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Thesis

MEETING THE NEEDS FOR VOCATIONAL ENGLISH IN THE NICARAGUAN HOTEL INDUSTRY

By
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1. Introduction

The purpose of writing this thesis was to ascertain the need for English for Specific Purposes (ESP) courses at the vocational level in the region of Chinandega, Nicaragua, and based on this need to propose effective short-term ESP courses to local vocational training centers or directly to businesses in the services industry, such as for example hotels, restaurants, bars, taxi cooperatives and banks. While Chinandega is not a major tourist center, foreign visitors nevertheless do come to this part of the country and it would probably be safe to anticipate that the growth of tourism in the country in general will eventually lead to a corresponding growth in tourism in the Chinandega area as well. This growth trend has the potential for becoming a major source of income not only for the country as a whole, but also for the region of Nicaragua which I will be considering here. In a needs analysis I conducted at hotels, as one example of a growing service industry in the Chinandega area, it was found that while a definite need for English at a basic to low intermediate level exists, the majority of staff members do not have even a minimal level of English language proficiency. Nevertheless, despite this need, private and public initiatives aimed at providing training at the vocational level for employees working in the services industry in general and the hotel industry in particular are in their infancy in the country as a whole and non-existent in the region of Chinandega. Thus to date, the growing need for (ESP) courses, and more specifically ESP training at the vocational level, at least in the Chinandega region, is not being met. Furthermore, one could reasonably assume that a similar situation exists in most other regions of the country, with the exception of Managua where some training initiatives seem to be taking place.

Support for the above conclusion, as well as an analysis of the underlying problematic, can be found, for example, in an anecdotal report on the status of English in Nicaragua by Murillo and Torres (2005). In this report the authors provide “real life” examples of working people for whom English is an indispensable tool for their economic survival, the most notable examples being a group of artisans from Masaya who hired an interpreter to accompany them whenever they go out to sell their artisanry to tourists coming off cruise ships in San Juan del Sur; or a hotel worker in Managua who lost his job because he mistakenly thought that the $20 dollars a hotel guest had given him to buy a bottle of liquor was a tip.

Having examined this situation, the question still remains why the people in the above examples, and many others in Nicaragua, do not have even a rudimentary knowledge of English.

In examining the information provided by Murillo and Torres (2005, pp. 18-19), it would appear that one of the reasons is the historical lack of initiatives taken by the government to place importance on English as a necessary tool for economic development. Evidence for this failing initiative can be found within the public school system where a large percentage of teachers are not adequately prepared to teach English—in many cases, especially in small outlying areas, the teachers do not know English at all, but are assigned to teach the classes nevertheless. In addition, limited materials and outdated methodologies (relying on the grammar translation method being the most prevalent) prevent most public school students from acquiring even a basic level of English. That is not to say that quality level instruction of English does not exist. However, the parents of public school students generally do not have the economic means necessary to send their children to such schools. And, as students who can attend such schools generally do not work in the services industry at the vocational level, this leaves the majority of the population at large and workers in the services industry in particular, lacking what Gloria Tünnermann (cited in Murillo & Torres, 2005, p. 19), a leading educator in Nicaragua, describes as an "indispensable employment tool of the millennium".

At this point, one could argue that what Nicaragua needs is a massive infusion of capital to restructure its education system, bringing in and/or training qualified English teachers so that its public school graduates will leave high school, the way proportionately many more European graduates do, speaking English. Unfortunately, in Nicaragua this is still a highly unrealistic scenario considering that Nicaragua, as the second poorest country in Latin America, does not have the economic resources to attain such an ideal. Moreover, even if such a goal were achievable, that would not help the adult artisans of Masaya or adult hotel workers in Managua who need English today. In other words, while their children would benefit from such a restructuring of the education system, and it would be excellent and most recommendable if the country could do so, their parents would still go without the English they need to survive economically today.

Thus, one can reasonably conclude that the question is not whether English is needed, but rather how best to meet the immediate English language needs of Nicaraguan workers within their occupational areas, all the while taking the numerous contextual constraints into considerations as well. In the field of English Language Teaching (ELT), the necessity for more specific language learning since the late 1960s has made ESP a viable means to address the

specific aims of learners. ESP can also provide a practical solution to the special language needs of adult workers in the services industry in Nicaragua.

The need for ESP in Nicaragua is obviously not an isolated event. In fact, as Hutchinson and Waters (1987, p. 6) in their groundbreaking work *English for Specific Purposes: A Learning-Centred Approach* observe, there has been a growing demand for English courses tailored to specific needs on a world-wide basis since the end of World War II due to the "enormous and unprecedented expansion in scientific, technical and economic activity on an international scale". In turn, this expansion created the need for an international language, the role of which fell to English as the United States grew into the dominant economic power. A second key historical event leading to the increasing demand for English was the oil crisis of the 1970s which resulted in large transfers of funds and technical expertise to the OPEC countries. As a result, more and more people began to learn English not for "pleasure or prestige in knowing a language, but because English was the key to the international currencies of technology and commerce" (Hutchinson & Waters, p. 16).

This growing demand for English, however, was not a demand for just any kind of English. Then, as it is now in Nicaragua, "time and money constraints created a need for cost-effective courses with clearly defined goals" (Hutchinson and Waters, 1987, p. 7). Thus, a combination of these historical events and new insights gained in the fields of linguistics and educational psychology, the developments of which will be examined in chapter three, eventually led to the growing importance of ESP on a world-wide basis, including in Latin America.

The growing importance of ESP has not left Latin America untouched. In 2005, Brazil, celebrated the 25th anniversary of the Brazilian ESP Project (Holmes & Celani, 2005). And, this year Argentina hosted "The TESOL Symposium on Teaching English for Specific Purposes" with the theme of "Meeting our Learners' Needs" on July 12 in Buenos Aires. Cuba as well has been very active in the area of ESP during the last twenty years, designing extensive English language courses for medical doctors (Maclean, Santos & Hunter, 2000), and hotel staff members at the state run hotel and tourism school (Tamayo & Medrano, 2004; Machin, 2004).

In Nicaragua, as well as Central America in general, ESP is in its early stages. However, this situation is rapidly changing. For example, the Universidad Centroamericana (UCA) offered a postgraduate degree in ESP, beginning in October of 2003 and ending in March of 2004, and the Universidad National Autónoma de Nicaragua (UNAN) of León opened its ESP postgraduate

degree starting in January of 2005 in cooperation with professors of the University of Valencia, Spain and including a significant number of participants from the Technological Institute (ITCR) of Costa Rica. This postgraduate degree at the UNAN León has in the meantime been upgraded to a master's degree in ESP, the students of which will defend their theses in January of 2008. This will then be followed by the II Conference of English teachers at the UNAN León to be held the end of January of 2008 in which students of the master's degree in ESP present their findings on the role of ESP.

While one could lament the rather late entry of Nicaragua into the field of ESP, Nicaragua is nonetheless in the enviable position of being able to take advantage of the composite experiences of all the other countries working in ESP and, hopefully, therewith can avoid possibly lengthy, as well as costly, pitfalls. Thus, another purpose for writing this thesis was to contribute to the development and advancement of ESP in Nicaragua. It is my firm belief that within a few years Nicaragua will be better able to better provide its workers with the indispensable economic tool of English they desperately need.

The following chapter of this thesis, the occupational context**,** describes the context within which my course design takes place. In the first section, I describe personal events which led me to select the topic of vocational English in the Nicaraguan hotel industry in the first place. This is followed in the second section by an examination of the economic context within which the hotel and tourism industry operates in general and then more specifically within the country of Nicaragua and the city of Chinandega which is the particular context of my thesis. As the quality of service provided is a major factor in determining economic success in the hotel and tourism industry, included as well in this section is an examination of the relationship between quality of service, training and foreign language skills on the one hand and training and outcomes on the other. This chapter concludes with an examination of the literature concerning constraints encountered in on-the-job language training in the service industry and provides recommendations on how to face these challenges.

Chapter 3 of this thesis concerns the theoretical background of English language teaching. The chapter is divided into four sections: The first examines linguistic theories and methods of English language teaching (ELT), and their respective influence on English for Specific Purposes (ESP); the second, discusses developments leading up to the beginnings of ESP; the third, reviews the five stages of development of ESP; and the fourth looks at the different branches of

ESP and the differences between General Purposes English (GPE) and ESP. Finally, the fifth section reviews the literature on English for Vocational/Occupational Purposes (EVP/EOP).

The above theoretical investigation leads to the next chapter, English for the hotel industry course design, where the theoretical underpinnings of GPE and ESP are applied to my particular course. This course outline is divided into two major sections: In the first part I examine four principal factors involved in course design, e.g., the syllabus, methodology, material and assessment. This is then followed, in the second section, by a description of how I apply these four factors to my particular project. This section is comprised of six parts: an analysis of the needs for vocational English in hotels in Chinandega, Nicaragua and surrounding areas; a description of the methodology I apply to my course design; general course goals; material development; assessment; and finally, procedures used to develop my syllabus.

In the last two chapters of the thesis are the conclusion, in which I provide some final consideration, and an appendices chapter which contains models of needs analyses, course goals and objectives, as well as the development of my course design. The thesis concludes with a bibliographic references section, listing works directly consulted as well as others that were included for their relevancy to the topic of this thesis.

2. The Occupational Context

2.1 Introduction

A consideration of the context in which the teaching and learning will take place is essential for the planning of any language course. It is even more so the case in the planning process for ESP courses precisely because, as its name implies, the specific needs of the learners must be addressed if the course is to successfully meet its objectives. Graves (2000) likens defining the context of a language course to the work of an architect: Prior to making sketches of the design of a building, the architect must first begin with the specifications of the building site. While the architect may know what type of building will be constructed—a home, a school, a hospital, etc.—without the specifications of the property—the location, size, features, intended use, inhabitants, budget, cost of materials, time line for building, etc.—the design may be inappropriate for its intended use and the given terrain. Likewise for the design of a language course, or in this case an ESP course, while the teacher may know about the specific purposes of the course, e.g., the specific situations in which the students will be using the language, the course may fail from the start if the context is not considered. In general terms, defining the context involves obtaining information about the constraints and resources specific to the learning situation (Graves, 2000, p. 18). More specifically, factors to consider within the course context are: The people involved (students and other stakeholders), the nature of the course and institution, time factor, the physical setting and teaching resources (Graves, 2000, p. 16). To this can be added information about the course's "'human aspects, that is, the physical, social and psychological contexts in which learning takes place'", involving "'administrative, financial, logistical, manpower, pedagogic, religious, cultural, personal, or other factors that might have an impact on the program"' (Brown, 1995, as cited in Graves, p. 19). While these factors are not the same as the consideration of the students' language learning needs, Graves (2000, p. 19) concludes that it is nevertheless necessary to consider them "in order to design a course that can focus on the needs within the givens of the context". To return to defining context in general terms, that is, a consideration of the constraints and resources inherent in the context, Graves (2000, p. 23) concludes her analogy with the design of a building as follows:

If the site for the house has particular problems associated with it, such as poor drainage, they must be accounted for in the design or there will be continual problems with the house. On the

other hand, if there are particularly spectacular features of the site, such as a beautiful view, it makes sense to take advantage of them.

In light of the need to define the context of a course prior to its planning, the purpose of this chapter is to examine the constraints and resources involved in the context of my particular course design. In doing so, I will first describe some personal experiences which led me to select the particular topic of vocational English in the Nicaraguan hotel industry, thus providing a personal context for my thesis. This will be followed by a description of the economic context within which the hotel industry is located. And finally, I will examine the constraints inherent in providing on-the-job English language courses at the vocational level.

2.2 Personal Context

In August of 2004 I was asked to write a proposal for English language training for 20 staff members at a new hotel complex on the coast outside of Chinandega. Through an interview with the hotel managers I ascertained the staff members' needs and upon this, contacted a number of textbook representatives to obtain sample texts for workplace English and more specific texts in tourism and for telephoning skills. On the basis of the information gained through the interview and with the aid of the text books, I wrote a one page proposal which basically consisted of dividing the number of textbook units by the number of training hours available. At that time I knew nothing about ESP. I mention this experience here because I am now, three years later, once again proposing an English course for hotel staff members. The difference is that today, thanks to the Masters Degree program in ESP at the UNAN Leon University, I have a much sounder practical as well a theoretical background in ESP. In addition, I have a deeper appreciation of the problematic at hand, not only in terms of the need for English language training at local hotels and how best to design a program to meet this need, but also for the numerous constraints in terms of time, scheduling and economic factors which make it difficult to put a successful ESP course into practice in the hotel industry in Chinandega, Nicaragua. I gained these insights through an analysis of the needs at local hotels, as well as through the research I conducted on English language training at the vocational level for this masters project.

In addition to the above, for a class project in the fall of 2005 I made a preliminary design for a language course in the hotel industry. While I did not have the opportunity to put the course into practice, I was nevertheless able to experiment with a number of the methodological

considerations included in the original design, the details of which I will elaborate upon in chapter 4. This experience has been invaluable as it has provided me with a practical basis upon which to build the course design I am presenting here.

Finally, I would also like to note that I have always found it an enjoyable challenge to work with beginning level students; as a matter of fact, these students are my preference. Possibly this is so because my first teaching experience was with beginners—a small group of eight and nine year old Greek students. As I do not speak Greek, I had to adopt a methodology using realia, flashcards, mime and communicative teaching strategies, all of which I have included in this present course design. Another possible reason I like to teach beginning level students is that I can empathize with them as I myself have had to struggle learning two foreign languages, French and Spanish, and know what approaches worked and did not work for me when I was beginning my learning.

2.3 The Economic Context

As the context of this thesis is the economy and not, as is usually the case in this type of work, a specific institution, school or university, I will first place my topic of English for vocational purposes, and more specifically English for service workers in the tourism industry, within the context of the economy, beginning with the world economy as a whole and then narrowing the description to the country of Nicaragua and finally to the city of Chinandega. Included in this discussion will also be an examination of the issue of training in the service industry from the perspective of the relationship between the quality of services provided, training and foreign language skills and the relationship between training and training outcomes. I have subsumed these latter points under the economic context as the issue of job skills training is an economic concern for businesses.

2.3.1 Economic Impact of Tourism

In sheer numbers, the economic impact of tourism appears impressive. For example, in the World's Top 25 Tourist Destinations Report (World Tourism Organization, WTO, 2005, paragraph 4), in the year 2004, 763 million tourists were registered worldwide. In another example, as cited in the United Nations Environmental Program (UNEP, 2001, para. 3):

> According to the World Tourism Organization, 698 million people traveled to a foreign country in 2000, spending more [than] (sic) US$478 billion. International tourism receipts combined with passenger transport currently total more than US$575 billion—making tourism the world's number one export earner, ahead of automotive products, chemicals, petroleum and food.

And yet another example of figures reported in the same source is the following: "An important indicator of the role of international tourism is its generation of foreign exchange earnings. Tourism is one of the top five export categories for as many as 83% of countries" (UNEP, 2001, para. 27). While on the surface these factors may seem impressive, underlying the above statistics are a number of other considerations—issues concerning the negative and positive impact on the host counties' economies as well as the overall influence of globalization on the world as a whole—which are worthwhile mentioning here. I wish to include this commentary not because this is an economic treatise on tourism, but to emphasize the economic challenges that the tourism and hotel industry of a small developing economy, such as Nicaragua, must face. In turn, this reality underscores the necessity for well-prepared staff members who can provide quality services in order to meet global competition. English language skills, which is the topic of this thesis, are obviously a necessary ingredient to providing quality services, and as I will observe further on, at least in the area of Nicaragua I am considering, these skills still require lots of development.

2.3.1.1 Negative and Positive Impact of Tourism on Host Countries

According to the United Nations Environmental Program (UNEP, 2001), the primary reason for promoting tourism, especially in developing economies, is the expected economic improvements tourism will bring about. Nevertheless, due to negative factors that impact tourism, rich countries generally benefit more from tourism than poor countries as a result of hidden costs. Examples of such factors are some of the following: Leakage—the amount of tourist expenditures that do not remain in the host country; enclave tourism—for example, all-inclusive vacation packages such as cruises and resorts; infrastructure costs; increase in prices in the host country—due to the increased demand for products and services that tourists generate; and the seasonal character of jobs—creating job insecurity and difficulty in receiving training and benefits.

Despite these negative characteristics, tourism obviously generates enough earnings or expected earnings to push more and more countries, developed as well as developing economies, to promote tourism. As Cho (2005, p. 1) reports: “Travel and tourism has become the leading economic contributor to the world and national economies in terms of gross output, value added, capital investment, employment and tax contributions”. Similarly, the UNEP (2001) lists six areas on which tourism has a positive impact. Some of the areas among these are the following: Foreign exchange earnings, contributions to government revenues, employment contribution, and contributions to local economies—as for example local revenues earned through the informal employment of guides, street vendors, etc, the later being possibly most beneficial to local economies as there is no leakage from these revenues earned.

2.3.1.2 The Impact of Globalization

The expansion of tourism is closely linked to the processes of globalization. In fact, all aspects of today’s world economies have been shaped by globalization, which began with the industrialization of Europe, and over time involved the global movement and expansion of capital, business ventures and people. Cho (2005, p. 2) describes this expansion as “a major shift in the structure of the world market for goods and services—a shift to a competitive framework that has far-reaching impacts for almost all industries”. This shift has involved a change from the relatively rare occurrence of international enterprises 30 years ago to multinational, and finally today, to trans-national or global companies. Cho further points out that by the year 2010, while about one half of the world’s assets will be controlled by global corporations, and much of this business is in terms of goods, “a global debate on services is under way” as well.

The author makes some very pertinent observations concerning the impact of globalization. In a general sense, the term globalization “has become an umbrella term for numerous political, sociological, environmental and economic trends which present challenges on a worldwide scale” (Cho, 2005, p. 2). Economically speaking, the term refers to the ever-increasing interdependence of world economies or markets and the movement of goods, services, technology and capital. The general effects of globalization include: A rise in the fragmentation of global production; a liberalization of the world economic order; and, a standardizing impact on products, services and institutions that formerly were only offered domestically. In short, globalization affects every aspect of our lives today and is pertinent to the topic of this thesis as English has become the global language of communication in almost all areas of economic endeavor, to include the area

of the services industry, of which tourism is a part of. In addition, globalization has shaped the profession of English teaching providing the original push for the development of ESP, as I will examine in chapter 3.

Finally, the impact that globalization has on Small and Medium sized Enterprises (SMEs) that operate in countries with low levels or no levels of integration within the world market, is that these countries are unable to participate with the global players. This in turn implies that these economies lose market shares and competitiveness and thus are unable to attract new travelers. In short, as Cho (2005) contends, they are unable to take "advantage of the globalization trends and/or the shift to 'post-modern' consumption structures". (p. 3).

Very similarly to Cho, the World Travel and Tourism Council (WTTC, 2007b, paragraphs 7-9) postulates that for SMEs to grow they need to possess three distinctive capabilities that most companies and/or countries find hard to coordinate: 1.) They must be flexible, being able to change with demand (for example, from packaged tours to niche tourism). 2.) They must be centered on the customer, tailoring their services to the needs of the customers building trust and loyalty in order to capture repeat business which is chronically low in the tourism industry. To become trusted, the service provider must know their customers in order to meet customer expectations. 3.) They must perform operational excellence, which is problematic in the tourism industry with constant price erosions and low profit margins.

It is obvious from the foregoing that flexibility in adapting to the changing nature of the surrounding context, and the quality of services provided are key factors for success in the tourism industry. Before examining the role that training in general, and language training in particular, play in providing such quality service, I will briefly touch upon the history of tourism and then provide a description of the state of tourism in Nicaragua.

2.3.2 The History of Tourism

The history of tourism is in essence the history of the industrial revolution in Europe, in particular of the United Kingdom, and the history of globalization which began to take force after World War II. During the 19th and early 20th century mass travel began growing as technological advances allowed the transport of larger number of people (principally by train in the beginning). This tourism, however, was largely domestic, with only the rich engaging in foreign travel. With technological advances and rising standards of living international mass tourism began rising in

the 1950s. For the following thirty years most European travelers visited the Mediterranean countries of southern Europe where prices were low and travel was facilitated with the advent of the jumbo jets making airfares more affordable. This development, however, peaked in the 1980s and since then travelers are no longer as interested in mass market tourism, looking instead for more specialized or tailor made vacations at quieter resorts. There has also been a growth in niche markets appealing to special interests or activities and sustainable tourism or ecotourism for the more ecologically conscious traveler. Finally, receptive or community tourism to developing countries began to be of more interest to tourists tired of sterile package tours to the already well-known destinations. With these later developments countries such as Nicaragua, which I will examine next, began to see an increasing influx of tourists.

2.3.3 Tourism in Nicaragua

I will now examine some aspects of tourism in Nicaragua. First, I will do so from the perspective of the country as a whole, including comments of government support of tourism. Then I will examine tourism, as well as issues concerning training for tourism, in the region of Chinandega, Nicaragua.

2.3.3.1 The Country as a Whole

During the last 12 years Nicaragua has experienced a major increase, or boom, in its tourism industry after a marked decline in the 1980s due to the Nicaraguan Revolution (Euromonitor, 2007). Today, the tourist industry represents the second largest industry, with an annual growth rate of 10% during each of the last seven years (Euromonitor, 2007; US Department of State, 2007; INTUR, 2005). As a result, the current government is reported to being committed to developing this industry with the hope that it can assist in combating poverty (Euromonitor, 2007).

According to the Instituto National de Turismo (INTUR, 2005), the number of foreign arrivals increased by 37% between 2001 and 2005, around 30% coming from the United States and Europe and contributing to 67 % of tourist income earnings. The 2007 edition of the WTTC's Travel and Tourism Satellite Accounting Research (WTTC, 2007a, paragraph 1) in its world ranking of 176 countries describes the Nicaragua travel industry as a "small, least intensive, and middle-tier growing travel and tourism economy. In almost all of the economic indicators reported in the study there is a positive growth forecast over the next 10 years (2007—2017).

And in terms of employment job growth in the tourism sector is expected to grow from 5.8% of total employment in 2007 (representing 1 in every 17.3 jobs) to 6.2% in 2017 (representing 1 in every 16 jobs).

2.3.3.2 Government Support of Tourism

Government support for tourism is in the form of incentives, such as tax breaks, and the establishment of a government office—INTUR—whose mission is to promote tourism and offer training to tourism employees (INTUR, 2005). At the private level, the Cámara Nicaragüense de Turismo (CANTUR) promotes the interests of Small and Medium sized tourist enterprises, and which estimates (Sánchez, 2007, August 7, p. 8B) that approximately 5 million businesses in Nicaragua benefit directly or indirectly from tourism. And this year, the Cámara Nacional de Turismo (CANATUR) pushed for the opening of a national bureau for conventions as the main visitors to Nicaragua are business people (Sánchez, 2007, May 1, p. 8B). Finally, in Latin America, *La Red Latino Americana para el Fomento de la Mypime Turística* holds annual meetings to promote tourism and is attended by government ministers and private business leaders from all over Latin America (Sánchez, 2007, August 7, p. 8B).

In conclusion, one can say that tourism in Nicaragua is expanding. The question remains if and how Nicaragua can assure that the optimistic projections can be reached or exceeded during, as well as beyond, the next ten years. It is obvious that the level of service quality provided will in part—or maybe even in whole—determine future success in this industry. At this point I will examine more closely an example of the tourism industry in one community in Nicaragua, Chinandega, which is where I live and where I have conducted an analysis of the needs for English, the details of which I will describe in chapter 4.

2.3.3.3 Tourism in the Area of Chinandega and Available English Language Training

Chinandega is an agricultural center and the second largest commercial center after the capital city of Managua, with a population size of 121,500. It is situated 134 km north of Managua and 35 km from undeveloped Pacific Ocean beaches, which attract tourists from Europe and the United States, most of whom do not speak Spanish and for whom English is a linguafranca. The city is not a colonial city as is the neighboring city of León or Granada to the south of Managua, so the majority of foreign visitors come either for business purposes or arrive in groups connected to some non-governmental organization (religious, medical or social in nature). However, lately

there have been other groups coming to this area as well, such as surfers, visiting the beaches near Chinandega (and who, as I was informed in a personal communication, consider themselves precursors to more developed tourism) and retirees from Canada and the United States. Many of these people only speak English.

In terms of infrastructure development that could attract more tourism, I have heard of a plan to build a sewer and drinking water system, and to expand the service of electricity, in the communities by the ocean. Also, a principal highway leading past minor access roads to the ocean is being refurbished and extended. In addition, a new airline is offering low air fares to and from the United States and this increased competition has led other airlines to lower their fares to Nicaragua as well (Álvarez, 2007, May 29, p. 8B). This is turn will bring to the area many tourists who will need services and who can only communicate in English.

As Chinandega is not a major tourist center, there are only approximately 10 to 12 hotels in the city and surrounding area. Some of these have bar and restaurant services, while others do not. The hotels range in size—the biggest with 30 rooms, others with 12 to 15 rooms, and smaller ones with 5 to 8 rooms. Other services are restaurants—ranging from small family-run locales serving local dishes, to a number of more expensive restaurants with an international menu, two casinos and various bars and discos. For all of these services there is a growing demand for staff members who can communicate in English.

While at the moment the tourism industry is not very strong in this region of the country, there is a potential for future growth; therefore, my intension is to examine what steps could be taken to face this upcoming challenge.

To date there exist no private or public institutions that provide English language training aimed at the specific need of students in their respective occupations. Only general English classes are offered (with one exception, which I will explain below) and the students attend these classes in their own free time, either at language schools or at their work site after working hours.

In the area of tourism, nothing is being offered to date. In a personal interview with a person in charge at the INTUR Chinandega office, I was told that while the government has a commitment to offering training, including language training for employees in the tourism sector, no specific plans exist as yet.

In another interview with a person in charge of promoting training courses to local businesses through INATEC, I learned that the only course meeting the specific language needs of the

students offered through INATEC are to the port administration and stevedoring services in the neighboring port town. This person also noted that the idea of tailoring English classes to the specific needs of students—which is referred to here as "inglés técnico"—is something rather unknown and unheard of. So, even when INATEC sends teachers to businesses, they provide a general English program following the curriculum stipulated by INATEC Managua. This program consists of 5 weekly hours of class, 60 hours per level for a total of 12 levels. The texts used are often not even appropriate for the age levels of the students—i.e. in some beginning levels texts for young adolescents have been used.

My intention in this chapter thus far has been to establish that tourism is a major force in the economy of all nations, including Nicaragua. Furthermore, it is obvious, given the importance of tourism, that employees working in this industry will have a need for English language skills in order to meet the needs of their foreign guests and thus possess a competitive edge in today's global economy. It is clear as well that providing training is an important ingredient to guarantee quality services. Thus, to complete this section, I will now turn to the relationship between quality of service and training, and the relationship between training and outcomes.

