, or speak English abroad when traveling. Extrinsic motivation comes from the outside environment and can include the need to pass exams, or to please parents and teachers. However, I should say that often motivation is on a point in a line between these two extremes. Where a motivation is placed on this line is dependent on how '*internalized*' the form of motivation is and '*...how much the regulation has been transferred from outside to inside the individual*' (Dörnyei, 2001a, p.47).

Most researchers also seem to agree that intrinsic motivation is considered better than extrinsic motivation (Walqui, 2000), especially for long term motivation and

behavioral changes which are important for language acquisition. Douglas Brown (1981, 1990, and 2001) is one of the main proponents of emphasizing the importance of intrinsic motivation in the L2 classroom and he offers a number of strategies on how to achieve this. If the learner wants or expects to communicate in English they will develop greater proficiency (Csizer & Dörnyei, 2005). This is a key factor in the success of ESP courses.

According to Dörnyei and Otto's (1999) process model of learning motivation, the motivation process can be divided into three phases: preactional, actional and postactional. A person or learner may go from one stage to another depending on their level of motivation (Dörnyei 2001a). Today this cyclical nature of motivation is agreed upon by researchers. We all experience differing levels of motivation for example at work, in relationships, and in our own personal fitness, thus learners will experience the same with their language studies. It is thus up to the teacher to provide stimuli which continue to create a positive cycle of motivation and avoid de-motivating factors which can negatively affect L2 acquisition.

A teacher can promote positive factors by addressing students' needs (Liuoliene & Metiuniene, 2006), reducing anxiety (Horwitz, 1986; Oxford & Shearin, 1996; Saito, Horwitz & Garza, 1999) which affects motivation, enabling cooperative learning (Crandall, 1999, Chen, 2005) and promoting learner autonomy (Knowles, 1995; Nunan, 1998; Dörnyei, 2001a).

Autonomy was found to be *'more closely related to motivational factors than to performance and...seem(s) to foster intrinsic goal orientation, task value, and self-efficacy, all of which are critical components of 'continuing motivation''* (Garcia & Pintrich, 1996, p.477).

Although some research has shown that Asian students do not respond well to learner autonomy ((Pennycook, 1997; Sinclair, 1997), I would argue it is then the

instructor's responsibility to change those attitudes which may well have been a result of traditional style teaching (teacher speaks and students' listen) imposed on students from middle and high school education.

Creating learner autonomy within the individual relies heavily on individual self-motivation. Bandura's (1977) notion of self-efficacy, a person's belief in their own capabilities, has been expanded greatly (Cotterall, 1999a, 1999b; Ehrman, Leaver & Oxford, 2003) to include learning strategies for self-motivation, such as *'allowing students to create finished products that they can perform or display...and...taking stock from time to time of their general progress'* (Dörnyei, 2001, p.136). Learning strategies and styles are important factors of motivation. Indeed I have vowed never to ignore the importance of making students aware of their own learning strategies and how awareness of them can lead them to become better L2 learners.

As my research is focused on student attitudes I should mention that social psychology believes *'that attitudes exert a directive influence on behavior since someone's attitude towards a target influences the overall pattern of the person's responses to the target.'* (Dörnyei, 2001a, p.29). Clearly then a student's attitudes towards a course of study directly relates to the amount of motivation they will experience (Yang & Lau, 2003). Rubin & Thompson (1982, p.6) state that *'positive attitudes usually help learners to maintain their interest long enough to achieve language mastery.'* This statement is perhaps overly optimistic, and proficiency would better replace mastery.

Today classroom instructors' accept that students have their own individual learning styles and they will vary in their attitudes toward learning in general (Deci & Flaste, 1995; Dörnyei, 2005; Skehan, 1989). Attitude affects levels of motivation and can make long term differences in a student's academic career.

For example, compulsory readings and memorization of terms versus classroom involvement and social interaction can influence a learner's attitude. Students' motivation may change depending on what English skill is being studied (Grabe & Stoller, 2001). Indeed I would argue that attitude is a component of motivation and language learning equally as important for example as aptitude. Therefore I disagree with Skehan's (1989) belief that aptitude is the foremost factor for success in L2 acquisition. Noels et al (2000) support my view. Krashen (1981) in addition believed that attitudinal and motivational factors are more important than aptitude.

Behaviorists define motivation as the anticipation of rewards, and obtaining rewards further serves to reinforce the behavior (Brown, 2001). In Skinner's (1974) text he proposed the theory that human beings, like other animals, will try hard to complete a task with the anticipation of getting rewards. When the subjects are rewarded, the particular behavior will then be reinforced, thus causing the behavior to persist. Behavioral theory has solid grounding however; today cognitive theories of motivation have overtaken this earlier and more basic theory (Dörnyei, 2001a).

