

Chapter 2

Literature Review

2.1 Introduction

The following review of literature discusses the developments of English for specific purposes (ESP) within English language teaching (ELT), followed by the theoretical background of needs analysis and related studies, as well as the theoretical background of communicative language teaching (CLT). Finally, the theoretical background and related studies concerning an integrated skills approach and program evaluation conclude the review of literature.

2.2 English for Specific Purposes (ESP)

ESP began gaining relevance in the 1960s and continues to gain significance in the field with influences from the applied linguistics and ELT fields. The development of the world economy in the 1950s and 1960s created a general need for ESP across the world. English was fast becoming the international language for subjects such as science, technology, and business. The development of English as an international language led to international students seeking opportunities to study in the United States of America, the United Kingdom, and Australia. The combination of these influences created a need and excitement for ESP throughout the 1960s. As ESP became more common, its own methodologies began to influence general ELT. ESP was influential in developing a communicative language curriculum based on students' needs; this influence led to the development of functional-notional and task based syllabi (Dudley-Evans & St. John, 1998). ESP continues its influences on the ELT field with the continued development of a vast array of ESP textbooks covering specific topics under the headings of English for occupational purposes (EOP) and English for academic purposes (EAP).

The development of ESP is widely recognized as a separate operation within ELT. The ability of ESP to draw on other research from different subject areas, most notably applied linguistics, highlights a significant difference between ESP and ELT. Even though ESP is influenced from other study areas, it still has developed its own strategies that are applied in ESP classrooms.

The underlying theory for ESP is in developing practical outcomes for the learners. ESP's main components include: needs analysis, text analysis, and the enablement of learners to communicate successfully in their future academic or occupational careers. Opponents of ESP believe that it lacks theoretical practices, but the theory of ESP consists in the development of curriculum based on learner needs, or the nature of texts that are prescribed to learners. Much of the research concerning ESP tends to reflect the process of designing language courses for ESP learners and not the theoretical implications of ESP teaching (Dudley-Evans & St. John, 1998).

ESP research created three main definitions, with each developing over time (Dudley-Evans & St. John, 1998; Hutchinson & Waters, 1987; Strevens, 1988). Each definition was built upon a prior explanation until Dudley-Evans and St. John (1998) provided a comprehensive definition of ESP. They defined ESP using three absolute characteristics and four variable characteristics.

Their three absolute characteristics are:

- ESP is designed to meet specific needs of the learners;
- ESP makes use of the underlying methodology and activities of the disciplines it serves; and
- ESP centers on the language (grammar, lexis, and register), skills, discourse, and genres appropriate to these activities.

The variable characteristics are:

- ESP may be related to or designed for specific disciplines;
- ESP may use, in specific teaching situations, a different methodology from that of general English;
- ESP is likely designed for adult learners, either at a tertiary level institution or in a professional work situation. It could, however, be used for learners at the secondary school level; and
- ESP is generally designed for intermediate or advanced students. Most ESP courses assume basic knowledge of the language system, but it can be used with beginners.

The given definitions provide a working definition for ESP while distinguishing it from general English language teaching. One common theme in all the definitions is the use of a needs analysis to determine the learners' future goals and needs. The other characteristics identify ESP classes as being taught to students or adults with similar language goals, either academic or occupational (Dudley-Evans & St. John, 1998). ESP allows the teacher to have a more narrow focus on the language taught during the course, as opposed to general English classes where the ultimate goal tends to focus on speaking English communicatively in a variety of contexts. However, in order to develop an ESP program, an appropriately designed needs analysis is viewed as crucial to ensure that the needs of the learners are met.

2.3 Needs Analysis

A needs analysis (NA) as defined by Graves (2000: 98) is “a systematic and ongoing process of gathering information about students' needs and preferences, interpreting the information, and then making course decisions based on the interpretation in order to meet the needs.” The use of a NA in foreign language curriculum continues to increase, especially in ESP programs. There are currently five purposes for a NA identified by West (1994): (a) target situation analysis, which focuses on the language needed in particular situations; (b) deficiency analysis, which is concentrated on the gaps in the learners' knowledge; (c) strategy analysis, which focuses on strategies the learners use (d) means analysis, which is the study of the context of where the language is to be learned, and (e) language audits, in which the language itself is a focus of analysis.

NA practitioners utilize these frameworks in the development of needs assessment models or designs. Graves' (2000) Needs Assessment Cycle begins with the pre-gathering of information then moves to action, and finally evaluation before

cycling back to stage one. Brown (1995) suggests a model reflective of his work on curriculum development, which begins with a needs assessment followed by implementation of the curriculum finishing with evaluation before cycling back on itself. Both Graves and Brown's models were referenced in the development of the tourism class evaluated in this study.