2.3.4 The Relationship between Quality of Service, Training and Foreign Language Skills

In researching the issue of the relationship between service quality and skills needs, including foreign language skills in the tourism industry, I was unable to find any systematic treatment of the topic. Much of the literature highlights the importance of training as a necessary ingredient to assure quality service, but provides little or no supporting research. Nevertheless, the aforementioned commentary, although anecdotal, does support the contention of this thesis that a direct correlation between the quality of service provided and foreign language skills exist. I will now turn to an examination of this connection in the discussion below. In doing so, I will examine three sources that provide examples establishing the relationship between quality of service and training, including foreign language training in two of the examples:

In a 2005 research study of 85 SMEs that successfully turned international in 7 different European countries[1] Bertzeletou (2005) found the following: The areas of weaknesses of the SMEs studied included (among others) resistance to change, language skills and staff training. In all other remaining indicators studied—key factors to success, key competencies, and wide

[1] While this study does not specifically mention if tourism service providers were included, the author's conclusions are nevertheless valuable as all small businesses share similar needs and characteristics.

support competencies—the need for communication skills and foreign language skills were also included as factors leading to success.[2]

In a summary of the 3rd Hong Kong Tourism Symposium 2004 (Service Quality in Tourism, March 18, 2004) the panelists, examining "pull factors" in the tourism industry, note that quality of service is an all-important pull factor, especially within the hotel industry. While the concept of service is difficult to measure—because it is intangible and dependent on individual persons performing the service—of the five measures the report mentions as necessary for improving service quality are included communication, specifically the use of a foreign language which serves to foster a "hospitable culture", and training. Furthermore, it is mentioned that customer satisfaction is in direct relation to the gap between customer expectations and services rendered and that better service quality is the key to closing that gap. Finally, training is seen as the best way to ensure better quality service especially in the area of communication skills, service attitudes, capacity to identify customer needs, and to develop a feeling of "job ownership" (p. 5).

In a research study conducted between 2003 and 2004 (Haven & Jones, n.d.) on the relationship between the labor market and skills needs in the tourism sector of Wales, the authors note that a lack of conclusive data supported by comprehensive research exists in this field. Nevertheless, the general conclusions reached were that the tourism industry in Wales is typically marked by micro-businesses which in many ways are not managed sufficiently well to face competition. The report contends, however, that a general consensus also exists among those studying the issue that it is necessary to "emphasize the inherent role of trained staff" (para. 7) and therewith satisfy the "need to upgrade skills; improve professionalism amongst employers and employees; and nurture an integrated training culture" (para. 10) in order to improve business performance.

The conclusions reached in the above three examples are most succinctly stated by Cho (2005) in the following:

> To provide quality service employees have to be properly trained, motivated and supervised. Though it is costly, training is a necessity because the 'moments of truth' or the impression, both positive and negative, the employee makes on the guest have a direct influence on whether the guest will return. (pp. 1-2)

[2] I will return to the results of this study later on when I examine parameters for training in the service industry.

The question that the above raises is the following: What kind of training should be provided? It should be clear by now that my focus is not on training within institutions of higher education. That leaves me with vocational or workplace education, taking place either on-the-job or off-the-job. For the purposes here, I will consider the term "off-the-job" training to refer to training at vocational centers—generally government-run institutions—providing training predominantly to young people and generally before they enter the job market, and "on-the-job" training to refer to vocational courses offered generally through private initiatives (although not exclusively) directly to private businesses. The focus of my thesis concerns on-the-job vocational training in the service sector of the economy, more specifically the tourism sector as an example. Before examining the challenges and special issues, or what I will refer to constraints, in providing on-the-job English language training, I will now briefly review the literature concerning the relationship between training and outcomes in general.

2.3.5 Training and Outcomes

Burt (2004) surveyed issues relating to outcomes of workplace ESL in English speaking countries, principally the United States and secondarily in Canada and Australia between 1992 and 2003. In a review of the literature, the author notes that little research was to be found on the question of outcomes, and that most references were either anecdotal or based on qualitative research. The author also notes that in reality few employers provide such training primarily because they do not perceive that the benefits outweigh the costs and scheduling inconveniences of such training. Burt concludes that this "perceived lack of benefit to the employer" (p.2) lies primarily with the training providers' inability to state and follow through with achievable outcomes. Similarly, Haven & Jones (n.d.) and Bertzeletou (2005), writing on vocational training in general in continental Europe, comment that an overwhelming portion of business owners are resistant to training, again mainly because they perceive that the training providers (state organization in this case) are out of touch with the actual needs of the industries .

While the experiences and reasons for distrusting training for the countries mentioned (the United States and Europe) may be different, the conclusions and recommendations the authors make for changing this situation are very similar. So, ironically, while everyone officially espouses the need for and value of training, underlying this surface appears yet quite another reality and it appears that the principal burden for changing this situation rests with the training providers. It is therefore imperative for those who engage in the field of ESP, be it at the

academic, professional or vocational level, to be acutely aware of the constraints involved, as these are intimately tied not only to the context and the needs of the learners and businesses alike (in the case of on-the-job training), but also to the actual success of foreign language training within varying contexts. In light of this, I will now turn to the final section of this chapter to examine a number of constraints that are quite often inherent in providing on-the-job English language training.

2.4 Constraints Encountered in on-the-job Language Training and Recommendations

My research has shown that there are five major constraints that face the success of language training within the workplace and corresponding recommendations for facing these constraints. While an overlap between these constraints and recommendations exists, for the purposes of clarity I have divided these into the following area: Learning site; cost, scheduling, attendance and multilevel classes; length of time it requires to learn a foreign language; age of the learners; and difficulties in measuring outcomes.

2.4.1 Site where Training is Offered

For adult working people a barrier to attending off-the-job training is the lack of time, transport and childcare difficulties. As a result employees and employers alike favor on-the-job training (Bertzeletou, 2005; Burt, 2004). Also, learning within the context of work is seen to positively affect not only language skills, but also work skills (see also ABC Canada, 1999; Burt, 1997; Hayflich, 1995, as cited in Burt, 2004). In addition, on-the-job training is seen to allow students to acquire skills and knowledge through "experimental action learning" or "learning by doing" (Bertzeletou, 2005). In terms of recommendations, the obvious solution to the problem of attending training outside of work is to provide on-the-job training.

2.4.2 Cost, Scheduling Demands, Uneven Attendance, Multilevel Classes

For businesses in the service industry, and even more so in the tourism industry, where profit margins are low and labor costs are high, training is often considered unaffordable (Haven & Jones, n.d.; Noden, 2002). This is especially so for smaller hotels. In terms of scheduling, training obviously must take place during slow periods, because if training interferes with the necessities of serving clients, the business will lose money. Both issues of cost and scheduling pose serious problems for smaller businesses and even more so for small hotels where there is often only one employee per shift and clients need to be attended on a 24 hour basis. In hotels

with few staff members, the cost of training would be too high as training would have to be conducted with too few students to be cost effective. I will examine this problem in more detail when I discuss my findings of a survey of hotels I conducted in Chinandega, Nicaragua in chapter 4. The only possible solution to this problem for smaller businesses would be that the government fund such training—as is done in Cuba, where on-the-job classes at hotels consist of only 2 to 3 students at a time (Tamayo & Medrano, 2004). In larger hotels the problem of small class sizes is not as critical; however, the training provider would need to be flexible in terms of offering the training when the time permits, such as before or after the shifts.

Other related constraints common to the service industry, as noted by Noden (2002) in a case study on workplace English at a cleaning service in the United States, are: employee absenteeism; open enrollment—causing situations where new employees, returning students and "veterans" occasionally attend the class all at the same time; and students with different job responsibilities as well as levels of English who receive classes together.

From the training provider's perspective the solution to such a problem would be to provide small multiple classes divided by job area and language level with static enrollment and consistent attendance. However, from the perspective of the employer, this would be impossible in terms of cost and scheduling.

The recommendation Noden (2002) offers for facing these constraints are the following: Both the training provider and employer need to be aware of the extent to which these constraints may affect training outcomes, understanding the "trade offs" between no training at all and training within a "less-than-ideal" situation. The employer would need to assure the employees that their lack of progress would not affect their employment status, but provide incentives (in the form of promotions) for those who do. Also, it would be imperative that the employer make English classes a priority—avoiding class interruptions, working closely together with the language trainers, and informing employees of the goals and objectives of the program.

The training provider, on the other hand, must be flexible, provide ongoing progress reports and carefully select teaching methodology and materials. In terms of the problem with open enrollment, the author notes that the solution provided in the case study was to make each lesson self-contained and free-standing on a weekly basis.

2.4.3 Length of Time it Requires to Learn a Language

As Burt (2004) points out, employers and students alike are not realistic about the amount of time it takes to learn a foreign language (see also Burt, 1997; Kavanaugh, 1999; Mikulecky, 1997; Pierce, 2001, as cited in Burt, 2004) as they underestimate the complexity and difficulty of learning a foreign language. Although research on adult language learning is limited, studies with children show that the time needed to become "socially adept" in the language is from 2 to 5 years, and to become "academically on par with native speakers" from 5 to 8 years (Burt, 2004, p. 4) (see also, Cummins, 1991; Thomas & Collier, 1997 as cited in Burt, 2004). Obviously, a short course of 30 to 50 hours will not allow beginning adult learners to become socially adept and if the learner has few opportunities to practice/use the language on the job, not much of the course will be retained (Burt, 2004) (see also Kavenaugh, 1999; Pierce, 2001; Sarmiento & Schurman, 1992, as cited in Burt, 2004). This constraint has serious implications for the success of English language training within a non-English speaking context, and even more within the context I am considering in Chinandega, Nicaragua where the number of foreign hotel guests is rather sporadic.

As a recommendation, Burt (2004) maintains that it is necessary to inform both the employers and students of the length of time and difficulty involved in learning a foreign language so that they are conscious of this issue and do not become impatient. In the context I will be examining in Chinandega, Nicaragua, one possible solution would be to provide sporadic reinforcement courses and to motivate students to practice using English amongst each other in some structured manner. I will examine this issue in more detail in the development of my teaching unit.

2.4.4 Age of Learners

Teaching English to students on the job automatically implies that the students are young adults or adults. This raises the issue of whether or not the age of the learner is a constraint on learning. While Brown (2001, p. 87) argues that adults can learn a foreign language just as well as a younger person—the only difference being that the adult will most likely not be able to speak without an accent, Kavaliauskiene and Uzpaliene (n.d.), for example, comment that the acquisition of a foreign language for adults is "slow, discouraging and often frustrating" (para. 3). Based on my own experience with adult learners, I have made similar observations. While adults do have some advantages in learning over children—they have a greater capacity to think abstractly, have a larger range of life experiences, and are more goal oriented and disciplined,

among other characteristics—other factors—such as anxiety about making mistakes, fossilization of errors and language transfer from their native language (L1) to the foreign language (L2)—make foreign language learning much more arduous for adults (Kavaliauskiene & Uzpaliene, n.d.). In terms of developing speaking skills, affective factors—such as "emotions, self-esteem, empathy, anxiety, attitude, motivation, uneasiness, self-doubt, frustration and apprehension—are key to the success or failure of foreign language learning for adults (Kavaliauskiene & Uzpaliene, para. 20). Finally, based on my experience, adult learners—generally those over 40 who have never had any previous instruction in a foreign language—usually are not very successful in their attempts and usually give up after a short period of time.

One possible solution to this problem, especially in regards to the affective factors, may be the suggestion proposed by Sifakis (2003) that the ESP teacher's role includes that of advisor or counselor, therewith assisting the student in overcoming fears and inhibitions in the learning process. Moreover, in terms of the fear of making mistakes, the focus in teaching should be primarily on "productivity", not "fluency" (Kavanaugh, 1999, as cited in Noden, 2002, p. 191); in other words, the ability to get a message across or to react appropriately should be emphasized more than how fluent or correct the spoken communication is.

2.4.5 Difficulties in Measuring Outcomes

The forgoing four constraints affect outcomes in foreign language training. However, the problem of evaluating outcomes is itself a constraint, because outcomes are hard to measure, and thus it is difficult to convince employers that the time spent on and costs involved in providing the training actually pay off. Moreover, adding to this problem, according to Burt (2002), little research has been conducted on outcomes of on-the-job English classes.

This situation, nevertheless, is not surprising as a service is inherently intangible, thus making it hard to know what is being received. So, just as hotel staff members provide a service, so do English teachers. And just as a hotel and its staff members can better succeed by providing quality service in meeting customer needs, so too English teachers can stand out by meeting learner needs and in that way, employer needs as well. The question is: How can this be done in light of all the constraints facing possible success?

Bertzeletou (2005, para. 14) recommends that training needs to follow non-traditional ways of learning and should be approached from a bottom-up, rather than the more common top-down approach. According to Bertzeletou research training programs that involved employees in the

design of the training from the very beginning, consulting employees on their training needs and tailoring the course according to these needs, were positively evaluated.

While the above is somewhat vague, Burt (2004) provides somewhat more specific recommendations. According to the author, one reason employers and employees do not conceive of training as successful is because the outcomes are often not clearly stated, monitored and evaluated. To accomplish this, Burt maintains, requires trainers to know the what, how and when of the course in order to be able to measure outcomes. In other words, the objectives should be clear and focused. In addition, if these goals can be reached in a short period of time, outcomes are easier to measure, and students are more likely to complete the training. As Burt points out, people who are working are more likely to complete a six-week course than a four-month one. Therefore, workplace English classes should be short and highly focused with "clearly stated, measurable, and attainable objectives" (Burt, p. 6).

In conclusion, the economic context which generates a number of the above mentioned constraints, as well as the other constraints which are inherent in teaching adults must all be taken into consideration when planning an on-the-job language training course. However, to return to the consideration of defining context as mentioned at the beginning of this chapter, these constraints should not be viewed as impediments, but instead as assets that can assist the teacher in course design. Or, as Graves (2000, p. 16) concludes, "The constraints of our context can actually help us focus on what is realistic and appropriate and thus plan for success."

Now that I have examined the context of my particular topic, I will now turn to an examination of the methodological bases of English language teaching in general and ESP in particular in the following chapter. In chapter four, I revisit the issue of the constraints involved within the context of my course design and propose an approach and methodology that I believe is most appropriate for the particular context I am considering in this project.

3 Theoretical Background

3.1 Introduction

The purpose of this thesis is to design an English course within the context as described in chapter two that meets the specific needs of the learners. Before proceeding to the actual course design in Chapter 4, it is now necessary to examine its theoretical underpinnings, which is the focus of this chapter.

The course design presented here is based on the work done in English for Specific Purposes (ESP), a branch of English Language Teaching (ELT). ESP is an English language teaching approach that takes two aspects of the learning situation into consideration when designing a course: The specific *communicative* needs (Munby, 1978) and the *learning* needs of the learner (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987).

ESP did not grow within a vacuum—like all disciplines, it grew out of a certain historical and academic context. This context included external economic and political forces bringing about the very need for ESP. But that is not all. ESP also grew out of and parallel to influences from other disciplines, more specifically the field of modern applied linguistics, language acquisition theory (or psycholinguistics) and educational psychology; it also evolved out of the language teaching methods and approaches of General Purpose English (GPE). With time, however, ESP began to develop into a discipline in its own right and therewith formulated its own definitions, branches, precepts, tenants, approaches, procedures, examined in this chapter, and models for course and syllabus design, as well as standards for material selection and design, and assessment, examined in chapter 4.

It is not within the scope of this paper to address all of the above issues in great depth. Instead, this chapter serves to provide a general picture of the field of ESP—including its antecedes, as well as its origins, definitions, approaches and branches which have led it to become the distinct discipline that it is today. This chapter is thus divided into two major sections. In the first, I examine the antecedents of ESP and in the second the origins and development of ESP, to include a review of the literature relating to English for Vocational Purposes (EVP).

3.2 Antecedents of ESP

This section provides a historical account of developments in related disciplines that have had varying degrees of influence on ESP. More specifically, wherever possible, I have used the six major stages in modern linguistics as the basis to follow developments in English language teaching in general, and ESP in particular, from its earliest examples up to the present. Within each of these stages, and whenever applicable, I provide commentary on corresponding developments in educational psychology/psycholinguistics, teaching methods/approaches, and ESP—highlighting the impact linguistic theories have had on these areas, with the exception of developments in educational psychology, which were not directly influenced by linguistics. *Figure 3.1* on the following page provides an outline of these developments.

Before proceeding, I will briefly clarify the terminology for the division of the following sections: The discipline of *Linguistics* provides language descriptions which focus on the nature, structure and meaning of languages. Conventionally, modern linguistics is described in terms of six stages of development. These are: Classical or Traditional Grammar, Structural Linguistics, Transformational Generative Grammar, Register Analysis, Functional/Notional Grammar and Discourse Analysis. For the purposes of this section, I will omit Register Analysis and Discourse Analysis as they are more directly pertinent to the field of ESP. While in language teaching, linguistics essentially describes WHAT is taught; educational psychology, as well as psycholinguistics, describes HOW people learn languages. Finally, teaching methods/approaches address how the insights gained in the preceding two disciplines are put into practice at the classroom level.

The above developments are presented in chronological order in *Figure 3.1*. The shaded areas highlight developments that are considered to have had a direct influence on ESP and will be discussed in section 3.3 concerning the origins and developments in ESP, while the remaining ones will be addressed in this section.

Time Frame	Linguistics	Educational Psychology	Teaching Method/Approach
18th—19th	Traditional/Classical Grammar		The Grammar Translation Method (GT)
1950s/60s	Structural Linguistics	Behaviorism of B.F. Skinner	The Audio-lingual Method (ALM)

1960s/70s	Transformative Generative Grammar	Mentalism	Cognitive Code Learning (CCL)
1960s/70s	Register Analysis		English For Science and Technology (EST)
1970s/80s	Psycholinguistics of Krashen and research on methods	Humanistic Educational Psychology of Carl Rogers	Designer Methods (Suggestopedia, ...)
1970s/80s	Functional Notional Grammar	Needs Analysis in General English Council of Europe	The Notional Functional Syllabus (NFS)
1970s/80s	Discourse Analysis	Needs Analysis in ESP	
1980s			Skills and Strategies
1980s—today			Communicative Language Teaching and Eclecticism
1980s—today			Learning-Centered Approach

Figure 3.1

3.2.1 Classical / Traditional Grammar and the Grammar Translation Method

3.2.1.1 Classical or Traditional Grammar

Classical / Traditional Grammar was the predominant way languages were described in the early 20th century. This tradition is named as such because it based its descriptions on the case-based languages of classical Greek and Latin. Even though English is primarily a word-order based language (having lost most of its case-based inflections much earlier), the classical tradition nevertheless held sway for so long because of its prestige.

3.2.1.2 The Grammar Translation Method

In language teaching the classical approach was reflected in what is called the Grammar Translation or Classical Method which was initially used to teach ancient Latin and Greek and consisted of learning grammar rules, memorizing vocabulary and translating texts. In the 18th and 19th century it was applied to the learning of other foreign languages. As a method, it has in some instances persisted up to this day, especially in academic settings (Graves, 2003) involving the reading of long passages of texts containing vocabulary glossaries and grammar explanations in the mother tongue. No attempts are made to speak the language as the principal reason for the language study is for scholarly purposes. Evaluations involve testing the ability to translate

accurately. As such this method is not based in any linguistic, psychological or educational theory (Brown, 2001).

3.2.1.3 Influences on ESP

Influences on ESP are minimal as ESP began after the grammar tradition lost its predominance; nevertheless, Hutchinson and Waters (1987) and Allen and Widdowson (1975) note that its linguistic terms (e.g. subject, object, indirect object) and descriptions do serve the English teacher as a useful background source. In addition, Hutchinson and Waters (1987) comment that Register analysis, which I will describe here briefly, relied on its terminology in designing syllabuses.

3.2.2 Structural Linguistics, Behaviorism and the Audio-lingual Method

3.2.2.1 Structural Linguistics

Structural Linguistics was the first real challenge to the Classical Tradition and became the dominant way of describing languages for the first half of the 20th century in the field of linguistics. Its principal proponent was Bloomfield (1933) who attempted to develop a general and comprehensive theory of language using analytic procedures describing the language from the smallest units of sounds (phonemes and morphemes) to words, phrases and sentences within a structural framework.

3.2.2.2 Influences on Language Teaching

In terms of language teaching and methodology, the influence of structuralism began around the end of WWII and is still evident today in the well-known slot filler tasks and substitution tables found in grammar explanations, as well as in the structural syllabuses of language textbooks and language classes (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987; Richards, 2001; Wilkins, 1976). Finally, structuralism provided the linguistic base for the Audio-lingual Method which arose in the 1950s and early 1960s as a challenge to the Grammar Translation Method (Brown, 2001; Hutchinson & Waters, 1987; Mackay & Mountford, 1978; Nunan, 2003a; Nunan, 2003b).

3.2.2.3 Behaviorism and the Audio-Lingual Method

Audio-lingualism was the first modern language teaching method, as well as the first method to base itself on a theory of learning—in this case the behaviorist theory of B.F. Skinner, which posits in simplified terms that learning is a process of habit formation and results from responses

to external stimuli. The application of this theory of language teaching resulted in a method that prioritized the spoken over the written language. In class, the stimulus-response sequence was prompted by listening and repeating after dialogues, and listening to prompts given by the teacher and responding in drill-like fashion, practicing patterns or substituting the initial stimulus for other patterns. These drills and pattern practices were based on the language structures described by structural linguistics. In this method grammar was not taught directly as this involves cognitive processes, which behaviorism considered irrelevant to learning (Brown, 2001; Graves, 2003; Hutchinson & Waters, 1987; Nunan, 2003a; Nunan, 2003b).

3.2.2.4 Influences on ESP

In relation to ESP, as Hutchinson & Waters (1987) comment, the impact of structural linguistics through audio-lingual methods, such as drills and pattern practice, has its place in language teaching, as well as in ESP. But, it is no longer used as the only exclusive method comprising the entire learning process. Instead, it is incorporated as one of many techniques in language teaching. When applied in ESP, attempts are made to present pattern practices, for example, in more interesting and meaningful ways.

3.2.3 Transformational Generative Grammar, Mentalism and Cognitive Code

3.2.3.1 Transformational Generative Grammar

Transformational Generative Grammar was derived from the work of Noam Chomsky, first expounded in his groundbreaking work *Syntactic Structures* (1957). Two interrelated and important concepts associated with the Chomskyan tradition are: deep structures and surface structures; competence and performance. Using these concepts, Chomsky challenged structuralism arguing that its structural descriptions were too superficial, e.g. remaining at the surface level and simply describing language as “performance”, or what speakers “do” with the language, which, while important, does not tell us about the underlying competence that allows speakers to do what they do with the language in the first place (Hutchinson & Waters, 1981). As such, Structuralism was, for example, unable to explain how it is possible for two utterances with the same structure to have different meanings or vice versa. In answer to this, Chomsky maintained that our ability to express thoughts and meanings surges from deep innate structures, stemming from our language competence and comprising a universal grammar. As postulated by Chomsky, it is these deep structures which allow us to *generate* an infinite number of ideas and

express these through a finite number of surface structures. In addition, this *competence*, for example, permits us to understand words and utterances that we have never encountered before, as well as to continue learning new structures. Chomsky and others also formulated transformational rules explaining how a basic grammatical structure (e.g. Lisa saw a snake), can be transformed into another sentence with a different structure (e.g. The snake was seen by Lisa) while maintaining the same meaning.

3.2.3.2 Mentalism

In the area of learning theory, Chomsky provided the first real challenge to behaviorist theory, in the psychology of Mentalism. Behaviorist theory contained a basic flaw that led to its eventual invalidation. It could not explain how learners transfer learning from one stimulus-response sequence to another, nor how learners can generate an infinite number of responses based on a finite number of experiences. The conclusion was that thinking is not formed only by habit, but that it is also, or primarily, governed by rules. In other words, the human mind does not just respond to external stimuli, but instead uses these stimuli to deduct underlying patterns or systems, the knowledge of which allows the learner to apply these to novel situations using new types of responses.

3.2.3.3 Cognitive Code Learning

In language teaching, these developments led in the 1960s to Cognitive Code Learning which viewed the learner as an active participant, attempting to form mental rules out of the language situations encountered. In practice this led to “an amalgamation of Audio-lingual and Grammar Translation techniques”, maintaining the Audio-lingual drills, but adding grammar explanations (Brown, 2001, p. 24).

3.2.3.4 Influences on ESP

Transformational Generative Grammar had a great impact on the field of linguistics, bringing back the idea that language is governed by rules and extending the previously limited view of language as *form* only to a view of language that could explain the interrelationship between meaning and form. This latter point had a great influence on ESP and was very pertinent to Register Analysis. In addition, the Chomskyan idea of competence, latter referred to as communicative competence, was extended to include not only linguistic competence, but also social competence. This competence involves, for example, the knowledge of social rules which

allows us to respond appropriately using the correct linguistic form depending on the social context (Widdowson, 1983).

In ESP, Hutchinson & Waters (1987) posit that Cognitive Code Learning was reflected in teaching approaches that involved meaningful problem-solving tasks and the teaching of reading strategies, in both of which the learner was seen as a thinking being at the center of learning. Finally, according to Hutchinson and Waters (1987), the idea of competence also led to the next three stages in linguistics—Register Analysis, Functional/Notional Grammar and Discourse Analysis. For the purpose of following the sequence of developments in ideas in language teaching, however, I will first discuss reactions against the Cognitive Code Method in terms of the affective factors that it does not consider. Then, related to a consideration of affective factors, I will look at the influence that humanistic psychology had on language teaching and which resulted in a selection of teaching methods—"Designer Methods" (Nunan, 1989, p. 97) that evolved out of a dissatisfaction with the Audio-lingual and Cognitive Code Methods. In the subsequent section, I will continue with an examination of Functional/Notional Grammar as its impact was more direct on General English than on ESP. Register Analysis and Discourse I will include in the section on ESP, as they are seen as the linguistic foundation of ESP.

3.2.4 Affective Factors, Humanistic Approaches and "Designer" Methods

3.2.4.1 Affective Factors and Learner Motivation

Hutchinson and Waters (1987) provide important insights on the shortcoming of the cognitive view, and the important role that affective factors and motivation play in the learning process. First, they acknowledge that the cognitive view, in contrast to earlier methods, regarded learners as "thinking beings" (p. 46), placing them at the center of the learning process and stressing that learning needs to me meaningful and motivating. However, as they argue, the approach, nevertheless, left out a consideration of the emotional or affective needs of the learner. In other words, it had a tendency to treat learners as if they were machines without fears, feeling, likes, dislikes and weaknesses. Thus, it did not acknowledge that learning a foreign language is a very emotional process and that these affective factors play an important role in the success of learning. In addition, as they continue, "the emotional reaction to the learning experience is the essential foundation for the initiative of the cognitive process. *How* the learning is perceived by the learner will affect *what* learning, if any, will take place (p. 47). This conclusion was confirmed by Strevick (1997, originally published in 1976) in a research project comparing the

Audio-lingual and Cognitive Code methods. The results of this study showed that there were no significant differences in terms of outcomes. Instead, what determined success of success or failure was the emotional climate established in the classroom.

Related to the aspect of affect is the notion of motivation, which refers to the learner's impetus to learn. Gardner and Lambert (1972) distinguished two types of motivation: instrumental—referring to motivation based on some external need, and integrative—referring to an internal desire to learn the language. While both, as Hutchinson and Waters (1987) note, are present in learning, this distinction highlights that motivation refers to more than just a need to learn due to external factors. So, as they conclude, this means that for language learning to be successful it not only has to be relevant to the specific language needs of the learner, but also needs to contain the ingredients of "enjoyment, fun, creativity and a sense of enjoyment" (p. 48).