Keller (1983, p.389) defined motivation as the '*choices people make as to what experiences or goals they will approach or avoid, and the degree of effort they will exert in that respect*'. In his Motivational Design Model (Keller, 1983, p.395), he proposed that the four categories of motivational conditions are what instructional designers should take into account to make English instruction interesting, meaningful and challenging; in other words, the English instructor has to pay attention to:

- 1) Interest (Attention): is the learners' curiosity aroused?
- 2) Relevance: is the desired goal of the learner perceived to be related to the instruction.
- 3) Expectancy (confidence): the learners' perceived likelihood of success.

4) Satisfaction (outcome): do extrinsic rewards and intrinsic motivation meet the learners' anticipations?

I judge that Keller's model has real practical implications for English instruction.

No review of literature on second language learning motivation is complete without reference to the Canadian psychologist, Gardner. He contributed hugely to and has and continues to inspire a large number of studies related to this field. Gardner worked mainly in the field of Canadian education.

A dichotomous model featuring instrumental and integrative orientation was proposed by Gardner and Lambert (1959, 1972). Integrative orientation is identified with an individual's desire for cultural and/or linguistic integration. Dörnyei and Clement (2000) cited in Dörnyei (2001a) found integrativeness to be the most powerful general component determining the general level of effort students intended to invest in the learning process. Instrumental orientation refers to learning the language for an instrumental purpose, such as getting a better job, earning more money or passing an examination. Clearly I believe, there are parallels between integrative and intrinsic motivation and instrumental and extrinsic motivation.

According to Gardner (1982, 1985), motivation is the combination of effort and desire needed to achieve the goal of learning a language and favorable attitudes toward learning it. He also pointed out that motivation to learn a second or foreign language is as important as language aptitude in order to acquire that language successfully. In his study he put forward 3 components of motivation: motivational intensity, desire to learn the language, and attitudes towards learning the language.

In his model he also included attitudes towards the learning situation as a factor of motivation. He argued that the truly motivated individual displays all 3 components. Orientation is another concept which he proposed, which is somewhat different from

motivation. In Gardner and Tremblay (1994), orientation is a class of reasons for studying a language, while motivation is the directed and continually reinforcing effort one makes to learn the language. Motivation could be seen as goal directed and orientation as a construct explaining why a learner has the goal.

The well-known instrument used to measure the language learning motivation, the Attitude/Motivation Test Battery (AMTB), was developed by Gardner and Lambert in 1959. In 1975, Gardner and Smythe redeveloped the test, which has become a popular instrument used in studying second language motivation. Also Gardner and MacIntyre's (1993) socio-educational model of second language acquisition is a useful tool for educators to look at factors of L2 acquisition when considering students.

However, since 1990, second and foreign language researchers have begun to challenge Gardner's theory and have tried to develop other theories of language learning and motivation (Clement, Dörnyei & Noels, 1994; Crookes & Schmidt, 1991). In response to this criticism an extended L2 motivation construct was developed by Tremblay and Gardner (1995).

Oxford and Shearin (1994) following on from the work of others analyzed a total of 12 motivational theories or models, including those from socio-psychology, cognitive development, and socio-cultural psychology, and identified six factors that impact motivation in language learning:

- 1) attitudes (i.e., sentiments toward the learning community and the target language)
- 2) beliefs about self (i.e., expectancies about ones attitudes to succeed, self-efficacy, and anxiety)

3) goals (perceived clarity and relevance of learning goals as reasons for learning)

4) involvement (i.e., extent to which the learner actively and consciously participates in the language learning process)

5) environmental support (i.e., extent of teacher and peer support, and the integration of cultural and outside-of-class support into learning experience)

6) personal attributes (i.e., aptitude, age, sex, and previous language learning experience).

I think that their work also has real practical implications for the instructor. As their work contains much of the research from other studies, in essence it is a list of factors which play an important role in classroom motivation. It has become clear that although there are a number of competing theories and conflicting research into motivation and language learning all these theories share some or all of the factors above. Therefore if language instructors are aware of these factors, they can adapt or change materials, methodology, tasks, activities, learner beliefs, and learner strategies to achieve greater motivation amongst their students. It is clear that students' attitudes are closely linked with motivation, and that motivation plays a prominent part in successful L2 acquisition. I hope my research into students' attitudes in an ESP course will inform stakeholders and instructors as to whether to include general English in their courses, taking into account student motivation and their attitudes.