2.4 Related Studies using NA models

Developments in both ELT and ESP have led to an increase in research on NA from the program and curriculum level. Within this context, studies have ranged from the foreign language needs of the U.S. military (Lett, 2005), to Waikiki hotel maids (Jasso-Aguilar, 2005), and footballers in the Netherlands (Kellerman, Koonen, & van der Haagen, 2005).

Within foreign language programs NA continues to play an important role, especially with the increasing influence of the task-based approach to syllabus design (Long, 2005). A research team at the University of Hawaii National Foreign Language Center (NFLC) investigated the task-based technique on the learning of Korean as a second language (Chaudron, et al., 2005). The three-year pilot study involved NA, the development of materials, implementation, testing, and evaluation necessary for the study.

The NA phase of the study implemented a task-based analysis of the target language needs of 84 learners in the Korean program. In order to collect the data, the researchers conducted unstructured interviews, administered questionnaires, and collected language samples. The research team also collected data from the situation where the target language was to be used in the future. This study demonstrates the benefits of using multiple sources in the needs assessment process to develop a trial, task-based curriculum.

An additional study from the University of Hawaii included targeting situational and language needs of second language learners of Japanese (Iwai, Kondo, Lim, Ray, Shimizu, & Brown, 1999). This large-scale study involved 688 first and second-year learners participating in the language program, as well as the teaching staff employed by the program. The focus of the study was to develop performance based language tests that could be utilized in the Japanese second language (L2) program. The researchers administered a questionnaire to the learners with the goal of discovering the future context in which students' felt they might need to use the target language, and their perceived need for having language skills to aid them in future academic, occupational, social, and tourist-related situations. In addition, the research sought to discover differences between the students and instructors perceptions of these needs. The findings did show a difference between how the learners and teachers perceived these needs.

Another large-scale NA designed by Purpura and Graziano (2004), investigated the foreign language needs of students in the School of International and Public Affairs (SIPA) at Columbia University, and evaluated the scale to which these needs are being recognized. The study collected data from a variety of sources and from different stakeholder groups.

This study utilized a context analysis, a target situation analysis, means analysis, and a learner situation analysis. The context analysis allowed the researcher to identify the setting where the assessment would take place, and determined which stakeholders should be involved in the study. Following that, the learner situation

analysis identified the learners' current knowledge, feelings, desires, and what they were willing to do to learn a foreign language. This was followed by a target situational analysis to identify tasks the students would encounter in the future where the target language would be needed. The learner and target situation analysis, combined with the contextual analysis, formed the three phases of the SIPA needs assessment project. The research concluded with recommendations on how the SIPA program could be improved by redesigning language tests and reforming the language instruction.

In respect to Thailand, little research is available concerning needs analysis, however, some research has included a needs analysis as part of program development. A study at Chiang Mai University (CMU) used a needs analysis to restructure a language program to meet the English nationwide standards (McDonough & Chaikitmongkol, 2007). The researchers administered a needs analysis questionnaire to learners that revealed dissatisfaction among the learners from the previous year. Following the questionnaire, the department reviewed relevant literature from other English language programs in Thai universities. The needs assessment concluded that a task-based approach emphasizing learning strategies would best meet the needs of the learners in order to prepare them for their future endeavors.

In addition, a study by Brunton (2009) focused on students' attitudes toward general English curriculum and hotel curriculum in Chiang Mai, Thailand. Before the course, a needs analysis questionnaire was administered to the learners to determine the participants' attitudes towards the course and the two sections: ESP and general English. In addition, it focused on the perceived wants of the learners. The needs analysis included 13 statements using a Likert scale; the results were compared to the questionnaire given at the end of the course. The initial needs assessment determined the majority of learners desired a general English curriculum, but realized the benefits from a hotel English curriculum.

The above studies represent a growing increase in studies involving a NA as a method to develop or restructure a program or curriculum. Once a NA is completed, the course needs to be taught and continuously evaluated. In evaluating a course, one must consider the type of teaching method chosen to teach the course. The following sections provide a theoretical background for communicative language teaching, and an integrated approach to language teaching, as the two methods were employed in the teaching of the course evaluated.