3.2.4.2 Humanistic Approaches and "Designer" Methods

The above realizations, together with increased research efforts in foreign/second language acquisition—which became a discipline in its own right in the 1970s (Brown, 2001)—led to a number of new methods based on a humanistic approach to education (Nunan, 2003b). As a result of this research, there arose a push to come up with new methods. Some of the most popular of these were the following: Community Language Learning influenced by the humanist educational psychologist Carl Rogers (1969), drawing attention to the need to create a relaxed classroom atmosphere to counteract the sense of threat most language learners experience; Suggestopedia, influenced by the Bulgarian psychologist Lozanov (1979); the Silent Way, by Gattegno (1972); Total Physical Response, by Asher (2003, 1st ed. in1977); and the Natural Approach by Krashen's (1982, 1997) theories of language acquisition studies on the order in which the grammar of a language is acquired and theory on language acquisition versus language learning.

3.2.5 Functional/Notional Grammar and the Notional/Functional Syllabus

3.2.5.1 Functional/Notional Grammar

Functional/Notional grammar, as Hutchinson & Waters (1987, p.31) describe it, was the "second major offshoot of work into language as communication", the first being Register Analysis, which I will examine later in section 3.3.2 as Register Analysis had more influence on ESP than on GE. The Functional/Notional movement appeared in the 1970s as applied

linguistics started to move away from a focus on grammar as the main aspect of language ability (measured in terms of grammatical competence) to an emphasis on how speakers use language in varying contexts of communication, to include a consideration of the setting, role of the speakers and the purpose of communication (Richards, 2001). Van Ek and Alexander (1975) and Wilkins (1976), members of the Council of Europe Committee set up to establish language standards in the European community, are considered some of the most important early contributors to this new movement. Van Ek and Alexander (1975) identified general and specific notions: General notions are abstract concepts, such as, for example, the notions of time, space, existence, quantity, and quality. Through these we express our thoughts and feelings, or as Hutchinson and Waters (1987, p. 31) write, they "reflect the way in which the human mind thinks. They are the categories into which the mind and thereby language divides reality". Specific notions are what we generally call "contexts" or "situations", such as, for example, education, travel, free time, shopping. Functions, on the other hand, are social in nature and refer to our "communicative" purposes, such as, persuading, informing, identifying, etc. Van Ek and Alexander (1975) identified around seventy different language functions.

As a way of describing language, functional/notional grammar influenced the approach of Communicative Language teaching, which I will discuss below in section 3.2.6. Today the terms communicative and functional are often used interchangeably. And, in ESP, as Hutchinson and Waters (1987) note, this move was especially strong as it was assumed that ESP students had already received a firm grounding in structurally organized syllabuses, thus not needing more grammar, but rather more practice in using the language.

3.2.5.2 The Notional/Functional Syllabus

In the 1970s there was a strong move to base language syllabuses on functional or notional criteria, focusing on language use, rather than on form as had been the case with structural syllabuses (Brown, 2001; Hutchinson & Waters, 1987). While this was a positive move, Brown (2001, p. 32), maintains that the Notional/Functional Syllabus (NFS) is not a method because it does not specify how it should be taught (as did the other methods discussed earlier). Furthermore, while it was a precursor to the Communicative Language Teaching approach, it "still presented language as an inventory of units—functional rather than grammatical units" (Brown, 2001, p. 33), and as such did not necessarily help to develop communicative competence. Communicative competence, as Brown (2001, p. 33) further notes, "implies a set of

strategies for getting messages sent and received and for negotiating meaning as an interactive participant in discourse". The FNS did not provide such strategies, nor did it attend to the affective learning needs in the sense mentioned in the previous section, especially in regard to the selection of interesting and fun materials. Nevertheless, Brown (p. 36) concludes that it was a fruitful link between "a dynasty of methods that were perishing and a new era of language teaching". This new era was Communicative Language Teaching (CLT), and what Brown (p. 40) calls "an enlightened, eclectic approach". An examination of these will now follow.

3.2.6 Communicative Language Teaching (CLT)

This approach began in the late 1970s and early 1980s in response to the Audio-Lingual method, and as an extension of the NFS. It was consolidated in the late 1980s and early 1990s when, as Brown (2001, p. 42) suggests, it highlighted the "fundamentally communicative properties of language". Considered the accepted norm among a large number of language teachers today, CLT was pioneered by Widdowson (1978), Breen and Candlin (1980) and Savingnon (1983), Finocchiano and Brumfit (1983), and later work by Richard-Amato (1996), Lee and Van Patten (1995) and Nunan (1991b).

As CLT is an approach and not a method, with a set of clearly defined classroom practices, it is hard to define. Attempts to define CLT have been in terms of its principle features as found in the work of Finocchiano and Brumfit (1983), where it is compared to the ALM, and later by Nunan (1991a; 1991b). Some examples of these features are the following:

1. Teaching goals are comprehensive, requiring the pragmatic interweaving of "all the components of language *form*—grammatical functions, lexis, register—as well as components of *meaning*—discourse analysis, functions, sociolinguistic, and strategic of communicative competence" (Brown, 2001, p. 43).

2. Meaning is given preference over form, fluency over accuracy (Nunan, 2003b) and grammar structures are taught primarily through functional categories (Brown, 2001)

3. The target language is learned through the "process of struggling to communicate" (Finocchiano & Brumfit, 1983, in Brown, 2001, p. 45), in which language learning is conceived of as "learning to communicate". Thus the focus is not only on the language, but more importantly on the learning process itself, involving a focus on learning strategies (Nunan, 1991b).

4. The ultimate test of learning is that the learner can communicate in unrehearsed situations outside the classroom, which means that within the classroom the learner is provided with lots of practice in “unrehearsed situations under guidance” (Brown, 2001, p. 44). In more recent times, this has been translated in a focus on Task-based Language Teaching (TBLT), in which “language lessons are based on learning experiences that have nonlinguistic outcomes”, creating a connection between classroom activities and what the student will need to do outside of the classroom (Nunan, 2003b, p. 7).

5. In classroom practice the goals of simulated “authentic” communication are achieved through pair work, group work, role plays and fluency activities aimed at building confidence, all of which are underscored through a judiciously selected focus on grammar and pronunciation as it applies to the communicative work at had.

These considerations now lead me to the latest tendency in language teaching, eclecticism, considered to be the predominant approach of language teaching today.

3.2.7 Eclecticism

The culmination of all the movements in language teaching thus viewed here has led in our current times to what Brown (2001, p. 40) terms an “enlightened eclectic approach”, out of which the “enlightened eclectic teacher” of today has emerged with the following characteristics: Teachers think about possible methodological options to “tailor” classes to particular contexts, and are clear about their approach—that is, the rationale for and principles of their teaching; their approach is based on a learning-teaching methodology that represents a general understanding of the learning and teaching process and integrates all prior insights gained through research and practice over the last fifty years; finally, their teaching is conceived in an interconnection of all the elements of enlightened inquiry, combining reading, observing, discussing and teaching.

Having now completed a review of developments in linguistics, educational psychology, teaching methods and approaches in General English, I will now examine developments which are considered pertinent in the development of English for Specific Purposes.

3.3 Origins and Developments in English for Specific Purposes

3.3.1 General Overview

Much could be written about the origins of ESP. The study of Languages for Specific Purposes (LSP) can actually be traced as far back as the Greek and Roman Empires (Dudley-Evans & St. John, 1998) and specific examples thereafter in 16th Century Europe (Howatt, 1984; Pickett, 1988), as well as examples of its use during WWII (Strevens, 1977). Generally, however, the origins could be placed at the end of the Second World War when numerous political, economic, technological and academic changes began to take place. It is these developments which I will briefly outline here.

Hutchinson and Waters (1987) mention three major developments that influenced the emergence of ESP. These are the demands of a Brave New World, a revolution in linguistics and a focus on the learner.

3.3.1.1 The Demands of a Brave New World

The demands of a Brave New World resulted from the beginnings of globalization after WWII. These developments are most succinctly summarized by White (1988, as cited in Richards, 1991, p. 24):

> Whereas in medieval times English was the language of an island nation and French was the language of a continental one, in the twentieth Century English has become the language of the world thanks to the linguistic legacy of the British Empire, the emergence of the USA as an English-speaking superpower and the fortuitous association of English with the industrial and technological developments of the nineteenth and twentieth centuries.

In addition, Richards (2001, p. 23) points out that the end of WWII brought about the movement of many immigrants, refugees, and foreign students to English speaking countries. And, as he continues, increasing mobility of people due to air travel and international tourism, as well as the dissemination of English through the radio, film and television all led to an increasing need for English. Finally, a more recent massive push for English came with the oil crisis in the early 1970s. Hutchinson and Waters (1987, p.7) note that this event led to the transfer of technology and training from the developed world to the oil-rich countries in the Middle East.

The result of all these developments was to raise the need for English for specific, in contrast to general, purposes. While prior to these events, English was learned mostly for its own sake,

thus the purpose being general, after WWII a new generation of learners emerged. These new learners were young university students, professions, businessmen and businesswomen, and workers "who knew specifically why they were learning a language" (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987, p. 6). This in turn created a demand for new approaches to teaching English—approaches which would allow the learner to gain communicative proficiency in *using* the language, rather than learning *about* the language and its structures and forms.

3.3.1.2 A Revolution in Linguistics

A revolution in linguistics was the second major change that brought about the emergence of ESP. As was already seen in the previous section, whereas linguistics traditionally focused on grammar, describing the formal characteristics of languages, beginning in the 1960s the movement was toward examining how language is used to communicate in real life. In short, there was a focus on the communicative properties of language. This new movement, first in the area of Register Analysis and later in Discourse Analysis, brought about the awareness that language changes depending on the context in which it is being used. Thus, the next logical step beginning with Register Analysis was to study the variations found in the 'special' languages of various disciplines in order to meet the ever-growing specific language needs of principally adult language learners. Initially, as one of the greatest needs (and possibly money, as well) was in the area of science and technology, the field of applied linguistics focused most of its analyses on, and development of materials for, English for Science and Technology (EST) (Dudley-Evans & St. John, 1998). Thus, the relationship between EST and ESP was so close that in its early beginnings the two were considered as almost synonymous (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987). Important work in the area of descriptive EST was conducted by Ewer and Latorre (1969), Swales (1971), Selinker and Trimble (1976), among others. However, not all of the early work was done exclusively in EST. Language courses also taught the register and discourse features in business and medicine (Candlin, Bruton, Leather & Woods, 1977; Jordan, 1977).

3.3.1.3 A Focus on the Learner

The last development influencing ESP did not come from the area of linguistics but instead from psychology as already mentioned in the previous section. As the discipline of psychology began to move away from the behaviorism of B.F. Skinner in the late 1960s, new conceptions about the individual emerged and influenced language teaching. The psychology of Carl Rogers

(1969) had an important impact on educational psychology in general and indirectly on language teaching by making its professionals aware of the important role that affective factors play in language acquisition. Thus, instead of focusing only on the methods of language teaching, more attention was directed (in Europe, as well as the United States) toward how learners acquire a language and the role that affect, learning skills and strategies, motivation, needs and interests play in the learning process (Richards, 2001). These impacted the field of ESP by making the learning needs of students a prime focus in course design.

3.3.2 Five Stages of Development in ESP

There is common agreement among a number of observers on the historical development of ESP (Nelson, 2000). Accordingly, it began in the 1960s in linguistics with Register Analysis and Discourse Analysis, proceeding to Needs Analysis, Skills and Strategies and finally to proposing a learning-centered approach as ESP's defining methodology. For my purposes here, I will now describe these five stages of development

3.3.2.1 Register Analysis

Register Analysis (RA) can trace its origins back to the 1920s in word frequency research which continues to this day (Richards, 2001). According to Jordan (1997, p. 228), Michael West (1953) was the "true originator" of register analysis in 1936 with a count of the frequency of five million words, resulting in a list of 2000 words which he considered sufficient as a basis for learning English.

More commonly, however, the concept of RA is associated with academic text analysis in ESP during the early 1960s and onwards. The term register refers to the "formality of language" (Celce-Murcia & Larsen-Freeman, 1999, p. 23), which varies depending on the context. The main proposition behind RA, as Nelson (2000) points out, was that the language we choose in certain communicative situations is pre-determined, and that this predetermination is ruled by the situation, subject matter and relationship between speakers (level of formality). The idea was that it would be possible to identify the special language or "register" that corresponds to these situations, subject matter and relationships. Thus, RA was an analysis of these registers. It was believed that it would be most helpful for students studying in special or restricted fields of English to focus on the most common grammatical features and lexis encountered in their specialist areas. To accomplish this task, researchers analyzed corpora of texts (primarily

scientific texts at that time) with the aim of establishing statistical counts of varying registers, or, in other words, the analysts attempted to find out how frequently certain grammatical structures or vocabulary appeared. This search was based on the assumption that specialized texts are composed of unique registers that could be used as the basis for the syllabus design and materials used. As such, RA, aimed its analysis primarily at the word and sentence level, attempting to identify the registers characteristic of different language use, such as technical writing, academic textbooks, business communications, etc. (Richards, 2001). One of the first ESP textbooks of significance was by Herbert (1965), *The Structure of Technical English*. Other names most commonly associated with RA are Halliday, McIntosh and Strevens (1964); Ewer and Latorre (1967, 1969); and John Swales (1971, 1985, 1988).

3.3.2.2 Discourse Analysis

Discourse Analysis (DA) arose in the 1970s and is an area of study that covers many disciplines, including linguistics. As Johnstone (2002, p. 27) notes, there is "no universally agreed-on definition of discourse analysis", pointing out, however, that most would agree that discourse refers to "actual talk, writing, or signing", while analysis concerns "ways of systematically taking things apart or looking at them from multiple perspective". Thus, as the author concludes, "discourse analysis is . . . a methodology that is useful in answering many kinds of questions, both questions that linguistics traditionally ask and questions asked by people in other . . . . disciplines" (p. 27). Jordan (1997, p. 229) narrows the definition somewhat by stating that DA "is concerned with describing the language and its structure that is used in speech or text that is longer than a sentence, e.g. conversations, paragraphs, complete texts". McCarthy and Walsh (2003, p. 174), on the other hand, narrow the definition to state that "the study of discourse is the study of the relationship between language and its context of use". Finally Hutchinson and Waters (1987, p. 11) provide the shortest definition stating that the shift from register analysis, which remained almost exclusively at the word and sentence level, led to an "understanding of how sentences were combined in discourse to produce meaning".

Discourse Analysis examines a number of important aspects. Among these are the following: Social transactions or relationships between the speakers and the ways in which this is reflected in the language they use; the purposes or functions of speaking (e.g. buying something, making a requests, etc); how structures and vocabulary affect the discourse structure; the manner in which speakers develop topics and let each other know how the discourse is developing; and the

relationship between sentences or utterances, such as cohesion, discourse markers and cohesive devices (Jordan, 1997; McCarthy & Walsh, 2003).

Within ESP, there have been a number of influential analysts working in Discourse Analysis. Among these are Widdowson with Allen in the *English in Focus Series*, 1973-1978, and in his work on functions and information transfer (1979); Candlin, Bruton, Leather, & Woods (1977) with their focus on Doctor-Patient discourse; Bates and Dudley-Evans in the *Nucleus series* (1976-85); Sinclair and Coulthard (1975) in their analysis of classroom discourse; Halliday and Hassan (1976) in work on cohesion; and Larry Selinker, Luis Trimble, John Lackstrom and Mary Todd-Trimble of the Washington School (see Jordan, 1997; Hutchinson & Waters, 1987).

3.3.2.3 Needs Analysis

Needs Analysis is not unique to ESP. Dudley-Evans and St. John (1998), for example, comment that it forms the basis of training and foreign aid programs. Richards (2001) notes that a needs-based philosophy emerged in the 1960s not only in ESP, which introduced needs analysis into language teaching, but also in vocationally-oriented programs, as well as with new curriculum developments in North America that called for educational accountability. Nelson (2000), who provides a historical sketch of the development of needs analysis, notes that while the term was first used by Michael West in the 1920s, in recent times it was largely started by Richterich's (1971) work for the Council of Europe modern language project. However, the main impetus came a bit later with the functional/notional approach of Wilkins in 1976. Other work done prior to Wilkins was that of Stuart and Lee (1972/1985) in an analysis of situational needs in ten different occupations, and of Jordan and Mackay (1973) in the area of EAP. The whole movement culminated with the Communicative Syllabus Design of Munby (1978). Hutchinson and Waters (1987, p. 54) termed Munby's work "a watershed in the development of ESP", in which ESP "seemed to come of age". In this work Munby established systematic procedures for discovering a whole range of micro functions called the Communicative Needs Processor (CNP) which contained questions about major communication and skills variables, such as the topic, participants, medium of communication, etc. This needs profile resulted in a skills taxonomy that students would potentially need to possess. This taxonomy included 300 sub skills and 54 categories. However, as Dudley-Evans and St. John (1998) note, the work had little direct influence on ESP as it did not include a way of prioritizing the needs, nor did it include a

consideration of affective factors. In addition, the large number of categories made it impractical to apply in practice (Cunningsworth, 1983; Hutchinson & Waters, 1987; Nelson, 2000).

Later developments in Needs Analysis, which Nelson (2000) enumerates, are the following: With changes on the view of language in the late 1970s and early 1980s came about changes in the approach to needs analysis. Canale and Swain (1980), for example, added a sociolinguistic dimension to the concept of communicative competence. In general, the dissatisfaction with Munby's model led to in inclusion of new aspects to consider in the needs analysis beyond language functions, to include an analysis of means, lacks and learning strategies. Means refers to potential external, institutional or environmental constraints that should be considered not as "negative constraints" but as "relevant features" to be taken into consideration in course design (Dudley-Evans & St. John, 1998, p. 124.) In a similar vain, McDonough (1984) suggested that means or constraints be viewed as "options" that a course designer has to consider.

On the other hand, lacks were discerned within what was to be termed a deficiency analysis started by Allwright and Allwright (1977), also referred to as Present Situation Analysis (PSA). This analysis involves examining the gap between what the learners needs to know in order to be successful in a given communicative situation and what the student actually knows at the outset of a course.

Another analysis, called strategy analysis or learning strategies, involved an analysis of students' preferred ways of learning. This type of analysis had been conducted in other areas of education in Canada and the United States since the 1960s and took hold in EFL in the 1980s (Nelson, 2000). This approach can be seen reflected especially in the work of Allwright and Allwright (1977) in which some classroom sessions were dedicated to focusing on how, rather than what to learn. Allwright (1982) was a pioneer in this area, distinguishing between needs or necessities (what students feel is relevant to their situation), wants (what students prioritize) and lacks (the gap between a student's current competence and future desired competence). In the area of ESP, Hutchinson and Waters (1987) express this position very strongly and Waters (1988, 1994) went as far as to maintain that for ESP to continue being a legitimate approach requires that student learning needs become the primary focus in ESP.

Finally, Nelson (2000) comments on the language audit by Pilbeam (1979) which is of relevance to my focus regarding on-the-job language training. This work examined company and staff training needs. Unfortunately, as Nelson (2000) observes, while much work has been done

in this area, most has not been published as the companies and participating language schools involved have preferred to maintain their findings a "secret" for competitive reasons.

Other terms associated with needs analysis are: expectations, motivations, requirements, necessities, demands, likes, goals, aims purposes and objectives (Jordan, 1997; Richards, 2001). However, putting some order into all this terminology, in ESP the term "needs analysis" is considered a general concept, incorporating Target Situation Analysis (TSA), Present Situation Analysis (PSA) and Learning Situation Analysis (LSA). The TSA examines the student's language needs (including an analysis of lexis, grammatical structures, register, discourse variables and language functions and notions) at the end of a course. Here the work of Munby and Van Ek and Alexander, as well work in Register Analysis and Discourse Analysis, are of relevance. A PSA, as already mentioned under the term lacks, or deficiency analysis, examines where the student is in relation to the target situation. And, LSA, mentioned above under learning strategies, involves a consideration of methods of teaching as well as methods of learning, to include an analysis of a student's preferred learning styles and strategies used (Jordan, 1997).

Procedures for obtaining data for the needs analysis are the following: questionnaires, self-ratings, interviews, meetings, observations, language samples, task analyses and case studies (Richards, 2001, p. 62). Once the data has been obtained, it needs to be interpreted and priorities set as not all aspects encountered under the needs analysis will be reachable within the time constraints of a given course.

3.3.2.4 Skills and Strategies

Skills and Strategies was, in the 1980s, the next stage in the development of ESP and one that ran parallel with the development of needs analyses. In the area of skills and strategies, as Hutchinson and Waters (1987, p.13) note, there was no particular central figure. Instead, the work involved a lot of local projects, which developed at this stage, one of them being, for example, the National ESP Project in Brazil with a focus on reading skills and the University of Malaya Project.

The skills centered approach focused on the four macro skills of listening, speaking, reading and writing with an analysis of underlying micro skills, such as the processes of skimming, scanning and using context to derive meaning for the macro skill of reading. Eventually the movement also began to focus on strategies. This work was influenced by Allwright and

Allwright (1977) with the idea of learning to learn. The strategies movement, according to Dudley-Evans and St. John (1998), grew fairly naturally out of the functional/notional model, as well as out of the communicative language teaching approach. Hutchinson and Waters (1987, p. 13) explain that the principal idea of the skills centered approach "is that underlying all language use there are common reasoning and interpreting processes, which, regardless of the surface forms, enable us to extract meaning from discourse". As a result, there is no need to focus closely on surface forms of the language. Instead, the focus should be on underlying interpretive strategies that allow the learner to understand the surface forms. Such strategies are, for example, guessing meaning from context, using visual cues, exploiting cognates, etc. Thus, according to Hutchinson and Waters (1987, p. 13), "the work of Register Analysis becomes irrelevant because the underlying processes are not specific to any subject register". Hutchinson and Waters draw this conclusion after having established that the first three stages in the development of ESP—Register Analysis, Discourse Analysis and Target Situation Analysis—principally focused on surface forms of the language (the linguistic features of the language) with Register Analysis focusing on the sentence level, Discourse Analysis above the sentence level and Target Situation Analysis at surface linguistic features within the target situation. Following this line of reasoning, Hutchinson and Waters argue that it is not necessary to study different subject specific registers. The emphasis of this development therefore is, as they note, to get learners to focus on "how meaning is produced in and retrieved from written or spoken discourse" (p. 14).

In conclusion, Hutchinson and Waters comment that the skills-centered model was a reaction to the idea that specific registers of English should form the basis of ESP. In addition, it was a reaction against the goal-oriented nature of the Target Situation analysis which tacitly implied that a large number of students will always fail a certain course because they will be unable to comply with the goals. In this model, the ESP course and target situation are conceived as separate entities; whereas the skills centered approach adopts a "process-oriented" approach in which the ESP course and the target situation are seen as lying on a "continuum of constantly developing degrees of proficiency with no cut-off point of success or failure" (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987, p. 70). And, as the authors further observe, in this model the emphasis is "not on achieving a particular set of goals, but on enabling the learners to achieve what they can within the given constraints" (p. 70). The re-conceptualization of course design from a goal-oriented to a process-oriented endeavor inevitably changed the focus of needs analysis. Hutchinson and

Waters (1987) claim that needs analysis in the skills-centered approach had two objectives. First, it attempted to discover the underlying competence enabling people to perform in varying target situations. And second, needs analysis thus re-defined allowed course designers to uncover the pre-existing knowledge and abilities of its students in the ESP classroom. These realizations led Hutchinson and Waters to the final stage in the development of ESP—the conception of a learning-centered, rather than learner-centered approach.

3.3.2.5 A Learning-Centered Approach

A learning-centered approach is the fifth and final stage in the development of ESP, and it is a stage that has been promoted by Hutchinson and Waters in a number of their publications (1980, 1981, 1984, 1987) and Hutchinson (1988) where they elaborate the details of this approach. At the core of their approach, which is most succinctly outlined in the 1987 book, lies a critique of other prevailing approaches in ESP.

One of their central arguments is that it is necessary to distinguish between language *use* and language *learning*—that is, between what people *do* with the language and what processes actually lead to language *learning*. Their focus is on learning, not on doing. As they claim, all previous approaches essentially focused on descriptions of language use—be they linguistic descriptions of surface forms as in register analysis, or descriptions of processes that allow learners to perform, as in the skills-centered approach. Thus, in the language-centered approach language performance requirements of the target situation determined ESP course content. The next approach, the skills-centered approach, acknowledged that the former was insufficient and urged that it is necessary to examine the underlying process or competence that allows learners to perform. So, in the skills-centered approach these processes determine ESP course content. In both cases, however, the learner is not taken into account because both focus on the target situation and not on learning needs. As a critique of the then prevailing approaches, Hutchinson and Waters (1987, p. 73) explain, “We must look beyond the competence that enables us to perform, because what we really want to discover is not the competence itself, but how someone acquires that competence”. In other words, a valid ESP approach includes an understanding of language learning. In terms of teaching, this implies that the target situation is not of primary importance. Instead it is necessary to consider student learning needs first—that is, student motivation, the learning process and the student’s different ways of learning. In practice, this implies as well that all language skills should be taught even when the target situation calls for

only one of two skills. The justification of this latter point is that learning in one skill area can help learning in others.

While it does not lie within the scope of this thesis to elaborate in detail on Hutchinson and Water's concept of language learning, I would like to point out that it seems to correspond to Widdowson's (1983) notion of communicative "capacity", which "refers to the ability to produce and understand utterances by using the resources of grammar in association with features of context to make meaning" (p.7). Widdowson contrasts this with Chomsky's notion of competence, which Widdowson claims to be merely a descriptive and analytic device taken from a grammarian's, but not a user's perspective. Thus, for Widdowson, capacity is that which "activates the acquisition of competence in the first place" (p. 25). I believe that their concept of capacity refers to the same concept of learning as devised by Hutchinson and Waters. Finally, as Widdowson (1983) claims, the capacity of learning correspond to Krashen's (1981, 1982) monitor theory of language acquisition.

3.3.3 ESP Today

In the literature of today there appears to be a general consensus that no new dominating movements have developed in ESP since the 1987 work of Hutchinson and Waters in their proposed learning-centered approach (R. West, 1997; Dudley-Evans & St. John, 1998). While Dudley-Evans and St. John (1998) mention corpus concordance programs and genre analysis as more recent outgrowths of register analysis and discourse analysis respectively, they do not see these as major movements, such as the five mentioned above. Finally, what distinguishes the work of ESP practitioners today from foregoing times is that the practitioner of today can take advantage of all the previous developments in ESP, thus allowing them to present students with a mix of approaches to meet their particular needs. That is to say, for ESP practitioners, and to some extent their ELT counterparts today, the predominant approach to teaching is more eclectic than it had previously been in the past. It is also more practically oriented. As Dudley and St. John (1998, p. 32) observe, "ESP has generally been concerned with procedures and practical outcomes. It has been in the vanguard of the developments in ELT, moving from grammatical, functional and notional syllabuses to a more eclectic and task-based approach".