2.5 Communicative Approach

A teacher's design of either a curriculum or syllabus is based on the teacher's beliefs about the language learning process; this process is reflected by the curriculum and syllabus development. The communicative approach to language teaching (CLT) in this research is based on the teacher's belief that this approach to classroom instruction is the most dynamic approach to use in the classroom. As Nunan (2004) notes, CLT methodology is the most widely accepted among language teachers. He also states, "language is more than a set of grammatical rules, with attendant sets of vocabulary, to be memorized" (p. 6). CLT creates active and relevant tasks for learners in order for them to create meaning through practice in real life situations.

Brown (2007) provides four interrelated characteristics of CLT that demonstrate it as an approach rather than a process. First, the goals set in the

classroom focus on all aspects of communicative competence (CC). The goals are not hindered to grammatical or linguistic competence. CC encompasses all the abilities that allow humans to produce and understand messages and interpret the meanings within the given context. The ability to convey language and interpret it correctly outside of the classroom is vital for language learners. The learners' goals, especially in ESP, involve being able to take the language learned in the classroom and apply it to the outside world.

In regards to taking the language used inside classroom to the real world, CLT methods allow the learners to be involved in "pragmatic, authentic, functional use of the language for meaningful purposes" (Brown, 2007:241). The memorization of language forms are not the focus, rather the central focus is on different functions of the language that the learners need to complete tasks that they will face outside the classroom (Nunan, 2004). The idea of preparing learners for the specific language they need outside of the classroom led to the development of ESP practices (Nunan, 2004). For example, a student preparing for a career in the medical field has different language needs than one preparing to enter the aviation field.

CLT (Brown, 2007) allows for fluency and accuracy to coincide within the classroom, as sometimes fluency takes precedence over accuracy in order to keep the learners actively using the target language to complete tasks. This leads to Brown's last characteristic, which is the recognition that the learner's goal is to use the target language in a productive and receptive way outside the classroom. An effective syllabus design allows the instructor to structure the course to provide ample opportunities for the learners to practice the target language in specific contexts that the student may encounter outside the classroom.

CLT as mentioned before is an approach to classroom language teaching rather than a set of processes. CLT stresses the use of real world tasks in the classroom in order to better prepare learners for tasks they will face outside the classroom. Nunan (2004) stresses that although CLT and task-based learning have similarities, there remains a significant difference. Nunan (2004:10) defines CLT as a "broad, philosophical approach; the language curriculum that draws on theory and research in linguistics, anthropology, psychology, and sociology", however "task-based teaching represents a realization of this philosophy at the levels of syllabus design and methodology." Although Nunan demonstrates clearly how task-based learning is as an effective approach for CLT, an integrated approach of task-based and content-based instruction (Brinton, 2003) may prove useful.

2.6 Integrated vs. Segregated Approach to EFL Teaching

An integrated approach to language teaching involves bringing different aspects of it together to represent real life situations. Oxford (2001) demonstrates integration in the classroom by comparing it to a carefully woven tapestry. A well-made tapestry carefully integrates all the strands to form a large, strong, and beautiful piece of art. If a strand is missing or not carefully woven together, the art is not strong or beautiful, and therefore serves little purpose. Language learning consists of the same layers, which represent the skills required to communicate effectively in the language. The core skills consist of reading, writing, listening, and speaking. The core skills co-exist with learning strategies, grammar, pronunciation, and spelling. An effective language learner integrates various skills together in order to communicate effectively outside the classroom. As instructors, we must integrate all the skills into

the course to prepare our learners for the tasks and content they will undoubtedly face in the real world.

According to Oxford (2001), content-based language instruction (CBI), and task-based instruction (TBI) demonstrate an integrated approach to language teaching. Both approaches allow the instructor to use a wide array of materials, textbooks, and technologies in the classroom (Oxford, 2001). CBI focuses on the content of the course, most often science, math, or social studies. However, for this course, the tourism industry provides the content for the scope and sequencing of the instruction. According to the Cognitive Academic Language Learning Approach (CALLA), designed by Chamot and O'Malley (1994 cited in Oxford, 2001), language learning strategies can be instituted into the learning of both content and language. The content selected for a course should provide opportunities for the learners to practice multiple skills, especially skills that emphasize communicative competence.

The tasks designed from the content illustrate task-based teaching methodologies. TBI institutes tasks into the curriculum to improve the communication competence of the learners. The designed tasks encourage group and pair work to gain meaning of content and practice language skills. In a tourism class, the tasks can include designing tours, writing brochures, airport role-plays, giving directions, and presenting information on historical sites. Task-based instruction can be used at all levels from beginners to more advanced learners, and can be integrated with content-based instruction.

According to Oxford (2001) the integrated-skill approach introduces English language learners to true language forms and allows them opportunities to communicate naturally in the language. Coskun (2009) adopted an integrated skill, multi-dimensional approach in designing curriculum for an ESP course for Turkish tertiary students. The chosen approach based on a needs analysis did not integrate one specific skill or type of syllabus. The needs analysis showed no reason to adopt one syllabus type, as it might hinder the teaching and learning process, however, a themed-based approach was prioritized in designing the course. The use of themes provided stability for instituting multiple skill areas. Another study in Latvia (Luka, 2009), came to the similar conclusion that an integrated syllabus was most appropriate for an ESP tourism classroom. Luka selected a topical syllabus while integrating situational, task-based, and process syllabi on a lesser basis. Luka suggests the use of a situational and topical syllabus to ensure that the content used relates to the tourism industry. In addition, the use of tasks helps develop the learners' communicative competence, creative thinking, and problem solving skills. She instituted a process syllabus to utilize collaboration between students and instructor in the selection of course content, teaching-learning methods, and materials.

The above studies represent the practical use of an integrated skills approach in an ESP tourism class, but lack an evaluation of the method to continue to improve the program or how to ensure learners' expectations, wants, and interests are being served. In addition, the stakeholders are satisfied that the course is well-organized and taught appropriately.

2.7 Evaluation

Evaluation is often viewed as the end to the program development, but as Brown (1995) states, "the heart of the systematic approach to language curriculum design is evaluation: the part of the model that includes, connects, and gives meaning

to all other elements”(p.217). Evaluation as defined by Kiely and Rea-Dickens (2005), is the process of determining the relationship between different program mechanisms, the procedures and theory constructed by the individuals involved in a program, and the outcomes which are used to demonstrate the worth of the program. As described by Rae-Dickens and Germaine (1993) “evaluation takes us right into the classroom to describe, analyse, and interpret what actually occurs when teaching and learning take place” (p. xi). A language program evaluation has three distinct features as outlined by Kiely and Rea-Dickens (2005). The three common features of evaluation are that it creates assertions in a shared context, combines with research, and faces the obstacle of becoming public or remaining private. Their account of evaluation is based on the historical developments of evaluation from the dependence on statistical data to more multi-perspective approaches, including constructivism and realism.

The first of Kiley and Rea-Dickens’ (2005) characteristics of a language program evaluation is that it involves the constructing of judgements in a shared context. Within this context, Graves (2000) suggests five aspects of a course that can be evaluated to determine the effectiveness of the course. These include the goals and objectives, the course content, the needs assessment, the course organization, the materials and methods, the learning assessment method, and the course evaluation plan. However, as Kiley and Rae-Dickens (2005) suggest, budget reviews, teacher development, and participant narratives are also possibilities for evaluation criteria to assist in determining the success of a particular program’s aspects. This range of possibilities in evaluation leads to the distinction between evaluation and research, which is Kiely and Rae-Dickens’ second feature of evaluation.

The development of evaluation research has created two different ideas on the functions of evaluative research. The first as described by Kiely and Rea-Dickens (2005), is a study that includes both research and evaluation functions. In other words, the research function asks **why** something has occurred and the evaluative function collects information to aid the decision-making process. Secondly, they view evaluative research as a combination of both research and evaluation. This involves research into the design of instruments, such as questionnaires and surveys, or the validity of specific test designs. The distinction between evaluation and research remains unclear, but the combination of both is used to determine **what happens** in the classroom and **why**, thereby possibly leading educators to a better understanding of their classrooms.

The last feature of evaluation, according to Kiely and Rea-Dickens (2005), is the issue of the evaluation remaining private and not reaching the public. The reasons for this likely varies from study to study. Especially in social issues, there may be ethical or legal implications if the evaluation is published. In addition, key stakeholders may deter the publication due to unfavorable findings about their institution. However, in a language program evaluation focusing on the **what** and **why** of events in a particular situation, the participants and stakeholders remain anonymous. The evaluation then likely reaches the public domain with the intent to aid future instructors, not to detract from an institution.

These three features illustrate obstacles as well as possibilities in the evaluation of language programs. The fact that many features of the course are evaluatory allows the researcher or instructor to choose the feature that they feel is most important in their classroom or professional development, while taking into account previous research findings to test the hypothesis of why a feature of the program is

successful or unsuccessful. In the end, knowledge of the three features allows the researcher or instructor to take into account all of the context, and to choose the appropriate type of evaluation.