3.4 Branches and Definitions of ESP and Differences between ESP and GPE

3.4.1 Branches of ESP

In an attempt to define ESP, Hutchinson and Waters (1987) considered the broader framework of English Language Teaching (ELT) or, what I have at times also referred to as General Purpose English (GPE). Using a tree diagram, they describe various branches of ESP, growing out of the overall development of GPE. Similarly, Dudley-Evans and St John (1998, p. 6) presented a more simplified diagram, which I follow in part in (*Figure 3. 2*)

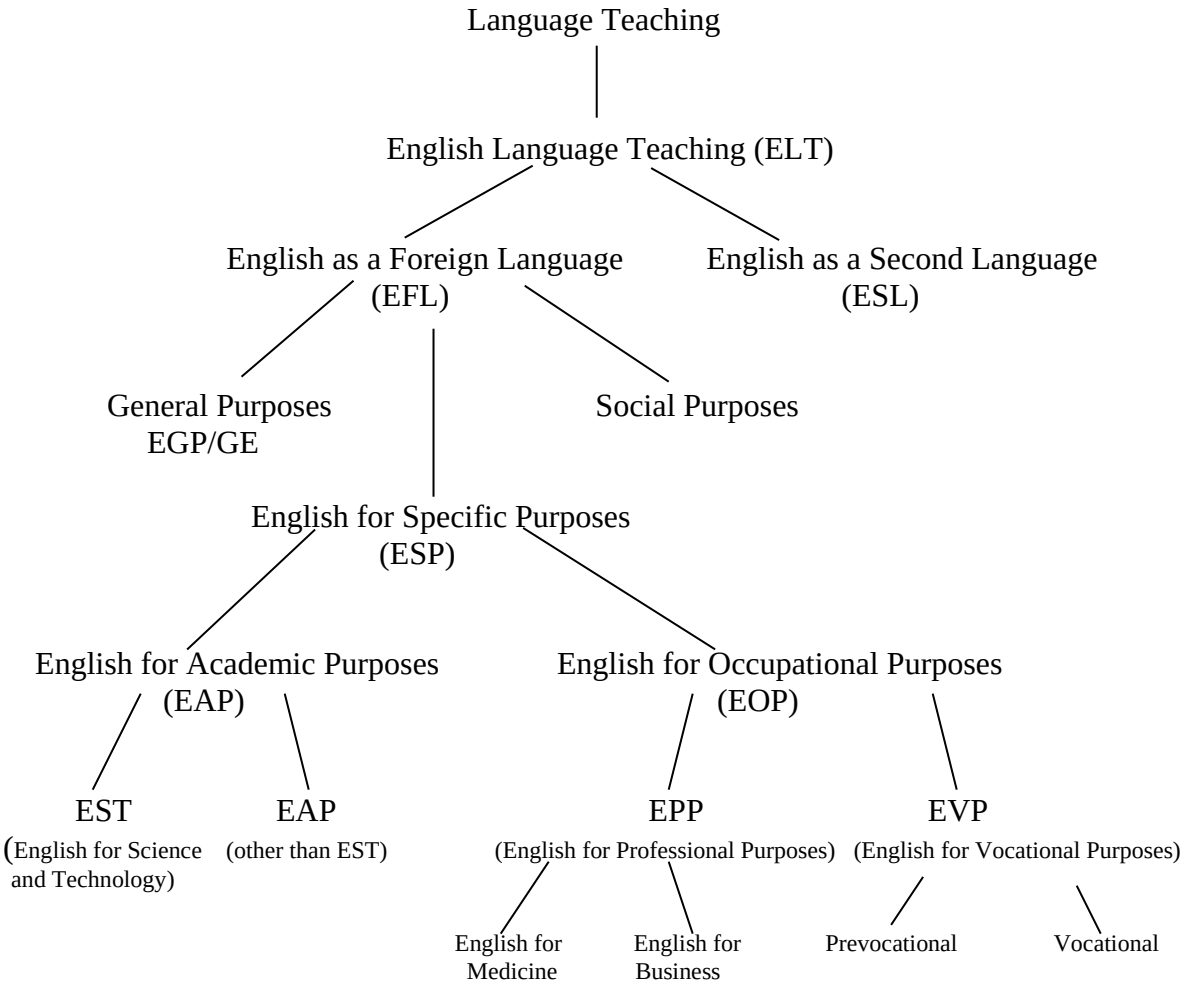


Figure 3.2

As can be seen from this diagram, ESP grew out of the general English Language Teaching (ELT) tradition, as described in section 3.2, and more specifically, as Hutchinson and Waters (1987, p. 13) indicate in their well-known tree diagram of the branches and development of ESP, out of English as a Foreign Language (EFL), which will be highlighted here as we are primarily looking at the context in which English is taught outside of and English speaking country (in

contrast to ESL). At the next level, I divide EFL into three parts—English for General Purposes (or GPE/GE), Social Purposes and English for Specific Purposes (ESP), following Jordan's (1997) scheme of ESP development. At the following level I divide ESP into two major areas—EAP and EOP, following Dudley-Evans and St. Johns' (1998) division of ESP. The reason I have selected the later division is that it highlights the distinction between English for Professional Purposes (EPP) and English for Vocational Purposes (EVP), the latter of which is of concern to this thesis.

3.4.2 Definitions of ESP

Just as there are many branches of ESP, there are also many definitions (see for example, Coffe, 1984; Dudley-Evans & St. John, 1998; Kennedy & Bolitho, 1984; Hutchinson & Waters, 1987; Jordan, 1997; Munby, 1978; R. West 1997; Widdowson, 1983). Under all approaches, as Nelson (2000) notes, there exists a discussion about the extent to which specific situations call forth the need for a specific language. According to Nelson, there is a consensus (with the exception of Munby, whom Nelson does not mention), that specific situations do not generate a separate, special language *as such*. This having been said, however, there is also a consensus that language can be restricted and thus must be selected on the basis of a choice of lexis, which essentially distinguishes ESP from GPE. Finally, Nelson (2000) notes that most definitions either revolve around the issue of a specialized language or the teaching thereof. For example, Strevens (1977) in simplified terms devises four criteria to define ESP. These are *restriction* (to basic skills learners need), *selection* (of vocabulary and grammar needed), *themes* and *topics*, and *communicative needs*. Coffey (1984) built on Strevens, reiterating that the principle used for selecting language needs has to be based on learning purposes. Kennedy and Bolitho (1984) and Munby (1978) highlight the target situation language needs of learners. Robinson (1991) as well places a primacy on the needs analysis as the defining criteria, and adds three special characteristics to the definition of ESP: It is imparted to adults in homogeneous groups within limited time periods. R. West (1997), Widdowson (1983) and Hutchinson and Waters (1987), on the other hand, point to the potential conflict between the needs of the real-world (as expressed in the target situation) and the pedagogy and methodology applied to meet these needs. Dudley-Evans and St. John (1998, p.3) criticize both Robinson and Strevens arguing that their definitions create the false impression that ESP is "always and necessarily related directly to subject content". Instead, in their own definition they devise three absolute characteristics (the specific

needs of the learner, the methodology and activities related to the learner's discipline, and the language needs of the learner) and four variable characteristics which may or may not be applicable (related to a specific discipline, use of a specific methodology, adult learners, intermediate or advanced learners) (pp. 4-5).

Hutchinson and Waters (1987, p. 19) describe ESP as an "approach" and not a "product". Language-centered approaches, which focus on language descriptions (what people *do),* and the skills and strategies approach, which focuses on target situation performance (how people *perform*), both in the end view ESP as a product. Hutchinson and Waters, in contrast, define ESP as an *approach* or more specifically an "approach to language-centered learning" (p. 17). In this approach the concern is with developing the underlying competence which allows learners to *use* the language in the first place. Thus, for Hutchinson and Waters "the foundation of all ESP is the simple question: Why does this learner need to learn a foreign language?" (p. 19). And, in conclusion they maintain that ESP is "an approach to language teaching in which all decisions as to content and method are based on the learner's need for learning" (p. 19).

Finally, in a more recent general assessment of ESP, Belcher (2006, p. 134) holds that the approach has become "increasingly difficult to summarily describe". She further explains,

> Contributing to the complexified picture of ESP are more methodologically, technologically, and theoretically enriched assessments of language use and learner needs, and a growing array of means to meet them, in a globalized world . . .where local and global needs meet and merge, collide and conflict, and new culturally and linguistically hybrid 'thirdness[es]' emerge."

3.4.3 Differences between ESP and GPE

Related to providing a definition of ESP are attempts to draw comparisons between ESP and GPE. The chart below (*figure 3.3.*) (translated from Algarra, 2003, pp. 111-112) highlights some of these differences which become pertinent especially at the course design level as these factors determine the length of the course, the level of maturity of the students and the material to be used.

Variables	General Purpose English (GPE)	English for Specific Purposes (ESP)
Student	All ages	Adults
Motivation	Long term, although could be	Immediate

	immediate	
Time	Indefinite	Limited
Necessities	Institution/Teacher	Institution/Teacher/Student
Objectives	Language as an end	Language as a means
Content	• Emphasis on all aspects of grammar • Themes of a general sociocultural nature • Development of all four language skills	• Emphasis on some aspects of grammar • Specific themes • Development of specific skills
Method	• Follows a concrete method • Uses of a textbook	• Eclectic methodology applied to the content • Elaboration of in-house material

Figure 3.3.

At a deeper pedagogic level, however, Widdowson (1983) draws yet other distinctions that are also pertinent to course design, especially in terms of defining the aims and objectives of a course and for knowing where on the continuum he devises the particular ESP course lies. His analysis is rather complex and the descriptions of the meaning behind the terminology he uses (aim, objective, training, education, competence, capacity, skill and ability) are rather too detailed. While I do not claim to do justice to the underlying depth of his distinctions, for the sake of brevity I will just touch upon the surface conclusions he has reached in order to highlight the potential problematic at hand in course design.

In terms of distinguishing ESP from GPE, Widdowson places these on a continuum as represented in *figure 3.4.* below:

ESP **GPE**

Pure ESP_____+_____+_____+_____+_____Pure Education

Purpose: Descriptive

Aim oriented (objectives and aims conflated)

Training

Skills

Restricted competence

Purpose: Theoretical

Objective oriented (aims postponed)

Education

Abilities

General capacity

Conformity (compliance to established rule-governed structures)	Creativity (interpretation and creation of meaning)
Instruction	Teaching
Trainer—Trainee (converse relationship)	Teacher—Learner (relationship not converse)
Methodology—Teacher-centered	Methodology—Leaner-centered
Learner needs defined by eventual aims	Learner needs defined by pedagogic objectives
What learner has to do with the language once learned	What learner has to do in order to learn the language
	Educational objectives must be related to the psychology of learning

Figure 3.4

For Widdowson (1983) the issue is for ESP to find its point on this continuum. Similarly to Hutchinson and Waters, he points toward the problematic contained in the tendency of ESP to take linguistic and communicative descriptions, derived from language descriptions and needs analyses, and to use these directly as course specifications—that is, as pedagogic units of teaching, thus excluding any intervening pedagogic considerations, or what Widdowson terms *objectives*.

In doing so, language descriptions translate into what he terms *aims*—that is, what the learner needs to do at the end of the course, and therewith educational objectives and aims are conflated. At the extreme end of the continuum, this converts ESP into a training exercise, without any theoretical basis. For ESP to move toward the education end of the continuum requires the intervention of pedagogic objectives related to a psychology of learning. Pedagogic objectives concern what learners have to do in order to learn.

At yet another level, in training the goal is to impart *skills* which allow the learner to respond competently to pre-established problems, relating linguistic *rules* and communicative functions and notions to *situations*; whereas in education the goal is to develop *abilities* which allow the learner to adjust to new and unforeseen problems. Within this scheme, skills lead to conformity

(matching form to situation) and ability to creativity (devising novel ways to respond to unforeseen situations). Thus, training imparts restricted linguistic and communicative *competence*, which Widdowson defines as the ability to assess the extent to which "a linguistic expression conforms to pre-existing norms for language activity, whether this be cognitive or communicative" (p. 23). In Education, on the other hand, the goal is to impart capacity, meaning "the ability to exploit a knowledge of the conventions of a language and its use" (p.10) and exploiting it "as a resource for the creation of meaning [which] is concerned not with assessment but interpretation" (p. 24).

While the development of linguistic and communicative competence appears to be a very pragmatic and cost-effective device, as Widdowson notes, leading the learner to respond with appropriately learned formulae to pre-determined problems, in reality this conception of training carries with it a number of problems. One of these problems is that with increased specificity, competence becomes more and more restricted and in its extreme leads to phrase book type language instruction. This however, suggests a problem: As in the real world there is never an exact fit between formula and problem, the learner is not prepared to deal with unforeseen problems. As Widdowson maintains, the ability to adjust a formula to unforeseen problems requires not only competence, but also linguistic and communicative capacity.

Out of the above mentioned issues Widdowson makes other comparisons relating to methodology and the relationship between the instructor/trainer/teacher and the trainee/learner. However, for the purposes here the problems mentioned in the previous paragraphs are of primary importance as the course design I propose is at the training end of the continuum. This requires that the design, in order to be theoretically sound, needs to incorporate educational objectives so that it does not become merely another phrase book course. Strategies for ways of avoiding this pitfall will be examined in Chapter 4. Before proceeding, however, I will now briefly examine the available literature on English for Vocational Purposes which is the focus of my work. It should be noted that my treatment of this literature at this point is superficial; methodological concerns treated in this literature will be taken up in chapter 4.

3.5 Review of the Literature in EVP/EOP

In my search of the literature I was unable to find much material directly addressing the issue of vocational training in the area of tourism, be it on-the-job or off-the-job. And, in terms of

English language training at the vocational level in tourism, I found even fewer sources. Nevertheless, what I was able to find is useful for the discussion at hand, even it does not always speak directly to the more narrow focus of on-the-job English at the vocational level in tourism, I am pursuing here.

While all involved in the area of tourism seem to agree that foreign language training is essential for the tourism industry, from the research I have done, there seems to be little, if any, systematic treatment of this area. As an example of this situation, Magennis (2002) point out that although the WTO is concerned with education in tourism, it has not dedicated much attention to the area of language curricula. In addition, the author notes that the "professional literature has not adequately defined or addressed the topic of ESP in the tourism industry, nor have many English language programs and materials been created specifically for this area" (p. 57).

Thus, the author concludes that "a systematic approach to defining these language requirements would be beneficial for all involved" (p. 68). The author is commenting here in reference to tourism programs in higher education, but I believe it is safe to conclude that a similar situation exists at the vocational level as well.

In my internet search for vocational training in tourism, I uncovered two sources describing the vocational school system of tourism, FOMATUR, of Cuba (Machin, 2004; Tamayo & Medrano, 2004). Machin (2004) is most relevant for my purposes in terms of the commentary on available material and the school systems' gradual phasing out of these because of their inappropriateness for the Cuban context. Magennis (2002) reports a similar situation in the context of Portugal, as well.

Other literature I encountered, as already described in chapter 2, addresses either the issue of English language training at the vocational level, but not in the area of tourism, or it address vocational training in tourism, but not English language training. For example, Burt (2004) examines the issue of outcome measures of on-the-job English training (what is termed workplace English or ESL in the United States), the constraints encountered when providing such training and recommendations on how to overcome these constraints. The author, however, does not specifically mention the area of tourism. Similarly, Bertzeletou (2005) in a study on training for SMEs in Europe provides hints for overcoming constraints in on-the-job training for SMEs, but English language training is not included. Relatedly, a review of research undertaken on tourism training in Wales (Haven & Jones, n.d.) provides insights on the mismatch between

training provided at government institutions and actual industry needs, and also comments on the failure of small tourism providers to appreciate the value of training. Again, English language training is not included here.

Finally, a number of articles discuss issues of workplace training in an English as a second language (ESL) learning context, including nurses in Australia (Hussin, 2002), as well as manufacturing workers (Gordon, 2002; Garcia, 2002) and workers at a cleaning service in the United States (Noden, 2002). While none of these articles concern the area of tourism, they nonetheless provide observations transferable to the area of tourism, especially in terms of curriculum design, methodology and teaching activities, all of which will be examined in chapter 4. In addition, Noden's article on English training for workers at a cleaning service offers important insights on the overwhelming number of constraints facing training providers in the service industry, to which I have already referred to in chapter 2 and will examine again in chapter 4.

In terms of the amount of material available in the area of vocational or occupational English and on-the-job training in this area, it appears that there is more work being done in English speaking countries than in non-English speaking countries. I believe this is the case because in non-English speaking countries ESP is more focused at the academic or professional level (business English, English for science and technology, for example), while in English speaking countries more English is taught at the vocational level, called workplace English, due to the need to integrate non-native speaking workers (immigrants) who mostly fill more low-paying vocational level positions (Haven & Jones, n.d.; Hussin 2002; Noden, 2002). It does not lie within the scope of this paper to review the abundance of material available in this area. However, I believe it would be a valuable endeavor for future research, including an evaluation of how the findings could be adapted to contexts outside English-speaking countries.

Having completed the theoretical considerations underlying English teaching in general and ESP in particular, to include the aforementioned review of the literature on EOP/EVP, I will now present my course design. In doing so, I will show how a number of the theoretical aspects discussed in this chapter could be applied in practice.

4 English for the Hotel Industry Course Design

4.1 Introduction

In chapter three I adopted Hutchinson and Waters' (1987, p. 19) definition of ESP as "an approach to language teaching in which all decisions as to content and method are based on the learner's reason for learning" after having examined the major theoretical underpinnings of ESP—linguistic theories, theories of learning which inform teaching, and the needs analysis. These three elements play a key role in course design. More specifically, they provide answers to the principal questions one must ask when designing a course: The WHAT, HOW, WHO, WHY WHERE and WHEN of course design. The last four questions—WHO, WHY, WHERE and WHEN are answered by the needs analysis, which is traditionally the starting point for ESP. As examined in chapter three, answers to these questions provide the basis for defining the target situation (through the TSA), the students' present language level (through the PSA) and the learning situation (through the LSA). The TSA and PSA provide information concerning the language the student will need in order to perform in the target situation. This information in turn determines the content (language and language skills) or the WHAT of the course, which at the application level is presented in the course syllabus. The *syllabus*, one of the four elements of course design, is a document presenting the ways we describe languages for the purposes of learning (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987, pp. 22-23). Here we find a representation of the linguistic theories describing languages in terms of structure, register, discourse, function, notion, etc. Next, the LSA of the needs analysis provides information about the learners' likes, dislikes, preferences, learning styles and needs. This aspect touches upon a further element of course design, namely the *methodology*. The methodology we select answers the question of HOW we believe people learn best (relating to the various learning theories). Aside from the syllabus and methodology, the remaining two elements of course design are *materials* and *evaluations*.

For the purposes of the course design I am proposing—an ESP course at the vocational level in the hotel and tourism industry—the remainder of this chapter is divided into 2 sections. In the first section I discuss the four principle factors involved in course design—the syllabus, methodology, material and assessment. In the second section I present the application of the four course design factors to the particular course I am proposing. Included in this section are the results of my needs analysis and a student profile, which are then followed by a discussion of my

course project, supported by commentary taken from a review of literature that proposes similar course designs.

4.2 Factors involved in Course Design

In this section, as already indicated above, I will examine four factors involved in course design: The syllabus, methodology, material design and assessment.

4.2.1 The Role of the Syllabus in Course Design

Course design and syllabus design are often treated synonymously in the literature. This confusion I believe exists for two reasons: One, the term "syllabus" and "curriculum" are treated differently in American and British literature (Brown, 2001). In the United States the term syllabus refers to only a small part of an educational or language program, namely the content to be covered, whereas curriculum refers to the methodology, student needs, material and assessment (Richards, 2001). In Britain, on the other hand, the term syllabus is used to refer to what Americans call curriculum (Brown, 2001). The other reason for the confusion dates back to assumptions underlying early approaches (in the first half of the twentieth century) in ELT to syllabus design when grammar structures and vocabulary were seen as the main "building blocks of language development" (Richards, 2001, p.15). In short, in earlier times the syllabus was the course, usually presented in the form of a textbook. As was seen in chapter three, issues regarding methodology, learning needs, etc. only emerged gradually over time. I will not use the term "curriculum" and use, instead, the terms course design and syllabus design interchangeably. In doing so I will examine the relative role of syllabus design within the overall process of course design.

In the literature, course design has been classified into three categories: Product/content-based, skills-based and process/method-based (Jordan, 1997; Robinson, 1991). Within each of these three categories the role of the syllabus takes on a varying position: In the product/content-based approach it almost exclusively determines course design, while in the skills-based approaches it takes on a secondary position, and, finally, in the process/method-based approach, at its very extreme, it is negotiated between students and the teacher (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987; Jordan, 1997; Robinson, 1991). It should be noted that these three categories were already

seen in chapter 3 in Hutchinson and Waters' language, skills and learning-centered approaches. Following is a discussion of these three types of syllabuses.

4.2.1.1 Product/Content-Based Course Syllabuses

Product/content-based course syllabuses are, as Robinson (1991, p. 35) notes "ends-driven". Within this type of course design there appears in the literature of ELT and ESP up to eight different criteria that can be used to organize the syllabus (see for example Graves, 2000; Jordan, 1997; Robinson, 1991). I will mention here the following criteria upon which these kinds of syllabuses can be based. These are the structural/formal, the notional/functional, the situational, the topical/thematic and the competency-based syllabuses.

The structural/formal syllabus is the oldest and probably most familiar syllabus. It uses grammatical or structural language forms usually ordered on a step-by-step basis from simple to more complex as the primary criteria for syllabus design. Included here as well are vocabulary and pronunciation which, together with grammar, are examined primarily at the sentence level (Graves, 2000).

Another familiar way to organize a syllabus is according to communicative functions, resulting in the functional-notional syllabus. For the functions to be meaningful, however, they need to be contextualized within some relevant situation. Therefore, this type of syllabus is often combined with situations.

The situational syllabus, which concerns the contexts in which language is used, overlaps with communicative functions as mentioned above. Examples of situations are at the bank, at the supermarket, at the restaurant, etc.

The topical/thematic syllabus concerns "what the language is used to talk about" (Graves, 2000, p. 52). Examples of topics are for example: The family, food, hobbies, etc. Graves (2000, p. 45), as do Hutchinson and Waters, notes that topics or themes "provide a good backbone or organizing principle for a syllabus because it is easy to weave elements from other areas around the topics or themes".

The competency-based syllabus, mentioned by Graves (2000), focuses on language and behaviors that are needed to perform certain communicative tasks. This syllabus combines situations, linguistic skills (grammar, vocabulary and pronunciation) and functions in an attempt to teach the language needed to perform in predetermined situations (e.g. target situations). Examples are how to perform in a job interview and how to open a bank account. As Graves

(2000, p. 46) comments, however, while this type of syllabus is very popular where course sponsors or funders want to see measurable results, it is problematic (as already pointed out in chapter three in my discussion of Widdowson) because it is impossible to predict with exactitude how in real-life the language will actually be used.

In conclusion, one could say the product/content-based syllabus design parallels what Hutchinson and Waters describe as a language-centered approach as it principally takes the situations and language features obtained in the TSA and uses these as the basis for organizing, not only the syllabus, but the entire course. Student learning needs, methodological and pedagogically appropriate materials are relegated to a secondary position, if they are considered at all.

4.2.1.2 Skills-Based Syllabuses

Skills-based syllabuses lie between the product and process syllabuses. In this approach one or more of the four traditional language skills (macro-skills) are used as the basis of the syllabus. These are then broken down into micro-skills and learning strategies. For example, in reading the micro-skills of skimming, scanning and guessing meaning from context would be focused on; whereas in speaking the micro-skills of listening for the main idea, focusing on content words to guessing meaning and asking for clarification would be focused on. In this approach, as Hutchinson and Waters (1987, p. 92) note, the syllabus is not the "prime generator" of the course design. Instead, the material in the form of texts or taped dialogues is used as the basis for establishing the skills and strategies that are taught in order to help students exploit the communicative event.

4.2.1.3 Process/Method-Based Syllabuses

Process/method-based syllabuses are as Robinson (1991, p. 35) points out "means-driven". This is where Hutchinson and Waters' learning-centered approach would be located (as well as Widdowsons' far right end of the ESP-EGP continuum). In other sources this approach to course design is variably referred to as a task-based or communicative approach. For the purposes here, I will refer to it as a task-based approach. In this approach, as Nunan (1989) points out, the focus in on process, not product and, correspondingly, on meaning, not form. The underlying assumption is that language competence (or Widdowsons' "capacity") is developed "*through* action and interaction, *not as a result* of the interaction" (Breen, 1989, cited in Graves, 2000, pp.

46-47). At the extreme end of the process-based approach, as mentioned earlier, content and course outcomes are not predetermined in a syllabus, but rather negotiated between teachers and students and based on how students perceive their needs (Robinson, 1991). Examples of tasks could be designing a brochure or planning a party and deciding what to buy at the supermarket. Some tasks, as Graves (2000) points out, are ends in themselves, which approximate tasks completed in the real world, while others are more specific to the classroom—information gap activities are examples of the latter, while role plays and simulations of the former.

Robinson (1991, pp. 39-40) comments that the task-based approach is "clearly significant for ESP, since the basic need of ESP students is that, using the medium of English, they should successfully perform a work or study task". Echoing Robinson, a general consensus appears to exist that the process/method-based or task-based syllabus is the most appropriate for ESP (see Coffey, 1984; Hutchinson and Waters, 1987; Johnson, 1982; Jordan, 1997; Littlewood, 1981; Morrow, 1981; Phillips, 1981) and is the one I will adopt here for my course design.

According to Jordan (1997) Hutchinson and Waters' learning-centered approach is one among three types of syllabuses found under the process/method-based course design approach (the process approach and the procedural/task-based approach being the other two which I have merged here without making Jordan's distinctions). To conclude my discussion here on syllabus design, I will examine Hutchinson and Waters' comments on the role of syllabus design in relation to methodological considerations as these are pertinent to my own course design and serve as a bridge to the next section on methodology at the application level.

In the learning-centered approach, methodological considerations are given priority, as Hutchinson and Waters (1987, p. 92) write: "Methodology cannot be just grafted on to the end of an existing selection of syllabus items and texts: It must be considered right from the start". While placing language issues as the primary concern in course design provides a clear-cut syllabus appealing to the eyes of authorities and course sponsors, this approach restricts the ability to integrate methodological considerations within course design. To give these concerns their proper place, the authors continue: "The syllabus must be used in a more dynamic way in order to enable methodological considerations such as interest, enjoyment, learner involvement, to influence the content of the entire course design" (p. 92). This can be achieved, as they most importantly recommend, by starting out with a general syllabus (instead of a detailed analysis of

language features), outlining relevant *topics* and *communicative tasks* of the target situation. These are then used to select texts, exercises and activities. In this manner, they conclude,

> Instead of using the syllabus as the initial and once-in-for-all determiner of the content, of materials and methodology, syllabus and materials evolve together each being able to inform the other. In this way the syllabus is used creatively as a generator of good and relevant learning activities rather than as just a statement of language content which restricts and impoverished methodology. (p. 93)

In conclusion, while a learning-centered or communicative approach (also referred to, as seen above, as method/process-based or task-based approaches) may be most appropriate for ESP, Robinson (1991), as well as Hutchinson and Waters (1987), conclude that the selection of an appropriate syllabus is not clear cut. Instead, in answer to the question of which syllabus to select, they provide the following quote by Swan (1985): "The real issue is not which syllabus to put first: it is how to integrate eight or so syllabuses . . . into a sensible teaching programme" (as cited in Robinson, 1991, p. 41). This means that whatever approach or syllabus we decide on as the principal basis for our course design, strands of the others will inevitably have to be interwoven in order to present a coherent course design. Today this position is most clearly reflected in the eclectic approach that practitioners take.