2.8 Evaluation Approaches and Models

Brown (1995) outlines four approaches to evaluation: (a) product-oriented, (b) static characteristics, (c) process-oriented, and (d) decision facilitation. Product-oriented approaches focus on goals and instructional objectives to determine if they have been accomplished. Static characteristic approaches are similar to the product-oriented approach, in that it seeks to discover the effectiveness of a particular program. However, outside experts who review accounting and academic records along with static figures such as the student/teacher ratio, faculty degrees, seating capacity of classrooms and so forth, use this approach.

A major shift in program evaluations occurred with the development of the process-oriented approach. This approach recognizes that meeting program goals and objectives was important; however, it was not very useful in restructuring or modifying curriculum. This approach acknowledges the important usage of judgmental activities as opposed to static numbers.

The last type of approach as described by Brown (1995), is a decision facilitation approach, which aids in making decisions. In this approach, evaluators try to avoid making judgments and focus on collecting information that will aid the faculty and administrators in a program to make their own conclusions and decisions. The Context, Input, Process, and Product (CIPP) (Stufflebeam, 2002), and the Center for Science Education (CSE) (Center for Science Education, 2010) evaluation models are examples of this approach.

The above models have built on the strengths of the prior models and all should be considered in a model for evaluating a program (Brown, 1995). In response to development of evaluation programs Norris and Watanbe (2007) created the Use-Driven and Participatory Process Model (Figure 2.1). This model provides a guide for aiding language educators to comprehend, utilize, and use evaluation tools. Their guide directs educators through the process of identifying stakeholders, the purposes and methods of investigation, the analysis and interpretation of the data, the action plan, and the preparation for the next cycle. The current research selected this model because it provides a comprehensive guide to ensure a complete language program evaluation.

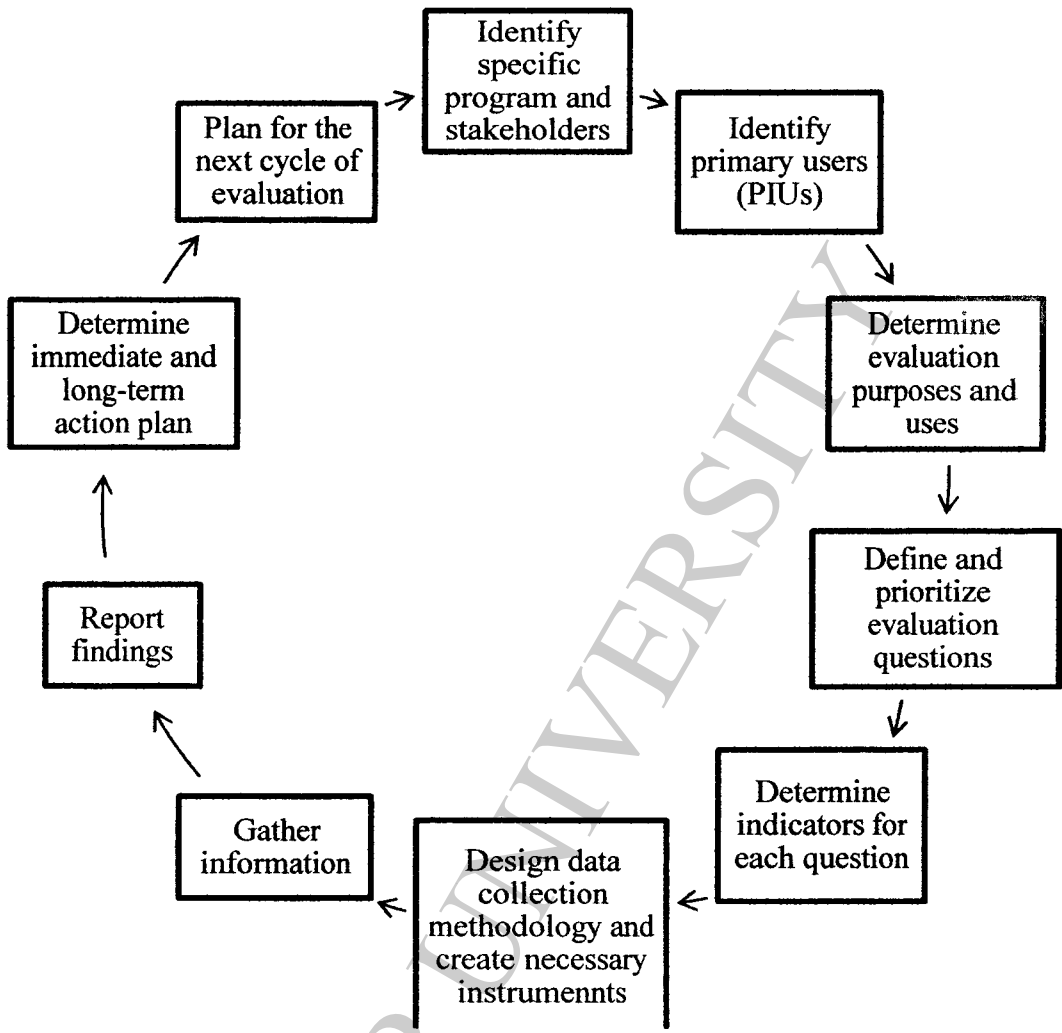


Figure 2.1 Overview of Use-driven and Participatory Evaluation Process (Norris & Watanbe, 2007)

2.9 Types of Evaluation and Related Studies

There are three types of evaluation commonly used in ELT: formative (Graves, 2000; Richards, 2001), summative (Graves, 2000; Richards, 2001), and illuminative (Richards, 2001). Evaluations often include both formative and summative models to gain a better understanding of the language programs in order to restructure or to make changes within a program. However, an illuminative evaluation focuses on how different aspects of the program respond to each other, but without the aim to change the course (Richards, 2001).

First, formative evaluation as illustrated by Richards (2001), takes place while the course is ongoing and gives information on how the students are doing. This includes what they have achieved, what they need to work on, and how well the course is meeting their needs. The information collected in a formative evaluation guides the teacher's decisions as the course continues. In a study by Ghani and Hunt (1991), a formative evaluation was chosen over a summative one to assess the secondary school's language curriculum in a Malaysian context. The curriculum was to be instituted over a period of five years; a formative approach would allow for the constant monitoring over the five-year period, in contrast to a summative evaluation that would have taken place at the end of the five years. In addition, the formative approach encouraged teacher reactions and communication with the Ministry of Education. Finally, it encouraged the teachers to adopt an investigative approach into their classrooms and become more self-aware of the happenings in their classrooms.

Another study by Brown (1995) utilized a formative evaluation to assess curriculum components such as needs analysis, course objectives, testing, material development, and teaching. The research adopted a systematic approach to review, revise, and improve the curriculum aspects of a language program at the English Language Institute, University of Hawaii at Manoa. This circular approach led to updated needs analysis, objectives, and criterion-referenced tests by teachers and members of the curriculum development team. In the spring, the norm-referenced tests, materials, and teacher support concerns were the focus of the evaluation team. The cyclical approach used by Brown allowed each aspect to be reviewed and improved upon at least once a year. In support of this study, a summative evaluation was also conducted to provide documentations of the evaluations in compliance with university guidelines.

A summative evaluation, according to Graves (2000), is completed when the course finishes and the instructor or researcher collects information about the learners' achievements and the overall value of the course. Brown (1995) conducted a summative evaluation in conjunction with a formative evaluation of the Guangzhou English Language Learning Center (GELC). They used a yearly summative evaluation of the five-year project to provide both the UCLA/China Exchange Program and GELC administrations with information regarding the progress on their evaluation. At first, the evaluation team was reluctant to use the summative evaluation, but in hindsight decided that it aided the team in helping them organize their thinking about each of the courses and "consider the program as a whole" (p. 241). The study recognizes the successful use of a summative evaluation as part of a larger formative evaluation, in order to appease the stakeholders of the institutions. In addition, it allowed the evaluation team to gain a greater perspective of the entire program.

Some of the characteristics of the summative evaluation shown in Brown's study were also featured in a case study conducted by Sawyer (1991) at the International University of Japan (IUJ). The evaluation included both formative and summative approaches in the collection and reporting of data for the 12-week intensive English course. The reasons for using a summative approach closely resembled that of Brown (1995), in that it provided a comprehensive report to present to the stakeholders along with the developments of the evaluation. The summative evaluation data consisted of criterion-reference tests and summaries of the evaluations submitted by the students. This information, in addition to the course background, was presented yearly to the administration. This method seemed to satisfy the administration while allowing the evaluators to view the program completely, instead of separately viewing each 12-week course as it occurred.

In reviewing the above studies, it becomes clear that most evaluations include both formative and summative evaluations. Formative evaluations recognize that most language programs continue from one term, or class, to the next, and allow for changes and implementations to be made as the program progresses. The inclusion of a summative evaluation allows administrators and other stakeholders to view the progress of the program and provides an opportunity for the researchers to view the program as a whole, especially if the evaluation intends to continue for several years.

The above studies are informative and useful for each of their respective contexts and provide valuable information to improve programs. However, Kiely (2009) suggests three aspects of language evaluation that have received less attention within the context of language program evaluation.