Having considered one of the major factors involved in course design, I will now proceed to examine the remaining ones. These include methodology, material and assessment.

4.2.2 Methodology

Assuming one agrees that a task-based, method/process-based, communicative or learning-centered approach is the most appropriate for ESP, the next step is to examine how this approach can be expressed in methodological principles, as well as in practice. Jordan (1997, pp. 109-110), for example, proposes merging four principles set out by Phillips (1981) and nine principles by Hutchinson and Waters (1987, 1988) as the basis for an appropriate methodology in ESP. I will mention these here now beginning with the four principles of Phillips first. These are

1. *reality control*, meaning that the tasks to be accomplished need to be appropriate to the student's specific purpose and simplified whenever deemed necessary;
2. *nontriviality*, meaning that students must perceive the learning tasks as relevant to their specific purpose; and

3. *authenticity*, meaning that the language students acquire must reflect the language of their special purpose;
4. *tolerance* of errors, meaning that errors in content or form should only be considered errors when communication results inadequate.

To these four learning principles can be added the following nine principles by Hutchinson and Waters (1987, pp. 128-130), which state that language learning

1. is a cognitive process,
2. is an active process,
3. is a decision-making process,
4. is not only a question of linguistic knowledge,
5. is not the learners' first experience with language,
6. is an emotional experience,
7. is not systematic, but largely incidental, and
8. needs must be taken into account at every step of the learning process.

To these principles can be added a number of principles of communicative methodology proposed by Morrow (1981, as cited in Jordan, 1997, p. 111), which state that

1. at the end of a lesson learners should be able to see clearly that they are able to do something they could not do at the beginning of the class and what they learned is communicatively useful;
2. activities should involve stretches of real language in real situations beyond the sentence level;
3. students learn by doing—that is, by being involved in activities.

Hutchinson and Waters (1987), Jordan (1997), and Robinson (1991) enumerate a number of techniques that reflect these practices and that can be carried out in the classroom. These are: gap activities (information gaps, media gaps, reasoning gaps, memory gaps, jigsaw gaps, opinion gaps and certainty gaps), getting students to predict, as well as providing variety, enjoyment, an integrated methodology, coherence, preparation, involvement, creativity and a learning friendly atmosphere. To these can be added, as the authors continue, techniques that promote positive emotions aimed at minimizing the effects of stress that students naturally encounter in the learning process. Examples of such techniques are using pair and group work to build social support; giving students sufficient time to think and respond; placing less stress on the right

answer and more on the learning process itself; acknowledging attitudes as much as aptitudes and abilities; and finally, promoting interest, fun and variety as a fundamental basis for material selection and classroom activities. Additional techniques appropriate for a task-based approach, as elaborated by Robinson (1991) and Jordan (1997), are the use of case studies, role plays and simulations. Now that I have touched upon the issues of syllabus design and methodology, I will next turn to the issue of material design, selection or adaptation.

4.2.3 Material

At a certain point in designing a course it is necessary to convert the program into actual teaching materials. In doing so, there are three options available:

1. one can select from existing materials, which involves materials evaluation;
2. one can write one's own material, which involves materials development; or
3. one can modify existing material, which involves materials adaptation.

All three of these options entail advantages and disadvantages that are extensively addressed in the literature of ESP. Dudley-Evans and St. John (1998), Hutchinson and Waters (1987), Jordan (1997) and Richards (1991), for example, provide excellent guidelines for accomplishing each of these options.

Within the field of ESP there exists a dispute over the issue of whether to develop or not develop one's own material. While Hutchinson and Waters (1987, p. 106), for example, claim that "materials writing is one of the most characteristic features of ESP in practice", and that "in contrast to general English teaching, a large amount of the ESP teacher's time may well be taken up writing materials", the authors nevertheless recommend that this activity should be taken up only as a "last resort" (p. 126). Dudley-Evans and St. John (1998), on the other hand, claim that it is a "myth" that ESP teachers have to write their own materials. Furthermore, they hold that this myth implies yet the other myth "that every ESP teacher is also a good designer of course materials" (pp. 172-173). They dispute this legend as well, claiming that few teachers are capable of writing good material. Instead they propose that "what all ESP practitioners have to be is good providers of materials" (p. 173). However, Block (1991, as cited in Jordan, 1997, p. 260) takes a completely different position, maintaining that ESP teachers should write their own material to assure more relevancy, interest, timeliness and a "personal touch". Finally, Robinson (1991), discussing the advantages and disadvantages of producing in-house materials, comments that the latter is advantageous especially for short one-off courses. On the other hand, Robinson

(1991) and Jordan (1997) note that one of the main disadvantages to producing in-house materials, as the other authors note as well, is that the process is extremely time consuming (up to 10 to 15 hours per one hour of class time) and that very often, for a lack of time, the materials are not creatively exploited with interesting and authentic tasks. The options beyond writing one's own material are selecting from existing material and/or modifying this material. Dudley-Evans and St. John (1998, p. 173) provide the following recommendations for this process:

1. "Select appropriately from what is available;
2. be creative with what is available;
3. modify activities to suit learners' needs; and
4. supplement by providing extra activities (and extra input)."

4.2.4 Assessment

The next step is to design instruments to assess student learning. First, I provide a discussion of the role and purposes of assessment. This is followed by an examination of the types of assessment measures used in ESP. In separate sections I then discuss learner assessment, criteria used for designing assessment measures, and course assessment.

4.2.4.1 The Role and Purpose of Assessment in ESP

Up until the 1990s the area of evaluation in ESP was largely neglected for three reasons: because of the shortness of many courses and their "one-off nature", the amount of time needed to prepare and give evaluations, and the lack of a felt need (Dudley-Evans & St. John, 1998; Robinson, 1991). However, as concerns for the cost-effectiveness of courses became an issue, so did the need for evaluation become more urgent (Robinson, 1991). Hutchinson and Waters (1987, p. 144) argue that assessment is paramount to ESP because ESP has "specified objectives" and thus is "accountable teaching", meaning that students and sponsors "want to see a return on their investment of time and/or money". In fact, as they note, it is more important in ESP than in other language courses because "ESP is concerned with the ability to perform particular communicative tasks. The facility to assess proficiency is, therefore, central to the whole concept of ESP" (p. 144). And, finally they conclude that "in addition to its 'political' aspects, course evaluation, at its best, is an indispensable part of a learning-centred approach in ESP" (p. 155).

More specifically, evaluations serve various purposes. As already indicated above, they serve as a form of accountability or quality control. Furthermore, through assessments students are

given a sense of achievement and teachers receive feedback on their teaching. Finally, assessments raise the awareness about aspects of course design: The appropriateness of course goals and objectives, course content, the needs analysis, course organization, the materials and methods, and finally, about the learning and assessment plan itself (Graves, 2000).

4.2.4.2 Types of Assessment

Graves (2000, p. 208) outlines three basic kinds of assessments and associated questions. They are:

1. An ongoing assessment of *student needs*, answering the question: "What (and how) do students need to learn with respect to _____? (also referred to as formative assessment);
2. An assessment of *student learning*, answering the question: "What have students learned with respect to_____? (also referred to as summative assessment); and
3. An assessment of the *course itself*, answering the question: "How effective is/was the course in helping students learn_____?".

Below I will consider the first two types of assessment together as there is considerable overlap between them. This will be followed by an examination of three different ways tests can be referenced; e.g. either by norm, criterion or the individual student. The discussion of assessment will conclude with an examination of course evaluation.

4.2.4.3 Learner Assessment

Within the literature of ESP, as well as ELT, there is a general agreement in the terminology used to distinguish different types of learner assessments. These are placement tests, diagnostic tests, progress tests, achievement tests, and proficiency tests (Brown, 2001; Dudley-Evans & St. John, 1998; Graves, 2000; Hutchinson & Waters, 1987; Jordan, 1997; Richards, 2001; Robinson, 1991). I will now provide a brief description of each. This will be followed up with a discussion of performance-based testing and the problems associated with designing criteria.

1. Placement tests are conducted at the beginning of the course in order to see what learners are able to do with the language. Generally, the test contains a sampling of the material included in the course itself. This type of test performs three basic functions: One, it serves as a *proficiency* test to assess the students' ability to handle the demands of a particular course and thus place the student in an appropriate level; two, it serves a *diagnostic* function to see where the students' proficiency level lies in terms of the target

situation (thus serving as part of a PSA); and three, it has a *formative* function, providing the course designer with information needed for the overall design of the course, its level and material used (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987).

2. Diagnostic tests can be conducted before as well as during the course to assess what students can do in relation to a specific skill, task or content. For example, it can be applied before a new unit to asses what students can already do. This information serves the teacher as a guide in an ongoing assessment of learner needs in relation to course goals and objectives, as well as materials.
3. Progress tests are applied during the course as a periodic measure to assess what has been learned in terms of the material taught. The test results help the teacher identify areas of problems and give students motivation by helping them set short-term goals. This type of testing—either formal or informal, is part of the *formative* evaluation process, telling "how well students are doing", "what they still need to work on" and "how well the course is meeting their needs" (Graves, 2000, p. 2008).
4. Achievement tests area a *summative* form of assessment conducted at the end of a unit or course and are used to asses what has been taught and learned, and/or to assign a final grade, as well as provide an indication about overall student achievement and effectiveness of the course.
5. Proficiency tests tap into the global competence of the language learner and are not limited to a particular course curriculum or skill. They measure, for example, the students' ability to cope within a certain program of study and at times they may also be used as placement tests. Proficiency examinations generally are public examinations administered by testing organizations, as are, for example, the TOEFL and IELTS examinations.

4.2.4.4 Different Ways Assessments can be Referenced

Broadly speaking, there are three types of tests: Norm-referenced, criterion-referenced, and individual-referenced (Robinson, 1991; Ur, 1991). Norm-referenced tests provide scores on the relative rank of a student in relation to other test-takers in the same group, and are used in general purpose English and in achievement tests. Criterion-referenced tests, on the other hand, measure how well students perform in relation to specific criterion. And individual-referenced tests measure how well students perform relative their own previous performance. Robinson (1991) argues that in ESP it is performance, rather than relative ranking, that needs to be tested: As the

author writes, “The ESP challenge derives from the fact that the ESP student has a definite target, namely performance in a study or work situation”; therefore, it is necessary to know “how near a student is to achieving adequate performance” (p. 73). Thus, the best way to measure performance is through criterion, which would, under ideal circumstances, involve testing performance in a real-life situation. As this is normally not possible, in classroom practice this means conducting “simulated real-life performance” (Robinson, p. 74). The challenge with this type of testing for teachers, as both Graves (2000) and Robinson (1991) point out, is to determine which criteria should be selected for judging if performance is adequate. Neither author provides any guidelines on how to do so (Robinson mentions that this belongs to the area of experts in the field of study of the students), but both mention that once the criteria are selected, it is imperative, for the sake of fairness, to make sure students know and understand, as well as learn how to meet, the criteria selected.

4.2.4.5 Course Assessment

While student assessment provides a wealth of information on how well a course is progressing, explicit course evaluation is also recommendable in order to avoid possible misunderstandings or even student hostilities. The overall aim is to assess if the students’ learning and language needs are being met by the course. These evaluations can be conducted in the form of questionnaires, interviews or informal chats. Hutchinson and Waters (1987) recommend that these be conducted the first week of the course, then during regular intervals thereafter, and at the end of the course. Ideally, a final evaluation should be conducted some time after the course has been received.

To sum up this section, student assessments and course evaluations are an integral part of ESP as its very origin is based on satisfying student needs. Thus, “evaluation helps to assess how well the needs that have created the demand for a course are being served” (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987, p. 156).

Having completed the above examination, the next step is to provide some examples of how the above course design factors have been applied in situations similar to the one I am proposing. This will then be followed by a presentation of my course design for teaching a vocational level ESP course in the area of hotel and tourism.

4.3 Application of Course Design Principles to my Project

ESP generally begins with an analysis of needs responding to the questions of WHAT, HOW AND WHO the course is given to, as well as to WHY, WHERE AND WHEN. As presented in the first part of this chapter, answers to these questions provide the basis for course design which is the topic of this chapter. Now that I have touched upon the issue of course design in general in section 4.2., it is necessary to expand this examination to the particular course I am proposing here in order to examine how the course will be designed at a practical level while keeping in mind the theoretical considerations addressed in chapter 3 and in the methodological considerations examined in the beginning of this chapter. Added to this, I have found it necessary to include descriptions of how other similar ESP courses were implemented because my course proposal lies somewhat outside the general guidelines for course applications provided in the mainstream ESP literature that I have referenced throughout this thesis (i.e. Hutchinson and Waters, Dudley-Evans & St. John, Jordan, Robinson, etc.). At the level of application these sources generally provide examples of course design within an academic context or business English context where students have at least an intermediate level of English. While English for Vocational Purposes (EVP) is considered part of ESP, in my research of mainstream ESP literature (as already noted in chapter 3) I did not encounter many concrete references in terms of course design for this particular context (e.g. EVP) and no references at all concerning ESP course design for students who have no basis in English. As a result, as mentioned above, I will include references to three authors (Garcia, 2002; Gordon, 2002; Noden, 2002) who describe EVP courses (also referred to as workplace English) given within an ESL context for beginning students. More specifically, I will mention the issues they address concerning methodology, materials and assessments. In regard to the selection, adaptation and/or design of material I will also refer to two additional sources that describe the issue of materials in hotel and tourism schools—one in Portugal (Magennis, 2002), the other in Cuba (Machin, 2004).

I will begin this section with a description of a needs analysis I conducted at hotels in and around the area of Chinandega, Nicaragua. Following this, I expand on this initial analysis by discussing the need for an additional needs analysis if the course were ever given. This additional needs analysis would serve not only to initially elicit personal information about the learners, their language level, target situation needs and their learning needs, but some sections would also serve as the basis for an ongoing needs analysis applied at intervals throughout the course. In

addition, a conceptual framework for the analysis of constraints (means analysis) will be provided in this section. Following the needs analyses, I will discuss methodological issues. First, I will examine what others have done in similar learning situations and then I will outline my principal methodological considerations for the course I will be designing. This examination will then be followed by an outline of the general course goals. Finally, a discussion of material selection, adaptation and/or design, and of assessments will complete this chapter. Again, in these two last sections comments will be made about experiences others have had in similar contexts, followed by my own ideas on the material and assessments designs in my course proposal.

4.3.1 Needs Analysis

This section will begin with a summary of the findings of an analysis of English language needs at hotels in Chinandega, Nicaragua. As this is only a preliminary analysis, an examination of possible additional needs analyses will follow . Finally, to conclude this section, the issue of constraints is addressed

4.3.1.1 Preliminary Needs Analysis

In 2005, I conducted a survey at eight hotels in and around the Chinandega, Nicaragua area looking for answers to the following questions:

1. Is there a need for English?
2. If there is a need, in what areas of the hotel is the need highest?
3. Is the need for English being met by the existing staff members?
4. Have staff members received English language training sponsored by the employer, and if so, was it effective?
5. What future English language training, if any, would the hotels be willing to provide and what are the constraints in doing so?

I obtained this information through personal interviews with hotel managers, using a prepared questionnaire which was filled out by me (see Appendix 1.1). A summary of the information obtained for each of the five questions follows:

Question 1-- Is there a need for English? Of the eight hotels visited, only five indicated that there is a need for English. Of these five, two reported that English is needed less than 10 % of the time, one around 20%, and the remaining two hotels reported that English is needed between

30 to 50% of the time during the months of June, July and August, which is considered the "tourist season."

Question 2—If there is a need, in what areas of the hotel is the need highest? English is most needed in the area of the reception desk, administration and the bar and restaurant. All indicated that it would be desirable for the housekeepers and bellhops to know some English, but they did not consider it essential, except in one of the hotels where the staff members rotate work functions.

Question 3—Is the need for English being met by the existing staff members? In only two hotels did staff in administration and reception know English—from basic to fluent. In all hotels, except one did at least one staff member have a basic level of English in the bar and restaurant area. The remaining staff did not know any English. Only one hotel had English as a requirement for its receptionists.

Question 4—Have staff members received English language training sponsored by the employer, and if so, was it effective? Of the five hotels, only two had received employer sponsored training, one funded by INATEC and the other through a private one-time grant. The other hotel, the most prestigious in the city, reported having received one 30-hour training course (over a period of three weeks, 10 hours per week) two years before the interview. Staff members from the bar and reception area, as well as the bellhops, received this training all together. The manager interviewed indicated that the course was a success because it gave the staff members the security and confidence to try and use whatever English they already knew or acquired during the training. No other training had been provided since then. The remaining hotels had not provided training because they are two small to qualify for training under INATEC and cannot assume such a cost themselves. One of the managers reported that he was offered to participate in an English course (referred to as "Inglés Tecnico") for hotel managers funded by INTUR but could not attend as the training was given during working hours over a period of two weeks.

Question 5—What future English language training, if any, would the hotels be willing to provide and what are the constraints in doing so? Through personal communications I learned that one of the American owners of the hotel has been giving the language courses to the students. The next biggest hotel indicated that it would be interested in having more training, but does not believe that there are any appropriate training possibilities available the area. However, should such training be available, they would prefer the staff members to receive courses more

focused on their specific areas of need (i.e. the area of reception, bar and restaurant separately) and only for those employees who already have a basis in English. The hotel would pay for such training, but would prefer it to be conducted outside the hotel facility and during the free time of the employees. The remaining three hotels commented that time and money constraints would make it difficult to provide language training, but that they could contribute 50% to the cost of the course. Again, they also would prefer that the courses be held outside the facility and during the free time of the staff.

In conclusion, the situation for English training of hotel staff members in Chinandega is currently a difficult one due to a number of constraints. The small hotels do not have the economic resources to pay for such training, which would be quite costly as the number of employees per group would be too low to make it cost effective for a private language school to charge their normal rates (as they require groups of at least 10 to 15 students to generate a profit). In addition, due to the nature of the work schedules at hotels—staff members work on different shift rotations, which varying days off—it would be very difficult for a language program to unite staff members from a number of hotels to form larger groups.

In light of these constraints, it may not be until there is a major expansion of tourism in the Chinandega area that future training possibilities for smaller hotels may become more feasible. Thus, it may not be possible to carry out the course design I am proposing here at this particular time in Chinandega. One area of need for English that I did not specifically address in this analysis, but which has come to my attention in the meantime, is the possible need for English in the various bars, restaurants and discos. Quite often waiters who work in such establishments, especially in the bigger ones, do not work on a shift basis and have the mornings free.

4.3.1.2 Ongoing Needs Analyses

I consider the preceding needs analysis as only a preliminary analysis. Once an actual course were given, the initial needs analysis would have to be extended to include a more in depth analysis of the students' actual language capabilities and their learning needs. As mentioned earlier in section 4.2, it is customary to apply an initial placement test to evaluate the students' language proficiency. In the case of the type of course I am proposing I believe it would not be appropriate to apply a written placement test, considering that the majority of students will be beginners. From my own seven-year experience of teaching general English to adults in the Chinandega area, while the majority have had some form of formal English instruction in high

school and some also possibly at private language schools, with few exceptions their oral skills are low to non existent, the exception being teenage or young adult students (under30) of a middle or upper-middle class background, or students who have spent time working in the United States. In addition, some employees working at hotels and restaurants may lack sufficient formal education in their own language. I would therefore consider it inappropriate to take the risk of alienating beginning level students even before starting a course. Instead, I would conduct oral interviews not only to establish their level of English language proficiency, but also to obtain information about their job tasks as well as their language and learning needs (see Appendix 1.2, for an example of such a combined language proficiency, target needs and learning needs analysis, which I will refer to as "Student Profile"). To establish the students' English language proficiency I would, for example, in the section soliciting personal information begin by asking the questions in English, that is, if the student indicates having some knowledge of English. If they have English language proficiency, I would note down up to what point the student could answer the questions and at what level of proficiency. Once the student no longer understands the questions, I would switch to Spanish. Conducting oral interviews would also assure that the student understands the questions. For example, when inquiring if a student would feel comfortable doing role plays, the interviewer can explain what is involved in such an activity. Finally, portions of the needs analysis would need to be applied on an ongoing basis to check back again about the students' initial responses. Using the example of role plays again, if students had never participated in role plays, their initial answers would be based on suppositions. However, once they participated in a role play, they would be more able to evaluate the process. In addition, for students who are beginners having little or no formal English language instruction, initial questions about learning needs and attitudes toward the language would have to be elicited again periodically throughout the duration of the course either informally on a whole class basis as well as individually.

In addition to the target situation analysis and student profile, what may also assist in assessing needs is to be clear about how constraints impact student learning. In the following, I present an organizational framework for an analysis of constraints that can impact the learning situation. Many of the elements included in the other analyses mentioned above are included, but from the perspective of internal and external constraints.

4.3.1.3 A Model for Considering Constraints

In a previous paper, I proposed examining constraints by posing the following question: What are the internal and external constraints blocking the learning process? In other words, if one assumes that all students are capable of learning a foreign or second language based on the fact that they were able to learn their first language (meaning they have no mental impairments) and considering that many students actually do *not* achieve this goal, then one must question what prevents the acquisition of a new language. For the purposes here it will be argued that those factors which prevent or block learning *are* the constraints within the learning situation. These constraints can be *external* to the student—those which the student cannot control, or *internal*—which students have the capability of controlling and using as resources to achieve learning when, all things being equal, external constraints have been lowered to a minimum. In the Appendix 1.3, I present a framework, which I proposed in a previous assignment, for the analysis of external and internal constraints which I believe is useful to consult not only during the initial course design process, which would principally concern an analysis of external constraints, but also throughout the implementation of the course design as the teacher becomes familiar with the individual students and possible internal constraints that may be affecting their learning.

4.3.2 Methodology

This section will begin with a review of other courses similar in nature to the one I am proposing. Following this review, I discuss methodological concerns as they relate to my course proposal and conclude this section with an examination of the application of my methodological considerations in practice.

4.3.2.1 Review of the Literature

In light of the average profile of the students—beginners with possibly low educational backgrounds, low self-esteem and a distrust of schooling, and external constraints—long working hours, little time to practice and possibly a short duration of the course are all important factors that need to be taken into consideration at every point in the course design, as well as during the course. Gordon (2002) and Garcia (2002), teaching English to factory workers, and Noden (2002) to cleaning staff for a home-cleaning service (all three in the United States) addressed similar issues when designing their courses. While the target situations differ from the one I am proposing and their students were already immersed in the culture, thus having more exposure to English on a daily basis and more experience trying to communicate in a foreign language, their

learning needs were, I believe, much the same as the students I propose to teach in the hotel and tourism industry in Chinandega, Nicaragua. More specifically, these authors confirm a number of methodological considerations I propose in this particular course design and ones which I have also in part implemented in practice with adult (as well as teenage) beginners in private general English courses during the last two years.

Before listing the major methodological considerations and their practical application in classroom activities proposed by the aforementioned authors, I will briefly examine some more general commentary made by them. Garcia (2002, p. 149), for example, notes that the low educational level of their students fueled "a lack of interest in and distrust of, and a fear of any type of schooling". This, together with long working hours and little time to practice outside the classroom, all require, as the author concludes "a combination of creative approaches . . . [to] begin to interest learning to any great degree". Gordon (2002, p. 155) comments very similarly that teaching students with "a distrust of school, a fear of embarrassment when speaking English and little motivation to learn or to use any English that directly related to improving wages offers a special challenge to ESP teachers". In facing this challenge, as Gordon emphasizes, it is necessary to be clear that a low educational level does not imply a corresponding lack of intelligence. Instead, it implies that teachers must select and apply the appropriate methodology in order to face this challenge successfully. At the practical and methodological level Gordon, as well as Garcia and Noden, all applied similar approaches: They used realia, flashcards (using digital photos taken at the work site, in the case of Gordon's course) and symbolic drawings to teach vocabulary and job tasks. For literacy learners Noden applied the picture-word approach.

In terms of teaching grammar, Garcia (2002, p. 169) comments that the grammar translation approach and structural syllabus models were not appropriate as the students "did not view language as comprising discrete categories of words ". Instead, a communicative approach was applied, using a notional-functional approach, content- and task-based instruction and realia. Similarly, Noden (2002, p. 195) comments that in terms of grammar instruction "grammar was integrated in the lesson via a whole language approach . . . through exposure to dialogues".

Furthermore, Garcia (2002, pp. 168-169) notes that in order to combat low interest and low self-esteem participatory classroom techniques were applied with the goal of making students "take an active role in their own learning", thus changing the role of teachers from "problem solvers" to "problem posers". As problem posers the teachers used "Freirian techniques . . . to

build students' capacities to identify causes of and possible solutions to communicative problems in the workplace". In practice this involved using role plays and dialogues enabling students to "identify communication problems and gaps in abilities". The aim of this approach was "for students to feel comfortable discussing what they needed to learn so that teachers could design lessons that addressed those needs". Gordon (2002, p. 159), just as Garcia, comments that "workers should participate in defining what they need to learn" and that "adults need some control over what they will learn". At the course design level this involved including worker participation in an ongoing needs analysis and having workers instruct each other. Sharing and helping others learn, rather than competing, was an integral part of their course, which, according to Gordon, helped to increase the self-esteem of the students. At the methodological level Gordon, as did Garcia, included pair and group work, pantomime and role plays acting out problems, and student-designed videotaped segments of role plays portraying problems and situations encountered in the workplace. In addition, Noden encouraged more literate students to also keep a journal noting down questions and describing problematic situations. Finally, Noden also used a Learning Experience Approach (LEA) having students describe what they had done in certain situations and using these as the basis for designing dialogues. Another technique used both by Gordon and Garcia to assist language acquisition and lower anxiety levels was Total Physical Response (TPR). Finally, additional practical ideas at the classroom level in Gordon's course were frequent reviews and the recycling of material (for newly entering students and in consideration that most students did not study or review at home) and assuring that something new was included in every class.

On a final note, in terms of selecting teachers, Garcia (2002) comments that it was difficult for the program to find experienced workplace teachers who could meet all of these multiple challenges. To overcome this problem, they employed teacher's aides to deal especially with multilevel classes. In the final analysis, however, Garcia notes that one of the major characteristics required of the teachers was that they were "sympathetic toward students who were tired and slow to learn after a day's work" (p. 165).

4.3.2.2 Application to my Course Design

To avoid the danger of becoming merely a "training approach" in the sense of Widdowson, or a "phrase book" course that follows a content/product or language-based syllabus, I propose using a methods-based or learning-centered approach where the method *is* the syllabus. This

implies that it is not possible to lock the course into the usual pre-set syllabus where it is predetermined, even before the course begins, what content will be covered on what day within the course. While such an approach is, I believe, more often than not inappropriate for any type of course or student, it is even less so for the type of course and students I am proposing to teach in this particular course. In the course design I am proposing it is not even possible, considering the context and level of the students, to predetermine, as Hutchinson and Waters (1987) propose, preset topics and tasks to any large extent. As I envision my course design, not only the content and topics (or situations, see below), but also the tasks will be determined by the needs of the students during the process of the course. That is not to say, however, that there is no planning concerning a general notion of content in terms of the language, situations, functions and notions involved at least at the beginning of the course. Instead, what can be determined—and even this may be open to change depending on the students' needs—is the methodology which in turn will shape the type of tasks (information gap, role plays, etc.) to be completed in class, as well as the way the material will be designed and how the evaluations will be conducted. As a result, it is not possible to present here a syllabus in the conventional sense. What I propose instead is what I will term a developmental syllabus. That is, I will set out in linear form the anticipated language acquisition stages through which the students would progress, depending on their initial level, and what possible types of tasks could be completed and methodologies used at the various stages. And even this approach has its dangers as it presupposes that learning proceeds in a linear fashion. However, I believe it is possible to presuppose that students with a certain level of exposure to the language over a certain period of time will progress, developing certain skills, abilities and an overall relationship to the language which in turn will prepare them to be able to handle progressively more complex tasks in terms of their language development.

In the development of the method I propose here and its application in classroom activities I rely heavily on the work of Krashen (1981), Krashen and Terrell (1983), and Asher (2003). In chapter 3 I only mentioned these sources in passing without giving details because their work is not mentioned much, if at all, in the ESP literature when examining antecedents in ELT. This I believe is in part because the supposition (mostly unstated, with the exception of Dudley-Evans and St. John, 1998, p. 5 who maintain that ESP is "generally designed for intermediate or advanced students") in ESP is that the students have a sound basis in English before beginning ESP courses. Nevertheless, as I am proposing to work with beginners and I do not find more

conventional ELT methodologies (as described in chapter 3) appropriate, I will base my methodology on a combination of the work of Krashen, Terrell and Asher with methodological precepts of ESP, especially those of Hutchinson and Waters.

I have reached the above conclusions not only on the basis of my research in ESP, but also on the basis of my own personal experiences as a teacher and language learner. In reference to the latter, I grew up bilingually, learning German at age five, and thereafter I learned French quite successfully in high school through the Direct Method and studied Spanish at the university in the United States quite unsuccessfully through the grammar-translation method, the negative results of which were not undone until I became immersed in the language in Mexico. As a language teacher, I have taught English for eleven years and with each year of teaching I have become ever more convinced that conventional methods of teaching are not very effective. Thus, the combination of my prior teaching experience (to include teaching beginners in Greece without knowing the students' language), my course work in this masters program in ESP together with reading the work of Krashen, Terrell and Asher at the same time, have led me over the last two years to change my own classroom teaching. This change has come about especially with the methodology that I have been using with groups of beginning students that I have been teaching privately. As I have not had the constraints of textbooks and pre-set programs with these groups, I have been able to partially experiment with the methodology I am proposing to use here in this thesis. It is partial because the context is general English and not English tailored to the specific work needs of students. This experience has been very fruitful and I feel much more comfortable with what I am doing in the classroom than ever before. More specifically, I have noted advances in my students confidence and fluency that I had not been able to see in other teaching contexts. In part this may be so because I am working with beginners, but I have found that I have also started successfully applying many of the methodological principles with more advanced students that I teach at other language schools.

At the practical level, for conceptualizing the different developmental stages of the students' language acquisition (or course levels in more conventional terms) I will use the stages identified in the work of Krashen and Terrell (1983) and Brauer (1995) in the Natural Way Approach as a guide. These are broken down into four stages with a delineation of expected student behavior and teaching strategies:

1. Pre-productive Stage: At this stage students are not considered ready to speak (going through a "silent period") and thus show comprehension nonverbally. At this stage the teacher uses realia, flashcards and other visual stimuli (for example videotaped segments of student mime/role play), body language and gestures to illustrate meaning. The teacher gives the students instructions to perform simple tasks that they complete, such as touching, pointing, drawing or acting to show understanding, and establishing eye contact to indicate that communication is taking place. In addition, the teacher provides oral input making sure to speak slowly and clearly. While students respond mostly nonverbally, they can include occasional verbal responses in the form of a word, short phrase or singing the chorus line in a song. Students who are more advanced can, aside from responding verbally to the teacher, reinforce their learning by teaching others.
2. Early Production Stage: Here students listen and respond with one-word answers or short memorized phrases. In addition, students can initiate conversation by pointing and using single words and should be able to respond nonverbally to a larger range of communicative input. In terms of teaching strategies, in addition to following the strategies from the previous stage, especially when introducing new vocabulary and contexts, the teacher asks yes/no and Wh-questions to which students respond nonverbally or with a word, such as *yes, no, thank you, follow me*, etc. Yes/no questions can be classified as: Descriptive (*Is the towel on the floor?*), predictable (*Do you make the bed after sweeping?*), generalizations (*Do guests usually leave a tip?*) and choice questions (*Do you first ask for the name or the telephone number?*). Wh-questions are asked in such a way that they can be answered with one word (*Where is the towel? When is the check-out time? What time is breakfast served? Who usually sets the table? Whose pen is this? Which dish do you prefer, the chicken or the beef?).* The sequence of the questions would be from easier to more complex—from the easier descriptive yes/no questions to the more difficult wh-questions.
3. Speech Emergence Stage. At this stage, students begin to speak in short phrases and simple sentences, at times initiating the communication. The students will still make many mistakes, but this should be seen as part of the learning process. In conversing with the student the teacher uses frequent rephrasing and questioning in order to help students contextualize their communication. The teacher continues to use the same strategies of the

two earlier phases, introducing more vocabulary and elaborating on the communicative situations through role plays. At this stage students will have developed more confidence in their ability to communicate their ideas in English. As they become more relaxed and confident, they can begin to focus not only on what they are saying, but also on how they are saying it.

4. Developing Fluency Stage. Here students are able to communicate more completely without as much reliance on concrete contextual clues (for example, using the telephone) as the students already have developed sufficient vocabulary and concepts to base new learning. Thus, new vocabulary, concepts and language are introduced as in earlier phases, but the process should proceed at a more accelerated pace. At this stage, critical questions using why and how can be asked.

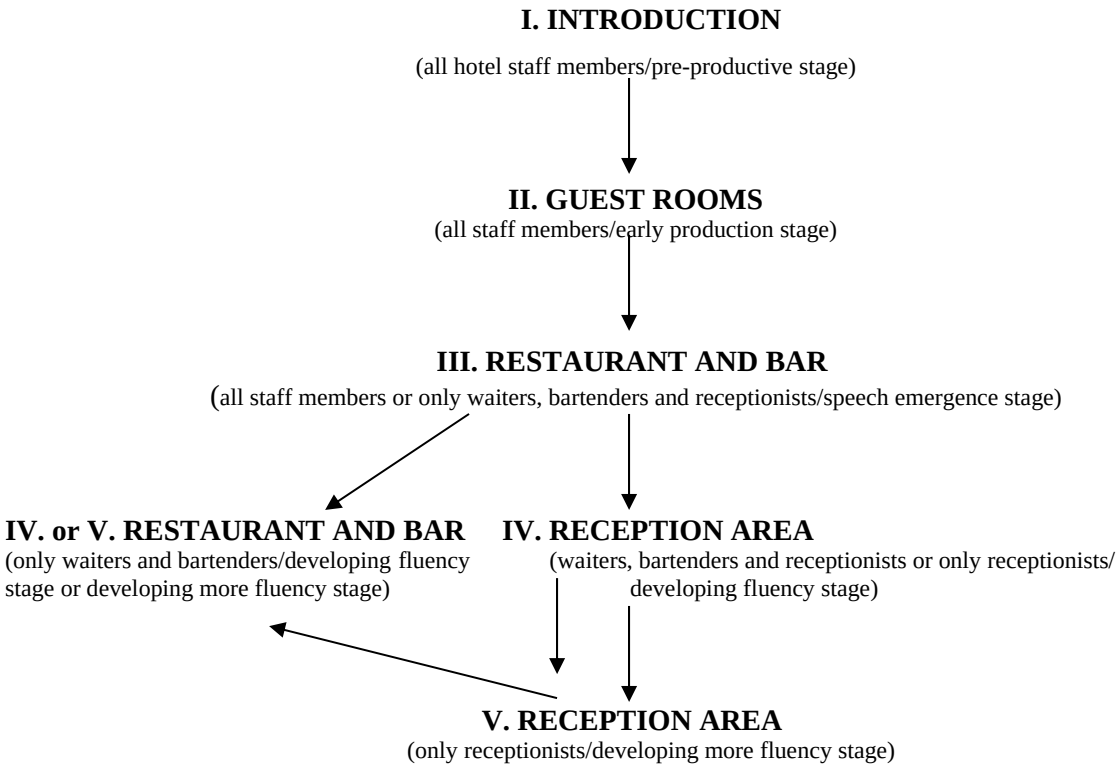
It is now necessary to place the above outlined stages within the context of the students' work environment. That is, flashcards, realia, role plays and simulations need to be placed within a situational context, which is this case is the context of a hotel and its different areas (the reception area, guestrooms, restaurant and bar area).[3] Thus, the situational context would provide the basis for the language content (vocabulary, structures), communicative functions, tasks, skills and strategies. In the planning process, decisions also have to be made about which context to begin with. For the purposes of this course design, I have decided that it would be best to begin with the situational context of the guestrooms as this is a more concrete learning situation—the vocabulary is limited and the communicative needs are more straightforward. In addition, even if, for example, the hotel decided not to include housekeepers in the training, the vocabulary is in any event probably necessary for other staff members, such as, for example, receptionists who often receive calls for room service. Furthermore, if the hotel decided to provide training for the housekeepers, it would be possible to have them participate only in the first two levels of the course (the introduction and first level). The level of communication needed in the situational context of the guestrooms would roughly correspond to the early production stage (after the initial introductory level corresponding to the pre-production stage) of language acquisition.

[3] While Hutchinson and Waters (1987) advise using topics as the overall organizing principle, I have found this not possible within this particular ESP context, with the possible exception of the are of the restaurant where the topic of food and food preparation could be taken up, or in the area of reception it could be possible to take up the topic of tourist sites in Nicaragua, for example.

The next situational context would be the restaurant and bar area. Here, more communication is required and this would roughly correspond to the next stage, the speech emergence stage. Here staff members from the reception area could participate with the waiters and bar tenders expanding their vocabulary and giving them time to develop more fluency and confidence before expanding on the communicative needs of the reception area which are more complex. Should the course continue to another level, restaurant and bar staff could either stop their language course at this stage, continue to the next level (the situational context of the reception area) or continue with an additional level within their context. That is, as I have planned this course, the vocabulary and structures in the restaurant and bar area would be quite general, not involving detailed vocabulary about food, beverages and their preparations. Should the hotel, however, want the staff to expand on these topics, then these staff members, instead of proceeding to the reception area, could receive an additional level dedicated exclusively to the waiters and bar tenders. This level would roughly correspond to the fourth stage, the developing fluency stage.

The final and last situational context would be the reception area. Here the students should be ready to communicate with less reliance on concrete contextual clues. As noted earlier, in this area the communication required is more complex requiring more fluency. In addition, the reception area is more strategically important to the hotel than other areas as the reception area is normally the first to make contact with the guests, either by phone or in person. Ideally, language training in this area, depending on the needs and resources of the hotel, would need to be expanded to include more classroom hours. Generally, staff members in this area will have a higher level of educations, if not a university degree, and will have had formal English language instruction. This means that they should be able to advance more rapidly. Nevertheless, from my teaching experience, students with this background still require going through the earlier stages because their knowledge of English is primarily passive, that is, they can read and translate, but do not have many oral skills and thus lack confidence. The difference between these and other students is that they can progress through the initial stages more rapidly. Should they be included in the course from the beginning, they can reinforce their learning by helping others by giving commands, pairing up with weaker students and simply speaking more.

The levels and corresponding language acquisition stages within the course as I envision it could be diagrammed as follows:



As my course proposal is not based on an actual existing course that I am giving or have been contracted to give, I do not have more information on the needs and language levels of the students, nor do I have information from the employer about the length of the course or the number of hours per week. In light of this, I have designed my proposal based on the following presuppositions:

- All students are beginners.
- All staff members from the different areas of the hotel will participate.
- All students can receive four hours of classroom instruction per week.
- The course will last 180 hours (approximately one year) and will be divided into the four levels:

    Level 1 Introduction (20 hours)

    Level 2 Guest Rooms (40 hours)

    Level 3 Bar and Restaurant (60 hours)

    Level 4 Reception (60 hours)

This is obviously an ideal situation that probably would not exist in reality. I have estimated the number of hours (180-200) based on my own experience with students and my interpretation

of the Council of Europe's (2001) framework concerning the number of classroom hours needed for students to move from an (A1) or ALTE Breakthrough Level to an (A2) or ALTE Level 1 Waystage User, or what could be more generally termed from a beginning to early intermediate level, and in the terms I am using, from a pre-productive to an early production stage. While in the European system it is assumed that students will also have developed corresponding reading and writing skills at an early intermediate level, the focus of my course will be more focused on listening and speaking skills as these are the principal needs of students in this professional/vocational area. That is not to say that I would not include the written word—I would certainly introduce some reading and writing, beginning with vocabulary words and expanding to sentences in dialogues and songs.

4.3.2.3 Application of the Methodology at the Practice Level in the Classroom: Reconsiderations of an Original Course Design

In an original course design which I elaborated for a class project, I included a story telling element upon completion of the first twenty hours of the course (that is, after the introductory level). This involved the introduction of short anecdotal humorous job-related stories (vignettes) possibly with the accompaniment of someone playing an instrument to accent the development of the plot through music. I have decided to include this description here as I have not discarded the ideas completely; I just do not believe that I have enough practical experience in implementing storytelling at this moment. In addition there are some other considerations which have led me to modify my approach which I will outline after providing some details on this original course design.

In the original design, comical vignettes would be initially made up by the teacher and subsequently by the students themselves. As originally envisioned, work with the vignettes would proceed as follows:

First, the teacher presents a short humorous episode involving some incident with hotel guests—for example, a mix-up with the baggage, or confusion with the meal order. The teacher initially presents the story through words, mimes, gestures and realia to the accompaniment of music to accent the actions with different rhythms, loudness, etc. as for example, the musical accompaniment in silent movies. Next, the teacher asks questions to ensure comprehension. These questions are about the who, what, where, when, why and how of the actions. Then after the students appear to understand the story sufficiently, the teacher becomes a stage director by

working with the students on the scripts they will need to act out. This practice could involve substitution drills (for example: *Waiter, please. I'd like a glass of cold water, please*) as well as practice with different possible versions of the same lines (for example: *Could you please bring me a glass of cold water*). Work could also be done on types of delivery, changing the speed of delivery, tone and volume as well as mood (for example, angry, relaxed, tired, etc.). Finally, as the students learn and practice the lines, roles are assigned and students act out the story. All students eventually play all the different roles. In addition, student presentations could be video taped at various stages for students to see their progress and also to auto-assess their performance.

The pedagogical reasons for the approach of using humorous vignettes are the following: First, the stories could serve as a basis for introducing and naturally recycling basic grammar structures—subjects, verb tenses, subject-verb agreements, question formation, and for reviewing vocabulary. The rationale for doing this is that such recycling provides the students with more authentic language than in traditional methods which often adapt dialogues or texts not according to meaning, but according to the grammar points or functions being focused on in a particular unit. In my opinion this latter practice often produces boring, inauthentic sounding texts and dialogues. In addition, continual reinforcement the way I envisioned it with the vignettes/stories would avoid the situation, often encountered when using a textbook, where certain grammar structures are introduced in one unit and then not seen again until much later, or at times, not until the next level a long time removed from the original introduction.

Second, the rationale for using interesting and comical anecdotal stories is the following: Laughter releases brain chemicals that promote focusing and a release of tension, lowering inhibitions and in turn heightening comprehension and learning. Also, using stories relevant to the particular work situation of the students should raise the level of student interest and thus motivation to continue learning. Finally, telling meaningful and humorous stories should help break down the barrier between teacher a students, thus creating a less threatening and more humane classroom environment, inducing more learning as well.

While I am still convinced of the soundness of my original ideas, I have for practical and strategic reasons decided not to include the story telling element in my current course design. The reasons for doing so are, first because humor is a very delicate issue and quite culture bound. What may be humorous to one person or in one culture as a whole may be offensive to others.

Similarly, students may be sensitive to humorous depictions of their work, considering them an insult rather than a vehicle for their language learning. Thus, while I still believe that the idea of using humor has pedagogic worth, I think it would be better to initiate these after getting to know the students better. And, preferably it would be the students themselves who would develop them.

Second, while the forgoing consideration or hesitation in implementing humor is I believe valid, my major reason for not including stories here (the stories could, after all, be "serious" instead) is that I lack the knowledge and experience on how best to approach storytelling and dramatization in the classroom. I have made attempts at doing so in my classes, but have not been satisfied with the process. Thus, before I would introduce storytelling I would need to conduct more research in this area, possibly examining work done in TPR storytelling (TPRS) (for example, McKay, 2004), as well as the use of dramatization in the classroom (for example, DiNapoli, 2003). Upon completing this research, I would need to experiment with it before being able to build this element into any course design.

As a possible intermediary step, before developing TPRS, drama and humorous vignettes, I have decided instead to include a more conventional element in the course design I am presenting here and that is the use of video for didactic purposes. More specifically, what I propose is to have students mime work processes and communicative situations that they encounter with hotel guests on a daily basis and video tape these. My reasons for including this element in my course design are the following: First, I have had the opportunity to experiment with videotaping students in my general English classes and have found that not only do the students enjoy it, but I have been able to develop ways of exploiting their acting for didactic purposes. Second, for a course in ESP, having students act out their daily work and communicative situations serves in part as a needs analysis, providing the course designer with authentic material from which to elaborate course content. Finally, it may be at this point that humorous situations created by the employees/students themselves may evolve. Eventually, students could assume roles—of for example a disgruntled guest—leading to dramatization. Possible activities for using the student generated video scenes are the following (ideas adapted from Ocón, 2001, for exploiting commercially-made videos):

1. As the video segment is showing (with the volume turned off), the teacher can provide a running narrative describing what is happening—for example: *At the moment, X is making the beds. Now X is emptying the wastebaskets. X does this every morning.*
2. The teacher can freeze the camera and begin asking questions—for example: *Is X making the bed or dusting the furniture? Is Y cleaning the sink? No? OK, then, What is Y doing?*
3. One student sits facing the screen and the other facing away asks questions in order to guess which video segment is being played. This would be after a number of video had been shown.
4. The same as in number three, but this time the student watching describes what the person in the video is doing or did.
5. The teacher freezes the video and asks the students what will happen next.
6. The teacher could focus on the acting students' body language and facial expressions to elicit the possible meaning of these. When filming, students could be instructed to do their actions portraying a certain mood, thus making students aware of the context cues they can derive from non-verbal communication.
7. With segments portraying various students acting, work could be done on lines for dialogues, which would then subsequently be re-filmed with the students saying their line.
8. In video segments in which the students are conversing, a number of other activities could be performed:
    a. The lines students say in the video could be given to the students and they could speak along with the video (termed "tracking" by Murphy, 2003, p. 119) as they are watching or they could repeat them chorally.
    b. The video could be frozen and the students could be prompted to anticipate the upcoming lines.

As work like this is being developed, video segments from movies (preferably in situations in hotels or resort areas serious, as well as humorous ones[4]) could also be eventually integrated for the purposes of modeling authentic language as well as acting techniques.

[4] For example, from the French comedian Jacques Tati, or segments from the humorous British bed and breakfast series *Fawlty Towers*, or scenes from the British comedian Mr. Bean.

4.3.2.4 Use of L1

Another methodological consideration to address here is the use of the student's native language in the classroom (L1). While in the past I was what could be called quite dogmatic in my insistence on not using the students' L1 in the classroom (based primarily on my initial teaching experiences when I taught without knowing the students' language, in Greece and in Mexico), I have become much more flexible and actually see some value in using the students' L1. Thus, I suggest using the students' L1 under the following circumstances: To talk about learning strategies and methodological considerations; to organize activities that would be too time-consuming to explain in English, thus avoiding losing valuable class-time; to describe my own difficulties and embarrassments while learning Spanish, thus breaking down the barrier between teacher and students and creating an environment of understanding; to discuss cultural issues; and to talk to students individually if/when they are experiencing problems.

Based on all the methodological assumptions discussed above, I will now turn to the specification of the course goals and objectives. Following this, I will discuss materials evaluation, assessments and, in the final section, the procedures I followed to design the course syllabus.

4.3.3 General Course Goals

Following the general language development stages discussed in the above section, the general goals of this course per level are described below. It should be kept in mind that these stages are fluid and will vary from learning situation to learning situation and from student to student—that is, when introducing new vocabulary, regardless of the level, teaching strategies and expected student responses will correspond more to lower levels until the students have acquired the new vocabulary and structures and can use them more independently. Also, some students will progress more rapidly than others and should not be held back. Instead, they should be allowed to begin developing dialogues and helping other students.

Level 1: Introduction (Pre-production state)

> By the end of this level students will have developed the ability to listen and respond non-verbally or with one-word answers and short phrases to oral input in the form of commands.

Level 2: The Guest Room (Early Production Stage)

By the end of this level students will have developed the ability to listen and respond non-verbally and verbally with one-word answers and short memorized phrases to oral input in the form of commands and questions.

Level 3: The Bar and Restaurant Area (Speech Emergence Stage)

By the end of this level students will have developed the ability to speak using short phrases, and simple sentences in response to commands, questions and while acting in role plays. In addition, they will initiate communication at times as well as ask simple questions with the correct intonation though not necessarily the correct word order or use of auxiliary words.

Level 4: The Reception Area (Developing Fluency Stage)

By the end of this level students will have developed the ability to communicate more completely without as much reliance on concrete contextual clues and will initiate a larger percentage of the communication.

Beyond these general goals, I have developed a series of more specific goals and objectives to be found in Appendix 2.1 to 2.5. Following Graves (2000, p. 75), I consider these goals to be the "main purposes" and "intended outcomes" or, using a metaphor of a journey, the destination, while the objectives describe "how the goals will be achieved" (p. 76), which in terms of a journey would be the points passed through while heading toward the destination. It should also be noted, that in formulating these goals and objectives I have relied on a framework, described in Graves (2000, p. 84) that is given the acronyms A TASK, where A=Awareness, T=Teacher, A=Attitude, S=Skill and K=Knowledge.[5]

The originator of this framework, as quoted in Graves, comments that he decided on the term "Task" because the word itself "'connotates something done on an ongoing and as-needed basis'", that is, tasks "'are done regularly and routinely and require modification and adaptation to fit the needs of the situation'" (Graves, 2000, p. 84). Thus, goals and objectives conceived in this manner, have the "'same dynamic and flexible sense'" of a task in the common sense of the word. I have mentioned this here in order to emphasize that the goals and objectives detailed in the appendix are just a rough guide that would require adjustment and changes once the course would be given.

[5] This is a modification of the KASA framework Developed by the Department of Language Teacher Education at the School for International Training in Brattleboro, Vermont, USA (Graves, 2000, p. 83).

4.3.4 Material

This section will begin with a review of the literature concerning the use and development of material in courses similar to my own. This will then be followed by a discussion of how I propose to develop material for my course design.

4.3.4.1 Review of the Literature

In my review of the literature concerning appropriate material for teaching in the hotel and tourism industry (Magennis, 2002; Machin, 2004), as well as for teaching workplace English in general for beginners (Garcia, 2002; Gordon, 2002; Noden, 2002) there seems to be a general consensus that few appropriate textbooks exist.

1. Texts for hotel and tourism programs. Magennis (2002, p. 57), writing about an English for Tourism Professionals (ETP) program at the university level in Portugal, observes that the "professional literature has not adequately defined or addressed the topic of ESP in the tourism industry, nor have many English language programs and materials been created for this area.". As a result, as Magennis continues, "the program gradually moved from dependence on inadequate published textbooks to developing and using 'homegrown' material that was more closely attuned to the specific needs of this particular group of tourism students".

Similarly, Machin (2004, paragraphs 2-5), writing about the development of an ESP program for hotel receptionists at the Escuelas de Hotelería y Turismo in Cuba (the article does not indicate at what academic level, nor how long the program is), notes that the school eventually developed its own didactic material in order to better meet the needs of its students. The school, however, reached this point only after having passed through various stages: In the first stage general English texts were used. However, it was soon found that these only met about 50 to 60 percent of the actual communication needs of the students. In addition, while these texts are designed for long-term language programs, the levels at the hotel school were much shorter, meaning that the teachers had the arduous work of selecting from, adapting and supplementing the existing texts without breaking the logical sequence and pedagogic organization of the principal texts used. In the second stage, hotel and tourism texts appearing in the international market were adopted. This, however, was also not satisfactory as conditions and the contexts in the hotel industry in Cuba are, as the author indicates, in many respects quite different from those described in published texts. In the final stage, the school set about reviewing the literature on course design in ESP and on the basis of this conducted extensive needs analyses and designed its

own curriculum and materials to meet the specific needs of its students. And lastly, after its initial implementation, the whole program was reevaluated in order to design the final syllabus.

To the above commentary I would like to add that when I searched for appropriate material for a training course proposal at a local hotel (as mentioned in chapter 2), I was equally unable to find one principal text that could have served my purposes for that particular context. Of the possible texts available through textbook publishers here in Nicaragua (at that time publishers here in Nicaragua were Longman, Oxford and McGraw-Hill) I identified three to four possible texts (listed below). However, had I proceeded in implementing the course, I would have had the same problems described by Machin (2004) as the general workplace English text (*Workplace Plus*, Saslow & Collins, 2002) is developed for ESL students addressing issues that are not applicable to this particular context (for example, applying for a job, looking for an apartment). In addition, each level in the series is programmed for a minimum of 90 classroom hours, which is much longer than most training courses at a hotel would last, without even touching on the specific needs in the students' context. The texts of English for tourism available at the time in Nicaragua (Stott & Buckingham, 2003; Stott & Revell, 2004; Grebel & Pogrund, 1997a, 1997b), on the other hand, while addressing the students' context, are at too high a level for beginners and in some cases even for students with some basis in English as I learned in a personal communication with a teaching staff member at the tourism department at the UNAN León.

2. Texts for beginning students in the workplace. While Garcia (2002), Gordon (2002) and Noden (2002) do not talk about teaching in the area of hotel and tourism, their commentary on material selection and design is relevant as they are working with beginning level students in a workplace environment. Similar to the previous examples given, Garcia (2002, pp. 169-170) notes that "few work related ESL textbooks exist for beginners". And, while the teaching organization ordered all workplace literacy and ESL course books available at that time, Garcia observes that teachers used these "mainly for introductory purposes but found customized materials provided the best practice"(p. 169). Gordon and Noden, on the other hand, do not mention the use of published texts at all. Instead, just as Garcia, they developed their own material using flashcards, realia, digital photos, video segments of student role plays. For the students they provided in-house booklets and handouts (Gordon), as well as in-house produced picture dictionaries (Noden).

4.3.4.2 Application to my Course Design

In my course I propose to work with in-house produced material. More specifically, following Gordon (2002, p. 158) I would take digital photos of vocabulary items and reproduce them in three different sizes: Large for flashcards to use in whole class presentations, medium as picture cards to use for pair and group work and small for worksheets and picture dictionaries. Following Noden, I would produce a picture dictionary containing pictures of all the vocabulary learned. In addition, I would use a video camera to record student role plays and acting for purposes of classroom teaching (for example, to describe and ask about what students are doing or did and, if the segment taped is mime to work out possible dialogues) and feedback (for students to evaluate themselves and to see advances over time).