2.10 Contextual Features in Language Program Evaluation

The three contextual features in language program evaluation are: innovation, teachers at work, and the quality of the student learning experience (2009). Kiely links these three features with their theoretical background and the learning opportunities created due to their implementation in a language program. These evaluations utilize an illuminative or ethnographic approach and draw on research outside language program evaluation.

2.10.1 Innovation

Innovations are often the focus or motivation of language program evaluations, but they are not highlighted in the evaluation itself (Kiely, 2009). Kiely also suggest that there is a natural adjustment period as the innovation is introduced to the program; during this time the method may not be effective, and the results may not be apparent. As a result, the start time of the evaluation period may not be appropriate until the participants, most likely learners, have fully adjusted to the routine and skills required of them. After the initial settling period, there is a greater chance of understanding the developments in the program.

In addition, the evaluative process and the innovative program begin together with a direct focus on the innovation process (Kiely, 2009). This allows for the understanding of the problems and issues as a direct reflection of the innovation being applied in the language program. An example of such an approach is the Primary Modern Language Project (PMLP) in Ireland (Kiely & Rea-Dickins, 2005). The

focus of the evaluation was to introduce a modern foreign language approach into the primary school curriculum. This evaluation demonstrates the program itself as the innovation; the findings led to the conclusion of reshaping the projects. The recommendations suggested focusing on clustering, continuity in learning, language awareness programs, and rigorous teacher development to make certain the foreign language program better met the resources and needs of the schools and teachers involved.

In addition, a study centered on an English camp focused on the development of students writing skills as a result of an immersion program (Rugasken & Harris, 2009). The innovation of the immersion program led to success in language acquisition and cultural understanding. In addition, a native English speaker had never previously taught the students, so they were most likely required to adjust to different activities and performances that may have not been included in their previous studies. This study represents an immersion program as an innovation to language acquisition at a quicker pace than normal instruction in schools.

The above innovation focuses on policy-led innovation (Kiely & Rea-Dickins, 2005), and student performances (Rugasken & Harris, 2009). However, as Kiely (2009) suggests, there are innovations in all aspects and stages of language programs. These include new resources, new course books, new teacher designed tasks, assessment designs, and students embarking on new activities. Evaluation of innovations allows for reflection on the appropriateness of an implementation with a desire to bring about a change in a language program.

2.10.2 Teachers at Work

In previous language evaluations, teaching is often observed as the delivery of a specific program (Kiely, 2009). These evaluations focused on the “cognitive dimensions of learning and the effectiveness of a particular instructional strategy in achieving” (Kiely, 2009:106) the desired objectives. The focus on the instructor’s deliverance of a strategy omits the evaluation of the contributions, interpretations, and decision making throughout the program so as to contribute to the learning experience. Two studies focus on the possibility of teacher actions as an influence on the language program.

A study in Australia focused on the relation between teacher beliefs and actions (Breen, Hird, Milton, Oliver, & Thwaite, 2001). The researchers developed the idea of “teaching principles”, defined as the “reasons teachers give for particular techniques that they adopted during language lessons (that) revealed a set of guiding principles that appeared to be shared across the group” (p. 472). Their analysis suggests teaching methods and approaches to issues in the classroom are generally different among educators, but how they reach their outcomes largely reflects the pedagogical principles developed through their own learning and teaching experiences.

A similar conclusion was reached by Kiely (2001), after an evaluation of curriculum and teacher development in an EAP course at a British university. The study demonstrated common themes in the ELT field of teacher development through classroom inquiry, the impact of evaluation on teaching, and the teachers’ beliefs and how they relate to the teaching practice. During the study, a teacher changed her beliefs and approach to teaching, because of students’ responses on a questionnaire as part of the program evaluation. This study represents the dynamic classroom that

teachers face, and how incorporating evaluation in practice leads to possibly changing beliefs, as well as the professional development of the teacher.

In addition, Richards (2006) researched classroom decision-making through an identity-oriented analysis of classroom interaction. The importance of his findings as suggested by Kiely (2009), are that teachers and students can manage identities within the classroom to create engaging and enlightening learning opportunities. In addition, teachers are likely to identify engaging topics to make a program more engaging or less mundane than the usual or planned classroom discourse.

These studies allow one to view the teaching process as dynamic and changing; not the structured discourse from a syllabus, course book or grammar repetition, but “more as an individualized struggle to identify and develop small spaces for pedagogic and international variation and unpredictability” (Kiely, 2009: 107). Classrooms are composed of various learners and teachers who all bring their own beliefs into the classroom; this makes the classroom unpredictable. Teachers’ responses to the impulsive nature of the classroom shape language programs; their insight into this process helps provide a more comprehensive evaluation.