4.3.5 Assessment

In this section I review the literature on how assessment is conducted in courses similar to my own. This is followed by a description of types of possible assessment measures that could be applied in the course I am proposing.

4.3.5.1 Review of the Literature

Of the literature reviewed, only Noden (2002, p. 199) comments on the issue of assessments. The author notes that testing beginning level students was a “challenge”. Written exams were applied to all students, and while the unit test results for intermediate students were good, those for beginners and literacy learners were inconclusive. The author notes that for these latter students one-on-one oral exams would have been ideal, but logistically not possible because this procedure, in their case, was initially considered too costly and time-consuming. Instead, ongoing (formative) evaluations in which students demonstrated their skills through, for example, TPR activities were conducted. In their second year, however, outside consultants were brought in to conduct five-minute oral tests with a few written questions. While this was not ideal, as Noden (2002, p. 199) observes, “these methods were much more effective than written tests administered to the whole group”.

4.3.5.2 Application to my Course Design

Following the example of Noden, ongoing formative evaluations (see Appendix 3.5, 3.6 and 3.7), formal evaluations (see Appendix 4.2.4.4) and course evaluations (see Appendix 3.8) will need to be applied throughout the course. Evaluations would be criterion- referenced (see

Appendix 3.5 and 3.7 for examples of criteria for oral language scoring) and individual-referenced, that is based on the progress the student makes in reference to his or her previous performance. I would also set time aside to provide individual feedback on student progress.

The end of each level would conclude with a more formal exam involving listening—at level one, paper and pencil test with pictures that students have to check off depending on the oral input; at level two this would be supplemented with matching pictures and words; and levels four and five could include having students writing by filling in cloze passages, depending on the students overall literacy level in their native language. In addition to a short paper and pencil test, I would conduct individual oral testing: At level one, this would involve following commands, using mimes and gestures to show understanding and possibly providing one-word responses; at level two, this would be supplemented with one-word answers to questions and short memorized phrases; at levels three and four oral responses would be longer and students would be expected to respond with fewer context cues. A sample exam for Level II is contained in the elaboration of the teaching unit found in the appendix (see Appendix 4.2.4.4).

In addition to the formative and formal assessments, evaluations of the course itself would be conducted on an ongoing basis. Initially these would be conducted on a weekly basis, and thereafter twice a month and finally at the end of each level and at the end of the program. An examples of a possible course evaluation can be found in the Appendix 3.8.

4.3.6 Procedures Used to Develop the Syllabus

To avoid rigid sequencing and to emphasize that it is the method and accompanying tasks together with topics (largely determined by the needs of the students) that will guide the course, I used the following procedures in developing my syllabus: First, as already mentioned in point 4.3.2.2, I determined the possible areas of the hotel that could serve as my general topics and came up with the following areas: The guestrooms, the restaurant and bar area and the reception area. Next, as noted earlier as well, I decided that after an introductory level, the course will proceed with the area of the guestrooms as the amount of speaking in this are is limited, which corresponds well with the language learning stage (early speech production) of beginning level students. Second, I brainstormed all the possible vocabulary (nouns, verbs, and adjectives, consulting with Redman and Shaw, 1999; McCarthy and O'Deel, 2000, 2002; Parnwell, 1988), as well as social language and language functions, associated with the areas (see an example for the area of the guestrooms in Appendix 4.2.3. It should be noted here, however, that the categories

of social language and functions are not much elaborated at this point. Instead, they would be expanded upon once the actual communication needs of the students are known. Third, I studied all the details of this brainstorming in order to divide the course into identifiable sub-topics, the sequencing of which would appear in the course syllabus (see the syllabus for course level 2 in Appendix 4.2.2, in which I am elaborating the teaching unit). These sub-topics in turn serve as the units into which I eventually divided the course (for the purposes here I will elaborate topic/unit 2 as an example). Fourth, I brainstormed possible tasks, activities and assessments keeping the course goals and objectives in mind. Finally, for the elaboration of the teaching unit, I decided to include one additional example of the first hour of class in the introductory level (Level 1).

This concludes the application of methodological concerns reflected in the practice of the teaching unit I developed for this master's thesis project. The didactic unit I developed can be found in the appendices section. Next, I will complete my thesis with final concluding remarks in chapter 5.

5 Conclusion

One of the main objectives of this thesis was to establish the need for English for Specific Purposes in the hotel and tourism industry in Nicaragua in general and more specifically in the region of Chinandega. Through an examination of the occupational context it was established that English language skills are paramount for providing quality services, and thus economic viability, within this service industry, and that these skills can be best provided through on-the-job English language training. It was also established, through a needs analysis conducted at hotels in Chinandega and surrounding areas, that to date such training needs are not being met in this particular area of the country and it is assumed that similar conditions exist for the rest of the country as well.

The other objective of this thesis was to provide a course proposal to meet this established need. This was accomplished through an investigation of the theoretical background underlying general English language teaching and English for Specific Purposes, as well as through a review of the literature on course designs similar to the one I have proposed.. Based in this research it was concluded that an eclectic, learning-centered approach is best suited for the learning needs of students within the occupational context under consideration here. Taking these underlying theoretical principles into consideration, a potential design for a four level English training course for vocational English in the hotel industry was developed, including an example of a didactic unit.

Having met the above two objectives, a future task would be to implement the course design with the goal of evaluating its effectiveness in practice and on this basis making changes to the design. As the proposed course is learning-centered it is imperative to solicit student participation and feedback, for it is they after all who can best evaluate if what is being learned has helped them resolve communicative situations they were unable to resolve prior to the course. Students could thus comment not only on the appropriateness of the course design, but also suggest modifications and therewith provide invaluable observations to enrich the material. Such ongoing student feedback, together with the teacher's own observations and diagnostic evaluations, would serve as the basis for modifying and redefining the syllabus, methodology, material and assessment procedures, as well as the goals, objectives, and learning tasks. Finally, continuing research of the literature in language teaching would provide the balance between theory and practice, necessary for all practitioners in this field.

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Appendices (All entries are for Chapter 4)

1. Needs Analyses

1. 1. Preliminary Needs Analysis: Questionnaire Applied to Hotel Managers

PART I. Current use of English in the Hotel

1. What are the countries of origin of foreign guests (not including Spanish-speaking guests) who stay at your establishment? Check ( ) all those which apply.

   __ United States __ Canada __ England __ Australia

   __ South Africa __ Germany __ France __ Italy ___ Other: _____

2. Of the foreign non-Spanish speaking guests, which is the most common language these quests use to communicate? Check ( ) only one—the most common language used.

   __ English __ German __ French __ Italian __ Other _____

3. Of every 10 hotel guests, how many use English to communicate within an average week of hotel occupancy? Check ( ) one.

__ 0 of 10__ 1 of 10 __ 2 of 10 __ 3 of 10 __ 4 of 10 __ 5 of 10 __ 6 of 10 __ other

4. In which areas of the hotel is it most necessary to use English, and how does this communication take place? Check ( ) all those which apply?

HOTEL AREA	MODE OF COMMUNICATION		
	FACE TO FACE	TELEPHONE	WRITING
a. Reception			
b. Administrative Offices			
c. Bar and Restaurant			
d. Housekeeping			
e. Room Service			
f. Car Rental Service			
g. Tour Guide Service			
h. Gift Store			
i. Swimming pool area			
j. Marina			

5. In the hotel areas checked above in number 4, rank the frequency of use of English from 1 (most) to 5 (least). Write the letter of the hotel area next to the number.

   1. ___ 2. ___ 3. ___ 4. ___ 5. ___

PART II. Preparedness of Staff Members to use English

1. In the areas of the hotel where English is most needed, are your current staff members able to communicate effectively with English speaking guests? Check ( ) YES or NO next to the area.

HOTEL AREA	YES	NO
a. Reception		
b. Administrative Offices		
c. Bar and Restaurant		
d. Housekeeping		
e. Room Service		
f. Car Rental Service		
g. Tour Guide Service		
h. Gift Store		
i. Swimming pool area		
j. Marina		

2. Do you require any of the staff members in the areas listed above to have knowledge of English as a condition for employment? Check ( ) one. ___ Yes ___ No

3. If you checked "Yes" above, in what areas of the hotel do you require your staff to be able to communicate in English, at what level of proficiency and what language skills? Write the letter of the area under the column AREA and check ( ) the level of proficiency and language skills.

AREA	LEVEL OF PROFICIENCY			LANGUAGE SKILLS		
Write the letter from the area in no. 1 above	BASIC	INTERMEDIATE	ADVANCED	SPEAKING	READING	WRITING

4. If in the areas you marked in number 1 any of your current staff members are not able to communicate effectively, what actions do you take or have you taken in the past? Check ( ) all those which apply?

__ Do not take any corrective action
__ Move the staff member to another are of the hotel
__ Fire the staff member
__ Require the staff member to take English classes:
__ on their own account

__ paid for by the hotel:
__ through INATEC: ( ) classes outside the hotel or ( ) teacher comes to the hotel
__ private language school or teacher : ( ) classes outside the hotel
( ) teacher comes to the hotel

PART III. Evaluation of Past Language Training Hotel Staff Members Received

1. If you require or required any of your staff members to take English classes, in what areas do they work? Do/did you notice any improvement in their ability to communicate with guests in English after receiving English language training? Check ( ) the area where training is/was received and its effectiveness in the table below:

		IMPROVEMENT OF ENGLISH COMMUNICATION SKILLS OF STAFF MEMBERS AFTER RECEIVING TRAINING		
HOTEL AREA	REQUIRED TO TAKE CLASSES	SIGNIFICANT	MODERATE	NO DIFFERENCE
a. Reception				
b. Administrative Offices				
c. Bar and Restaurant				
d. Housekeeping				
e. Room Service				
f. Car Rental Service				
g. Tour Guide Service				
h. Gift Store				
i. Swimming pool area				
j. Marina				

2. How many hours of English language training did the staff members receive per week, and for how long?
   Number of hours received per week: _____
   Duration of the course: _____ (in terms of weeks, months, or years)

3. How many staff members were there per group? _____

4. Were staff members trained per work area (for example, were staff members from the reception desk trained together with staff members in housekeeping, the restaurant and bar, etc.)? Check ( ) one:

   ___ Yes How many different training courses did you have? _____
   What areas received training? _____
   (write the names of the hotel areas)

   ___ No What hotel areas were trained together? _____
   (write the names of the hotel areas)

5. Did staff members receive training during working hours?
   ___ Yes / When? _____
   ___ No / Then when? _____

6. What qualifications did the teacher have? Check ( ) one:

__ Bachelors __ Masters _____ (other, please specify)

7. Did the teacher have prior teaching experience? ___ Yes ___ No ___ I don't know

8. Did the teacher have prior teaching experience in the hotel industry?
___ Yes ___ No ___ I don't know

9. Was the teacher a native English speaker? ___ Yes ___ No ___ I don't know

10. Did the teacher/language program provide didactic materials? ___ Yes ___ No

11. If didactic material was provided, please indicate the nature of this material. Check all those which apply:
___ Pre-designed General English language textbook/material

___ Pre-designed English language textbook/material focused on hotel and tourism

___ Material was specifically designed by the teacher and or language program

12. How did you consider the cost of the English language course/program in light of its effectiveness?
Check ( ) one: ___ inexpensive ___ reasonable ___ expensive

13. Would you consider providing more English language training for you staff members?

___ Yes ___ with the same teacher/language program
___ a different teacher/language program

___ No

PART IV. Desire for Future English Language Training of Hotel Staff Members

1. If you would like your staff members to receive English language training, in what areas do these staff members work, and what level of proficiency should they acquire. Check ( ) the area where training is desired, and the level of proficiency needed:

		LEVEL OF PROFICIENCY NEEDED		
HOTEL AREA	TRAINING DESIRED	BASIC	INTERMEDIATE	ADVANCED
a. Reception				
b. Administrative Offices				
c. Bar and Restaurant				
d. Housekeeping				
e. Room Service				
f. Car Rental Service				
g. Tour Guide Service				
h. Gift Store				
i. Swimming pool area				
j. Marina				

2. How many hours of English language training could staff members receive per week, and for how long?
   Number of hours per week: _____
   Duration of the course: _____ (in terms of weeks, months, or years)

3. How many staff members would you like to have per group?
   Maximum: ___ Minimum: ___

4. Would you like staff members to be trained per individual hotel area (for example, staff members from the reception desk trained separately from staff members in housekeeping, the restaurant and bar, etc.)? Check ( ) one:

   ___Yes How many different hotel areas would you like to have trained? _____
   In what areas? _____
   (write the names of the hotel areas)

   ___No What hotel areas could be trained together? _____
   (write the names of the hotel areas)

5. Would staff members receive training during working hours?

   ___ Yes / When? _____

   ___ No / Then when? _____

6. Would you like the staff members to receive training at the hotel?

   ___ Yes

   ___ No / Then where? _____

7. What qualifications would you like the teacher to have? Check ( ) one:

   __ Bachelors __ Masters _____ Other (please specify)

8. Would it be important for the teacher to have prior teaching experience?

   ___ Yes ___ No

9. Would it be important for the teacher to have prior teaching experience in the hotel industry?

   ___ Yes ___ No

10. Would you like the teacher to be a native English speaker? ___ Yes ___ No

11. What preference would you have in terms of the didactic material used. Check all those which apply:

    ___ Pre-designed General English language textbook/material

    ___ Pre-designed English language textbook/material focused on hotel and tourism

    ___ Material was specifically designed by the teacher and or language program

12. How much would the hotel be willing to spend for English language training per staff member per hour of class received? C$ _____/ per staff member/ per hour of class received

1.2. Ongoing Needs Analyses: Student Profile

Language Proficiency, Job Tasks, Language and Learning Needs

If responded in English*:
Pronunciation
(+) 1 2 3 4 5 (-)
Fluency
(+) 1 2 3 4 5 (-)
Accuracy/Range of Vocab.
(+) 1 2 3 4 5 (-)
Loudness:____ Eye Contact: ___
*check next to number if spoken in English

A. Personal Background

( )*1. Name: _____

( ) 2. Address: _____

( ) 3. Telephone number(s): _____

( ) 4. Age: _____

( ) 5. Marital status: _____

( ) 6. Number of children: _____ and ages: _____

( ) 7. Educational level attained: _____

( ) 8. Experience living/working in other countries:

Country: _____ Duration: _____ Activity: _____

B. Work Related Questions

( ) 1. Current position/area: _____

( ) 2. Length of time in current position: _____

( ) 3. Previous work experience: _____

( ) 4. Number of work hours per week: _____ shifts: _____

( ) 5. Major job responsibilities/tasks: _____

_____

( ) 6. Prior work-related training: _____

( ) 7. Future employment/educational aspirations:

_____

_____

C. English Language Questions

( ) 1. Received formal English language training:
Year(s):_____ Duration: _____ Location: _____

( ) 2. Need to use English at work (TSA)
___ No
___ Yes: Frequency: _____

Mode: ( ) face-to-face ( ) telephone

Situation: _____

_____

( ) 3. Contact with English outside the classroom
___ No
___ Yes: ( ) interpersonal ( ) movies ( ) songs ( ) other: _____

( ) 4. Prior contact with people who do not speak Spanish

Location: _____ When: _____

Length of time: _____ Mode: _____

Content: _____

D. Attitudinal Questions [6]

( ) 1. To elicit information about attitudes toward foreign languages and their speakers in general and English in particular

a. I like to hear people speaking a foreign language.

Strongly Agree 1 2 3 4 5 Strongly Disagree

b. I like the sound of English.

Strongly Agree 1 2 3 4 5 Strongly Disagree

c. I like to try and communicate with foreigners to learn about them and their country and culture.

Strongly Agree 1 2 3 4 5 Strongly Disagree

[6] The objective is to tap into the level of tolerance toward non-Spanish speakers, was well as tolerance toward being in situations where communication is impaired through language barriers.

d. I think people who come here should try to speak Spanish and learn about the country and culture.

Strongly Agree 1 2 3 4 5 Strongly Disagree

e. When people are speaking a foreign language I feel uncomfortable.

Strongly Agree 1 2 3 4 5 Strongly Disagree

f. When a foreigner tries to communicate with me I try to end the encounter as fast as possible.

Strongly Agree 1 2 3 4 5 Strongly Disagree

g. I find it challenging to try and communicate with someone who speaks only a little or no Spanish.

Strongly Agree 1 2 3 4 5 Strongly Disagree

f. When I need to communicate with someone who doesn't speak Spanish, I use whatever means possible to make myself understood and to understand the other person.

Strongly Agree 1 2 3 4 5 Strongly Disagree

( ) 2. Attitudinal Questions about Self as Learner[7]

a. I feel uncomfortable when I don't know an answer or cannot respond correctly.

Strongly Agree 1 2 3 4 5 Strongly Disagree

b. I do not worry what others think of me. In whatever situation I am in, I say whatever I think and ask for whatever I need.

Strongly Agree 1 2 3 4 5 Strongly Disagree

a. I believe anyone can learn anything as long as they want to and try hard.

Strongly Agree 1 2 3 4 5 Strongly Disagree

d. It's just impossible for some people to learn something new at a certain age.

Strongly Agree 1 2 3 4 5 Strongly Disagree

[7] To elicit information regarding students' level of confidence and comfort making mistakes while expressing self

e. I feel confident in my ability to succeed in learning this language.

Strongly Agree 1 2 3 4 5 Strongly Disagree

f. I want to learn this language because of what I can personally gain from it.

Strongly Agree 1 2 3 4 5 Strongly Disagree

g. I am learning this language because someone else is requiring me to do so.

Strongly Agree 1 2 3 4 5 Strongly Disagree

E. Learning Preferences

( ) 1. I enjoy solving problems with others.

Strongly Agree 1 2 3 4 5 Strongly Disagree

( ) 2. I like to memorize things.

Strongly Agree 1 2 3 4 5 Strongly Disagree

( ) 3. I think I would enjoy role plays (acting out roles with others).

Strongly Agree 1 2 3 4 5 Strongly Disagree

( ) 4. I like to learn songs.

Strongly Agree 1 2 3 4 5 Strongly Disagree

( ) 5. The teacher should correct all my mistakes immediately.

Strongly Agree 1 2 3 4 5 Strongly Disagree

( ) 6. The teacher should let me know about my mistakes after I speak and in private.

Strongly Agree 1 2 3 4 5 Strongly Disagree

F. Personal Interests

( ) 1. Hobbies and special interests

_____

_____

( ) 2. When you have free time, what do you like to do?

_____

_____

G. Other Comments

_____

_____

1. 3. A Framework for Analyzing Learning Constraints[8]

External Constraints

Time Factors

- Time of day within the schedule of the students
- Intensity of the course (are the number of hours per week and total hours of the course compatible with the target situation needs and goals?)
- Types of activities the students engage in prior to the course (do students have a stressful and/or heavy workload?)
- Shift work or overtime requirements which do not allow the student to attend class regularly.
- Concurrent with need or pre-need (Hutchinson and Waters 1987: 63)

Physical Plant

- Appropriateness of: lighting, furniture, space, ventilation, control of outside noise, inside acoustics
- Location of the class (is it being given at the worksite or outside of it?)

Class Size

- Number of students per class room (is the number of students appropriate for the specified learning situation?)

Composition of Student Body

- Language levels (are the language levels of the students more or less the same or quite different; i.e. is it a mixed ability class?)
- Age, sex, religion, nationality, socioeconomic background of the students
- Group homogeneity (is the group homogeneous or heterogeneous in terms of the above factors of age, sex, religion, etc.?)

Externally Imposed Reasons for taking the course

- Is the course imposed by an institution or employer or taken because of a perceived need by the student, whether imposed or not?

[8] This title and some of the content has been adapted from Hutchinson and Waters (1987, pp. 62-62) "A framework for analyzing learning needs".

- Will the student receive a promotion or demotion depending on how well he or she does in the course?
- Have any of the above reasons for taking the course changed during the time the student is in the course?

Available Resources

- Availability of materials in terms of aids, realia, texts, audiovisuals and computers.
- Appropriateness of materials in terms of authenticity, student interest and fun.

Methodology

- Appropriateness of the methodology in terms of the learning task at hand.

Internal Constraints

Resentments

- Cultural. This would be concerning the students' attitudes toward the English language and/or English-speaking cultures.
- Situational. This could be seen as the students feeling imposed upon by either an institution or by an employer.
- Personal. In the case of an employer obliging an employee to take a course, if there is little or no financial incentive given for the efforts make, this may lead to a feeling of resentment on the part of the employee.

Learning Background

- Misconceptions about how a language is learned due to past learning experiences; for example, believing that a language is acquired through the grammar-translation method.
- Previous failure in school and/or in learning a foreign language.
- Concepts of what constitutes acceptable teacher/student roles and teaching techniques (which are culturally influenced as well).
- Educational level

Student Learning Style Preferences

- Visual, auditory, kinesthetic, tactile, group, individual

- Student personality traits concerning the student's need for achievement, aspirations, goal orientation, perseverance, and tolerance for ambiguity.[9]

Affective Filters[10]

- Motivation: which relates to the learner's drive (e.g. intrinsic motivation) to learn, understand and communicate. Motivational factors depend on both internal and external factors and can be blocked by these.
- Self-confidence and self-image. A self-confident student will take more risks and thus receive more practice and rewards in terms of a sense of accomplishment, which in turn feeds into the motivation to continue trying.
- Anxiety level. If students are tense or anxious for whatever internal or external reasons, this will affect their ability to learn.

[9] Adapted from Ur (1991, p. 275)
[10] Adapted from Krashen (1981, p. 32)

2. Goals and Objectives

2.1. Awareness Transfer Goals referring to how students transfer learning in the classroom to the work situation and beyond and how they become aware of their learning strategies.

Goal 1 By the end of the course, students will become aware that the purpose of the course is to assist them in their communication needs at work.

Objective1a Students will be able (SWBA) to describe communicative situations and problems occurring in their work for the purposes of troubleshooting and developing role plays and simulations in the classroom.

Goal 2 By the end of the course, students will become aware that learning a language is a cooperative endeavor not only between teacher and student, but also between student and student.

Objective 2a SWBA to assist each other, clarifying doubts, practicing with each other and testing each other.

Goal 3 By the end of the course, students will be aware of their ability to transfer their knowledge of vocabulary, structures, skills and strategies to communicative situations at work, as well as outside work.

Objective 3a SWBA to report about their successes, as well as problems they encounter in communicating at work.

Objective 3b SWBA to explore ways to practice English outside class and work, learning songs, watching TV/movies and talking to foreigners

2.2. Teacher Formulating these goals should help teachers realize the extent to which they need to be accountable for their teaching, their actions and relationship with their students.

Goal 1 I need to plan my classes with sufficient time in advance

Objective 1a I will plan the following class as soon as possible after giving the previous class while problems and issues are still fresh. I will review the day's plan before class to refresh my memory and make any last-minute changes.

Goal 2 I will try to avoid falling into the undesirable habit of always planning and giving my classes in the same manner.

Objective 2a I will review the internet and consult other sources (journals, colleagues) to get new ideas, tasks, methodologies and procedures for teaching.

Objective 2b I will think of new ways of creatively engaging my students in the material, trying to add new surprises (new twists) to familiar routines and make sure that I introduce new material and learning goals every class to challenge the students.

Goal 3 I will assure that each class is well balanced between teacher—student talk, active and passive learning, controlled and free practice and involving as many of the senses as possible—aural, visual, kinesthetic, touch, taste, smell, depending on the activity.

Objective 3a After completing the class plan, I will review it and make sure all elements are well balanced and make necessary adjustments.

Goal 4 I will assure that the goals and objectives are clear and achievable within the allotted time.

Objective 4a I will write clear and achievable goals and objectives for each class and communicate these to my students.

Goal 5 I will assure that students have a sense of accomplishment by the end of every class.

Objective 5a I will plan concrete tasks that are challenging, but that students can complete successfully within the class period in which they were presented.

Objective 5b I will provide students with the opportunity and time to reflect on and comment on their accomplishments, giving them lots of positive feedback.

Goal 6 I will assure there is continuity within the program

Objective 6a I will set aside class time to review previous lessons

Objective 6b I will include new material (5 minutes at most per class) that anticipates upcoming classes to "pre-familiarize" them with new vocabulary and structures and in this manner also keep their interest and curiosity going.

Objective 6c I will make sure to recycle and reintegrate previous learning with new learning contexts (spiraling)

Goal 7 I will request feedback from my students on my own teaching to assure their learning needs are being met.

Objective 7a I will provide student with the opportunity to evaluate the course on an ongoing basis—initially on a weekly basis, then bi-monthly, after finishing a level and at the end of the program.

Goal 8 I will attend to the affective needs of my students

Objective 11a I will be patient and comprehend that students may be tired, stressed and/or preoccupied with issues not relating directly to the class.

Objective 11b I will be sensitive to the overall mood of the class and adjust the class pace and activities accordingly.

Objective 11c I will resist the temptation to correct each and every mistake and will be sensitive to the individual needs of students arriving at a tacit agreement with each on how they would like to be corrected (if at all).

Goal 9 I will assure that I respect individual differences among students in terms of their pace of learning and needs

Objective 9a I will not push the slower learners too much expecting immediate non-verbal or verbal responses. Instead, I will provide them with many opportunities throughout to respond when they are ready to do so.

Objective 9b I will not inhibit or "dumb-down" faster learners by preventing them from acting upon or speaking before others have arrived at that point. Instead, I will let them respond and give them opportunities to lead class activities and help others individually.

Objective 9c I will not inhibit students from experimenting with new language learned in or outside the classroom even if it may not be very comprehensible or necessarily on task.

2.3. Attitude Affective Goals

Goal 1 By the end of the course, students will develop a positive attitude toward learning English and learning a foreign language in general.

Objective 1a SWBA to recognize that communicating in English can give them more job satisfaction, possible advancement and future career opportunities.

Objective 1b SWBA to experience a larger self-understanding and increased self-esteem as they take more and more risks expressing themselves in English

Objective 1c SWBA to put themselves in the shoes of non-Spanish speaking hotel guests and be empathetic when these try to communicate with them in Spanish.

2.4. Skills Proficiency Goals[11]

Goal 1 By the end of the course, students will have developed bottom-up[12] listening skills (reactive, intensive, and selective) to facilitate transactional communication[13] in the workplace

Objective 1a SWBA to discriminate intonation patters (rising and falling intonation) to distinguish between sentences, yes/no questions and wh-questions by listening to spoken utterances and checking columns for rising and falling intonation. (intensive listening)

Objective 1b SWBA to identify the sounds of phonemes in minimal pair activities by pointing to pictures representing the word that was said. (intensive listening)

Objective 1c SWBA to identify sounds of the letters of the alphabet, initially by pointing to them and later writing them down. (selective listening)

Objective 1d SWBA to identify the morphological endings of –ed and –s by making a non-verbal signal (clapping, for example) whenever they hear these in a dialogue or other speech acts. (selective listening)

Objective 1e SWBA to listen to longer stretches of spoken language and show recognition of words and understanding by matching words with pictures, following a command and identifying or checking off names, dates, times, etc. (reactive and selective listening)

Objective 1f SWBA to identify normal sentence order by completing missing words in a dialogue once reach more fluency. (selective listening)

Objective 1g SWBA to listen to and repeat sentences in chants, songs, and dialogues. (reactive listening)

Goal 2 By the end of the course, students will have developed top-down[14] listening skills (responsive, extensive, and interactive) to facilitate transactional communication in the workplace.