2.10.3 The Quality of the Learning Experience of Students

Students are often considered the major stakeholders of any program, and the goal of the program is to satisfy the learners’ needs, ensuring that they have a positive learning experience. A “learning experience that is satisfying in a holistic way has the potential to engage, motivate, generate effort, and lead to desired outcomes” (Kiely, 2009:108) in the classroom. In order to achieve outcomes in a communicative environment, the learners need tasks and content that are interesting to them, as well as achievable. Interesting, achievable, and relevant tasks possibly lead to more engaged learning, thereby creating a positive learning experience for the learners.

A study by Towell and Tomlinson (1999), illustrated the importance of authentic comprehensible input in creating a positive learning experience when learners are guided to communicate with a set audience to reach a specific goal. The students’ responses were documented by an end of course questionnaire to determine their overall satisfaction with the course and the learning experience. The results showed a positive reaction by the majority, in addition to feelings of satisfaction with the learning that took place. As Kiely (2009) notes, end of course questionnaires are very common in language programs, but the argument lies in how, and to what degree this information is used “to understand the program as a learning experience” (p. 108). Kiely (2009) also argues that over time, data collected and thoroughly analyzed through questionnaires and surveys provides accurate accounts of students’ concerns, wants, and expectations. Secondly, they provide a learning experience that helps learners reach language goals and gain a better understanding of the learning process.

Evaluation of the learning experience, combined with an innovation and the teacher’s perspective, allow for an in-depth look of **what** actually takes place in the classroom, and **why**, thereby providing a better understanding of the program as a whole. Kiely (2009) demonstrates these ideas in an illuminative or ethnography section of an evaluation of an EAP program in a British university. The evaluation included two purposes: accountability and development. The purpose of including accountability was to show stakeholders involved that the program was well constructed, staffed, and instructed. The development aspect was to ensure continued development of the program with respect to the current and future learners.

The evaluation focused on a list of discourse markers to improve the academic writing skills of the learners. It demonstrated the complex structure of a language program through an innovation, the teacher's response, and the learning experience of the students involved. One teacher shifted her identity in order to facilitate the needs of students and to meet the writing challenges of the learners. The teacher noted the arduous process of implementing new materials, but overall she wanted the students to feel the program was valuable and worth their investment, possibly demonstrating the inevitable task of a language teacher trying to use the available resources in order to achieve the learning goals of the students.

The learners reactions to the new materials were positive, but possibly their learning goals were not achieved by the new materials. As one student did not benefit from the use of word lists in her writing, but reflected positively on the overall learning experience.

This study represents the classroom as a dynamic atmosphere where both learners and teachers adapt and change as the program evolves. Both participants bring to the program their own previous experiences that intertwine to make the learning process perhaps more or less engaging. In addition, the classroom is a constant struggle for the teacher to meet the stakeholders' demands of new materials, while ensuring that learning takes place on the part of the students. Evaluation of the innovation, teacher's thought processes, and the learning experience possibly allow for a better understanding of how and why things take place in the classroom. This understanding through the evaluation process can lead to the improvement of language programs.

2.11 Summary of Chapter

This chapter has highlighted the developments and theoretical background of ESP, using the definition put forward by Dudley-Evans and St. John (1998). The identifying characteristic of an ESP course is the use of a needs analysis within the program or the curriculum development process. This was demonstrated by several studies showing the importance of identifying students' expectations and perceived needs (Chaudron, et al., 2005; Brunton, 2009; Iwai, Kondo, Lim, Ray, Shimizu, & Brown, 1999). In language course or program development, once the needs are assessed, the teaching method is chosen to reach the desired learning outcomes. This review included the theoretical background of communicative language teaching; it also used studies to demonstrate this approach in an integrated skills framework (Coskun, 2009; Luka, 2009). As the development process continues, an evaluation is the link to bring all the aspects of the language program together (Brown, 1995). A significant number of studies demonstrate the usefulness of formative, summative, and illuminative evaluation in developing a language program (Breen, Hird, Milton, Oliver, & Thwaite, 2001; Brown, 1995; Brunton, 2009; Ghani & Hunt, 1991; Kiely, 2001; Kiely, 2009; McDonough & Chaikitmongkol, 2007; Richards, 2006; Rugasken & Harris, 2009; Sawyer, 1991; Towell & Tomlinson, 1999; van de Poel & Gasiorek, 2009). The variety of evaluation models and approaches allows for flexibility on the part of the instructor while showing the importance evaluation has on language program development if the model is appropriate to the intended results.