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[11] Based on Brown (2001), Richards (1983) and Clark and Clark (1977)

[12] Bottom-up processing focuses on "sounds, words, intonation, grammatical structure, and other components of spoken language" (Brown, 2001, p. 260)

[13] Transactional communication between speakers who are unfamiliar with each other and thus have low levels of shared knowledge will be the most prevalent speech situation students will engage in. In transactional communication the aim is to convey "propositional or factual information" in contrast with interpersonal communication where the aim is to promote "social relations" (Brown, 2001, p. 251)

[14] Top-down processing focuses on the "activation of schemata, with deriving meaning, with global understanding, and with interpretation" (Brown, 2001, p. 260).

Objective 2a SWBA to recognize that the same meaning can be expressed through different grammatical forms by listening to varying input and identifying the correct meaning (i.e., same or different meaning). (Responsive listening)
Objective 2b SWBA to discriminate between different emotional reactions (interested, confused, upset, surprised, etc.) by focusing on facial expressions, kinesics, body language and other nonverbal communication and identifying the emotion depicted in a picture or saying the word. (responsive listening)
Objective 2c SWBA to get the gist of a series of utterances that describe a picture and be able to select the correct picture. (Extensive listening)
Objective 2d SWBA to recognize the topic of a dialogue or conversation by deciding where it takes place or its topic. (Extensive listening)
Objective 2e SWBA to identify the objectives of the speaker by determining if the purpose is to request, persuade, inform, complain, conduct small talk, etc. (Extensive listening)

Goal 3 By the end of the course students will have developed interactive listening skills.
Objective 3a SWBA to build semantic networks listing to a word (category or concept) and brainstorming related words.
Objective 3b SWBA to recognize words by relating them to a category.
Objective 3c SWBA practice responsive listening by:
-Doing (responding physically to commands and instructions
-Choosing (picking up or circling the correct object, picture, etc.)
-Transferring (drawing a picture, filling out a form, arranging items in order)
-Answering (responding verbally to questions, comments, etc.)
-Modeling (repeating after a verbal model)
-Conversing (engaging in meaningful conversation)
Objective 3d SWBA to distinguish different registers by noting if the communication is formal or informal.

Goal 4 By the end of the course students will have developed a series of listing strategies to facilitate communication.
Objective 4a SWBA to listen effectively by focusing on key words, guessing meaning from context, appealing for help and signaling comprehension or lack thereof.

Speaking Skills As listening and speaking are interconnected, all the goals and objectives listed under listening skills are applicable to speaking as well.

Goal 1 By the end of the course students will have the ability to produce understandable spoken English.
Objective 1a SWBA to make sentences and questions by using appropriate intonation and word/sentence stress.
Objective 1b SWBA to say the letters of the alphabet and spell names out loud.
Objective 1c SWBA to pronounce English sufficiently well to be understood in most circumstances by practicing certain difficult sounds in isolation, and minimal pair practice.
Objective 1d SWBA use appropriate communicative functions, and register, as well as nonverbal language (facial features, body language, kinesics, etc.) to convey meaning.

Goal 2 By the end of the course students will have developed a series of speaking strategies to facilitate communication.

Objective 1a SWBA to communicate effectively by emphasizing key words, maintaining eye contact, using fillers to gain time to think (*hmm, I mean, let me think, etc.*), keeping a conversation going with cues (*aha, yes, right, etc.*), appealing for help from the person with whom he or she is speaking to get a word or phrase, getting someone's attention appropriately (*excuse me, please*), and using formulaic expressions at the basic/survival state (*can I help you; follow me please; how are you; have a nice day, etc.*)

Reading Skills

Goal 1 By the end of the course, students will have developed basic/minimal reading skills at the word and sentence level.

Objective 1a SWBA to identify vocabulary words by matching them to corresponding pictures.

Objective 1b SWBA to read commands and directions to complete a task.

Objective 1c SWBA to complete cloze exercises by selecting the appropriate word among various options.

Writing Skills

Goal 1 By the end of the course, students will have developed basic/minimal writing skills.

Objective 1a SWBA to listen to and write down names, addresses, and numbers appearing in passports, telephone numbers and addresses, asking for spelling if unsure how to write a word.

Objective 1b SWBA to write all basic vocabulary words, phrases and short dialogues.

2.5. Knowledge Cognitive Goals

Goal 1 By the end of the course, students will have become aware of the value of learning strategies and can use these to continue learning after the course ends.

Objective 1a SWBA to identify and describe listing and speaking strategies they use in and outside of the classroom.

Objective 1b SWBA to identify and practice strategies they can use after the course has ended by agreeing to continue practicing English with work colleagues, and brainstorming ways to continue learning outside work.

Goal 2 By the end of the course, students will have become aware of sociocultural differences.

Objective 2a SWBA to comment on and/or question about differences in cultural practices concerning gestures, punctuality, expectations of services, formality of spoken language, names, acceptable topics for small talk, physical distance between speakers, etc.

3. Assessment Measures[15]

3.1. Student Self-Assessment of Communication Strategies on Oral Language

Name: _____ Date: _____

Circle the answer that shows how often you do the following things.

When I have problems speaking in English, I:

1. Use my native language	Never	Seldom	Always
2. Ask for help	Never	Seldom	Always
3. Use gestures and facial expressions	Never	Seldom	Always
4. Avoid communication totally or partially	Never	Seldom	Always
5. Use a synonym or a description	Never	Seldom	Always
6. Make up new words	Never	Seldom	Always
7. Simplify what I want to say	Never	Seldom	Always

[15] Depending on the reading level of the students, these measures will have to be translated into Spanish. In addition, these evaluations will depend on what has been taught. Thus, what I am presenting here are just samples of what could be included. The format has been adapted from O'Malley, Valdez & Pierce (2001, figure 4.8)

3.2. Student Self-Assessment of Oral Language[16]

What I can do in English **Difficulty Level** (Write a number)

Key 1 = not very well
2 = a little
3 = good
4 = best

1. I can understand my teacher. ____
2. I can understand others when I work in groups. ____
3. I can understand hotel guests. _____
4. I try to maintain eye contact with communicating. _____
5. I pay attention to gestures and other nonverbal cues to guess meaning. _____
6. I listen for key words. _____
7. I can ask questions. _____
8. I can give short one-word responses. _____
9. I speak loud enough. _____
10. I can follow commands. _____

[16] Adapted from O'Malley, Valdez, & Pierce (2001, figure 4.6)

3.3. Self-Evaluation and Feedback on Activities[17]

Name: _____ **Date:** _____

Fill in the blanks about yourself:

1. The activity (ies) I found most worthwhile was/were:

   Check the ones that apply for you: **here place a list of activities completed)**

   What made them specifically worthwhile was? _____

2. The activity (ies) I found least worthwhile was/were:

   Check the ones that apply for you: **here place a list of activities completed)**

   What made them less worthwhile was _____

   To improve the activities I suggest _____

3. This week I learned[18] _____

4. My new words this week are[19] _____

4. This week I spoke English to _____

5. Next week I want to learn _____

6. Outside class I would like to try _____

7. During this week I became better at _____

8. What is still difficult for me is _____

9. What I want to improve is _____

10: Two new goals of mine for next week are (For example: feel confident when I speak/understand more of what I hear)

   I want to _____ _____

[17] Adapted from Lee (1998 reproducible page, Repro S2) and Graves (2000, p. 119, 230)
[18] If students are not writing yet, do orally or omit.
[19] If students are not writing yet, do orally or omit.

11. What I can do to reach the goals in number10 are: ? (for example: talk more in class/listen to English on TV)

I can try to _____ _____

3.4 Learning Style Preferences

Name: _____ **Date: _____**

Circle the number that applies most to you: Key: 1 = No; 2 = a little; 3 = good; 4 = Best

1.	I like to practice the sounds and pronunciation.	1 2 3 4
2.	I like the teacher to tell me all my mistakes.	1 2 3 4
3.	I like to learn by practicing dialogues.	1 2 3 4
4.	I like the teacher to explain everything to us.	1 2 3 4
5.	I like to learn many new words.	1 2 3 4
6.	I like to learn by watching, listening to native speakers.	1 2 3 4
7.	I like to learn English words by hearing them.	1 2 3 4
8.	I like to learn English words by following commands.	1 2 3 4
9.	I like to learn English words by seeing them in pictures.	1 2 3 4
10.	I like to learn English words by reading them.	1 2 3 4
11.	I like to learn English in small groups.	1 2 3 4
12.	I like to learn by working in pairs.	1 2 3 4
13.	I like to learn by working in small groups.	1 2 3 4
14.	I like to learn playing games.	1 2 3 4
15.	I like to learn through group competitions.	1 2 3 4
12.	I like to perform in role plays.	1 2 3 4
13.	I like to be video taped.	1 2 3 4
12.	I like to see myself on video as a way to correct myself.	1 2 3 4
13.	At home, I like to learn by watching TV in English.	1 2 3 4
14.	I like to write everything down.	1 2 3 4

3.5. Example of an Oral Performance Sheet[20]

Name: _____ **Date:** _____

Profile Sentence: Greet someone

Performance criteria (the student has **demonstrated** the ability to:)

___ Use appropriate forms of address

___ Use a range of greetings and responses

____ Recognize and convey relationship and attitude in a short encounter

Consistency

____ Demonstrate ability in at least three contexts with variables such as time, place, relationship

Examples of contexts

____ As member of a group, with colleagues, teachers, hotel guests

Examples of appropriate evidence

____ Oral demonstration

[20] Adapted from Brindley (2003, based on "Performance criteria for a proficiency exam" of the Royal Society of Arts, London, 1988, as cited in Nunan, 2003, p. 315)

3.6 Formative Assessment—Check List[21]

Name: _____ Class: _____ Date: _____

Key: 0 = Needs improvement
1 = Communicative/Satisfactory
2 = Good
3 = Very good

	Item	Date	Date	Date	Date
1.	Follows oral commands				
2.	Identifies vocabulary words by pointing, matching, touching, etc.				
3.	Responds with one word or short phrase				
4.	Responds to Yes/No, Choice, Wh-questions				
5.	Responds to Why and How questions				
6.	Maintains eye contact				
7.	Speaks loud enough				
8.	Asks for clarification in English				

[21] Adapted from Brindley (2003, based on a checklist to monitor learner's achievements of competencies in a workplace class given by the U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, 1985, as cited in Nunan, 2003, pp. 321-322.)

3.7. Scales for Rating Speaking[22]

Name: _____ **Date:** _____

Scale	(A) Pronunciation	(B) Presentation	(C) Content/Vocabulary[23]	(D) Fluency	(E) Structure/Accuracy
0	Fails to communicate	Fails to communicate	Fails to communicate	Fails to communicate	
1	Barely comprehensible	No eye contact; inaudible at time; uses some English	Some incomplete and/or inaccurate information; repetitive vocabulary	Repeats words and phrases	
2	Sometimes exhibits adequate pronunciation	Minimal eye contact; voice is monotone	Adequate information; little variety of vocabulary	Speaks in single word utterances and short patterns	Uses predominantly present tense verbs; demonstrates errors of omission (leaves words out, and word endings off)
3	Demonstrates correct pronunciation most of the time	Occasional eye contact; adequate voice tone and volume	Appropriate information and variety of vocabulary most of the time	Speaks hesitantly because of rephrasing and searching for words	Uses some complex sentences; begins to apply rules of grammar, but inconsistently and but lacks control of irregulars
4	consistently accurate pronunciation	Consistently makes eye contact; effective use of voice tone and volume	Precise, detailed, accurate information; wide variety of vocabulary	Speaks with occasional hesitation	Uses a variety of structures and applies rules of grammar with high level of consistency

Relative weight of each criterion: (A) = ____ % x ____ pts. = _____ weighted score
(B) = ____ % x ____ pts. = _____ weighted score
(C) = ____ % x ____ pts. = _____ weighted score
(D) = ____ % x ____ pts. = _____ weighted score
(E) = ____ % x ____ pts. = _____ weighted score

TOTAL SCORE: _____

[22] Adapted from Brindley (2003, as cited in Nunan, 2003, p. 325), Graves (2000, p. 230), and O'Malley, Valdez & Pierce (2001, figure 4.5).
[23] Refers to task fulfillment or overall communicative effectiveness (Brindley, 2003,as cited in Nunan, 2003, p. 325)

3.8. Evaluation of Course and Teacher[24]

Evaluate on a scale of 1 to 5: Strongly agree 1 2 3 4 5 Strongly disagree

The Teacher

1. Speaks loud enough. 1 2 3 4 5
2. Speaks slow enough to by understood most of the time. 1 2 3 4 5
3. Is always on time. 1 2 3 4 5
4. Is well prepared for class. 1 2 3 4 5
5. Is patient. 1 2 3 4 5
6. Tries to understand students. 1 2 3 4 5
7. Gives all instructions clearly. 1 2 3 4 5

Classroom Activities

8. The content of the ____ is/was appropriate to my needs. 1 2 3 4 5
9. The tasks we performed are/were appropriate to my needs. 1 2 3 4 5
10. The skills taught are/were appropriate to my needs. 1 2 3 4 5
11. The materials are/were appropriate to my needs. 1 2 3 4 5
12. The pace of the class is/was appropriate to my needs. 1 2 3 4 5
13. The class atmosphere is/was positive. 1 2 3 4 5
14. There is/was enough variety in the lessons. 1 2 3 4 5
15. Error correction and feedback is/was appropriate to my needs. 1 2 3 4 5

Assessments

16. My overall understanding of the class assessment plan is/was clear. 1 2 3 4 5
17. The evaluation I received assessed my work fairly. 1 2 3 4 5
18. I understand my teacher's methods of evaluating my work. 1 2 3 4 5

[24] Adapted from Graves (2000, p. 295)

4. Development of Teaching Unit

4.1. Level I

4.1.1. Cover Sheet Level I

LEVEL I

INTRODUCTION

4.1.2 Syllabus Level I

SYLLABUS

UNIT 1 Getting Started

UNIT 2 Greetings and Names—Who are you and how do you spell your name?

UNIT 3 Areas of the Hotel—Where's the Restaurant?

UNIT 4 Numbers and Time—What time is Breakfast served?

UNIT 5 Activities around the Hotel—What are you doing?

4.1.3. General Goals and Scope of Level I

General Goals: By the end of this level students will have reached the Early Production Stage of language acquisition

CLASSROOM LANGUAGE VERBS

- Stand up
- Sit down
- Raise your hand
- Turn around
- Walk
- Go
- Shake
- Listen
- Speak
- Read
- Write
- Stop
- Look
- Point
- Draw
- Change
- Pick up
- Put down
- Move
- Open
- Close
- Turn on
- Turn off

CLASSROOM LANGUAGE NOUNS

- partner
- class
- teacher
- student
- door
- window
- desk
- table
- floor
- wall
- corner
- ceiling
- clock
- fan
- pen
- pencil
- paper
- word
- number
- question
- letter
- sentence

SOCIOCULTURAL

- Recognize male and female names
- Use Titles
- Understand difference between formal and informal ways of greeting

PREPOSITIONS

- In
- On
- Under
- In front of
- Between
- Behind
- Next to
- Near
- Far
- Up
- Down
- Off

SOCIAL LANCUAGE

- Say name
- Greet another person
- Introduce another person
- Spell names
- Greet formally
- Greet informally
- Present oneself

TASKS

- TPR
- Draw
- Sing a songs for greeting, counting and alphabet
- Mime activities
- Videotape daily work activities
- Videotape common communicative encounters with guests

NOTIONS

- Time
- Quantity
- Quality

STAFF

- Receptionist
- Manager
- Assistant Manager
- Housekeeper
- Waiter/Waitress
- Bar tender
- Cook

AREAS

- Guest room
- Guest Suite
- Hall way
- Conference Room
- Restrooms
- Restaurant
- Bar
- Terrace

4.1.4 Unit 1 Scope and Overview and Sample Lesson f First Day[25]

Level: I

Unit: 1

Class No.: 1

Designed for beginning level (prep-productive stage) employees in a hotel

Topic: Classroom language: Actions, nouns and simple greetings

Objectives: SWBA to recognize classroom vocabulary (verbs, nouns, personal pronouns)

SWBA to mime and act out classroom activities

SWBA to mime formal and informal greetings

Vocabulary:

VERBS
stand up
sit down
turn around
walk
go to
stop
raise your hand
listen
speak
read
write
look at
point to
touch
change the action

NOUNS
a class
a student
a partner
a classmate
a teacher
a picture

WORDS TO SONG
yes/no
stop/to
goodbye/hello
high/low
I don't know why
you say . . . .

Passive Structures: Affirmative and negative commands, personal pronouns I and you

Concept Development: Understanding formal and inform ways of greeting

Language Skills: Listening, speaking (if ready)

Materials: Flashcards of all verbs and nouns listed in vocabulary above, medium, and small

CD player

Song: Beatles—You say Goodbye

Time: 1 hour

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[25] Categories for the lesson outline are adapted from Brauer (1995)

Task. 1.1[26]: Warm-up
Topic: Handshaking
Vocabulary: Shake hands, name
Objectives: The teacher will be able to get to know the students names (assuming the students already know each other), and to create physical contact between students and teacher and students. Students will be able (SWBA) to demonstrate the difference between formal and formal ways of greeting.
Linguistic Aspect: Say own name
Active (LA—A)
Linguistic Aspect: Shake hands, name
Passive (LA—P)
Materials: CD with Beatles song or any other kind of active music in English
Class Organization: Whole class
Time: 10 minutes

Procedure:

Handshake 1[27] Explain to students in their L1 that we will be shaking hands—teacher shakes some students hands and says in English *Shake hands*—at first formally and the second time informally. This will be done when the music stops. Tell Ss that they can imagine they are at a formal event the first time around and at an informal event, like a party the second time around.

Students (Ss) and Teacher (T) move around the room freely to music (Beatles song). When the music stops, Ss and T shake hands formally. Play the music again, and Ss and T walk around freely. Stop the music again, and this time Ss and T greet each other informally.

Handshake 2[28] Explain to students in their L1 that we will be shaking hands again as above, but this time we will be saying names: The first time around, we will say our names, and the second time around we will say the name of the person we are shaking hands with.

Activity. 1.2: TPR
Topic: Classroom commands
Objective: SWBA to listen to and follow commands
LA—A: None, except for students who are ready
LA—P: Vocabulary—Stand up, sit down, turn around, walk, raise your hand, shake hands with, stop
Material: None
Class Organization: Whole class
Time: 20 minutes

Procedures:

[26] Organization adapted from Cerezal, Chavez & Miller (2000-2002)
[27] Maley & Duff (1982, p. 39)
[28] Maley & Duff (1982, pp. 63-64)

TPR Sequence

Step 1. T requests volunteers (2-4) to come up to the front of the room and to sit down next to the teacher (on each side) facing the other students.

Step 2. T gives commands and performs the activities with the volunteers, introducing two or three new commands at a time, adding on new ones and repeating them various times. For example:

- Stand up; sit down (repeat various times);
- Stand up; turn around; turn around; sit down;
- Raise your hand (may include high and low to anticipate vocabulary in Task 1.3); stand up; turn around; turn around; sit down;
- Stand up; walk; stop; turn around; walk; turn around; sit down;
- Raise your hand; stand up; walk; stop; shake hands with x; turn around; walk; turn around; sit down.

Step 3. T gives commands to volunteers without participating, making sure to vary the sequence in order to assure they understand the commands and are not just following the routine from memory.

Step 4. T gives commands to only one of the volunteers.

Step 5. T gives commands to the whole class.

Step 6 T gives various commands in a row and tries to build in surprises. For example:

- Stand up and walk to x and shake his/her hand; stop shaking hands and turn around; walk, sit down and turn around (here Ss should either move around in their chair, or move their chair around).

Activity 1.3: Miming
Topic: More classroom commands
Objective: SWBA to listen to and mime commands
(LA—A): None, except for students who are ready
LA—P: Vocabulary—listen, speak, read, write, look at, point to,
Material: Flashcards of every word mentioned in the vocabulary list
Class Organization: Whole class
Time: 20 minutes

Procedure:

Same as task 1.2 except this time there are no volunteers; the class stays seated and mimes the activities with hand motions. Pictures are used to reinforce understanding.

Step 1: T faces whole group and holds up the first flashcard with a picture of someone with their hand cupping their ear indicating listening. T does the mime as well and says *listen*. T then places the picture on the floor and T proceeds with the remaining words/pictures:

- Speak—opening and closing fingers;
- Read—place both hands together facing upwards
- Write—move hand as if writing
- Look at—tap eye with index finger and move finger away from eye
- Point to—extend finger

Step 2: With all pictures on the floor, the T practices all six of the commands mixing their order and continuing to mime, but only points to pictures if there is still some confusion (the words read and write cause particular problems).

Step 3: Now T gives the commands for Ss to mime, adding variations such as: Point to x (name of student in the room); look as y; speak to z, etc.

Activity 1.4: Miming a Song[29]
Topic: Mime the Beatles song Goodbye
Objective: SWBA to listen to, mime and sing to the Beatles song Goodbye
Vocabulary: High, low, I don't know why, you, I say
Material: CD of Beatles' song, CD player
Class Organization: Whole class
Time: 20 minutes

Procedures:

1. Tell the Ss that they are going to mime the song they heard at the beginning of the class. T models the mimes without music as follows:
   I say yes—mime pointing to self and shaking head up and down; you say no—point to students, shaking head back and forth or shake the index finger; you say stop—point to Ss and extend arm with palm of hand facing Ss; I say go, go, go—point to self and then move hand in circular motions outward; I say high—point to self and move hand up high; you say low—point to Ss and move hand low; I don't know why—point to self, shake index finger and then touch side of head, then shrug shoulders.

2. Once the Ss have learned and understood the mimes, the T says the words of the song only and the Ss mime along. If the group is already speaking, the T can reverse this and do the mime and the Ss say what miming.

3. Play the song, have Ss listen only the first time around, and follow along miming and singing the following times.

[29] I always do this song the first or second day of class with beginners and am always amazed at how fast students learn to understand, mime and sing the song using this approach. Even very shy students participate.

4.2. Level II

4.2.1. Cover Sheet Level II

LEVEL II

GUEST ROOMS

4.2.2. Syllabus Level II

SYLLABUS

UNIT 1 Bedroom Furniture and Fixtures

UNIT 2 Housekeeping Activities in the Guestroom

UNIT 3 Bathroom Fixtures

UNIT 4 Housekeeping Activities in the Bathroom

UNIT 5 Electrical Appliances and Fixtures

UNIT 6 Troubleshooting

UNIT 7 Clothes and Personal Items

UNIT 8 Straightening up

UNIT 9 Toiletries and Bathroom Supplies

UNIT 10 Straightening up and Replenishing

4.2.3 General Goals and Scope of Level II

General Goals: By the end of this level students will have reached the Speech Emergence Stage of language acquisition.

STAFF
- Housekeeper

VERBS
- Dust
- Clean
- Mop
- Wash
- Vacuum
- Replace
- Fix
- Bring
- Make
- Polish
- Sweep
- Air out
- Flush
- Sleep
- Wake up
- Replace
- Take down
- Put up
- Get
- Hang up
- Put away
- Scrub
- Repair
- Take out
- Empty

NOUNS BEDDING
- Pillow
- Pillow case
- Sheet
- Bedspread
- Blanket

NOTIONS
- Quantity
- Cleanliness

NOUNS BEDROOM FURNITURE AND FIXTURES
- Bed
- Rug
- Mattress
- Head board
- Closet
- Chair
- Night table
- Bench
- Desk
- Carpet
- Mirror
- Sofa
- Dresser
- Curtains/drapes

SOCIAL LANGUAGE:
- Greet guest
- Announce self
- Introduce self
- Exchange personal information
- Clarify
- Describe location of an item
- Express thanks
- Acknowledge thanks
- Offer service
- Respond to guest requests
- apologize
- Accept a tip
- Respond to a complaint
- Offer a tentative answer

NOUNS BATHROOM FIXTURES
- Sink
- Shower
- Faucet
- Hot and cold water
- Toilet
- Towel rack

CLOTHING & PERSONAL ITEMS
- Shirt
- Dress
- Skirt
- Blouse
- Pants
- Shoes
- Socks
- Underwear
- Sweater
- Bathing suit
- Jewelry
- Comb/brush

NOUNS ELECTRICAL EQUIPMENT AND ACCESSORIES
- Television
- Remote control
- Air conditioner
- Light
- Light switch
- Light bulb
- Light socket
- Telephone
- Vase
- Ashtray
- Water glass

TASKS
- TPR
- Matching
- Mime activities
- Videotape daily work activities
- Videotape common communicative encounters with guests
- Guessing

ADJECTIVES
- Clean/dirty
- Dusty
- Fresh
- Empty/full
- Comfortable
- Uncomfortable
- Old/new
- Good/bad
- Dry/wet
- Hot/cold
- Stained
- Stuffy
- Ripped

4.2.4 Development of Teaching Unit

Unit 2 Housekeeping Activities in the Guest Room[30]

Designed for employees in a hotel: Level II Early Production Stage

Length of unit: 4 one-hour sessions, plus a final review, task and assessment session

4.2.4.1. Content Overview

Class # 1

Task 1.1.: Warm-up—Guessing Game: Review of Names of Furniture

Task 1.2.: Speaking—This is a _____. Utensils for Cleaning

Task 1.3.: Descriptions—How clean is it?

Task 1.4.: TPR—Let's Clean!

Class # 2

Task 2.1.: Warm-up—Guessing game: Who's Changing the Action?

Task 2.2.: Speaking—I need a_____. More Utensils for Cleaning

Task 2.3.: Descriptions—Is it empty?

Task 2.4.: TPR—Let's Complete the Cleaning: More Cleaning Activities

Class # 3

Task 3.1.: Warm-up—Competition Vocabulary words: Rock, Paper, Scissors

Task 3.2.: TPR—Let's Make up the Bed and Straighten up

Task 3.3.: Reading—Matching Pictures with Words: Names of Furniture and Fixtures

Task 3.4. Memory—Game Matching Pictures with Words: Names of Furniture and Fixtures

Class # 4

Task 4.1.: Warm-up—Guessing game: What word is missing?

Task 4.2.: Video watching

Task 4.3.: Creating and practicing dialogues

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[30] Organization adapted from Cerezal, Chavez & Miller (2000-2002)

4.2.4.2 Unit 2 Scope and Overview

Level: II

Designed for beginning (early production employees in a hotel)

Topic: Classroom language: Actions, nouns and simple greetings

Objectives: SWBA to recognize classroom vocabulary (verbs, nouns, adjectives)

SWBA to recognize question forms and respond non-verbally or with short answers.

SWBA to mime and act out cleaning activities

SWBA to interact with guests using formulaic social language

Vocabulary:

ACTION VERBS	NOUNS	ADJECTIVES	SOCIAL LANGUAGE
Clean (up/off/out)	Broom	Clean/dirty	Greet guest
Make up	Mop	Dusty	Acknowledge guest greeting
Dust	Bucket	Full/empty	Respond to guest requests
Mop	Floor cleaner	Polished	Thank
Wash	Paper Towel	Shiny	Acknowledge thanks
Sweep	Duster		Announce arrival
Hand up	Dust bin		Clarify
Replace	Rag		
Fix	Waste basket		
Polish	Window cleaner		
Empty	Ashes		
Put away	Cigarette butts		
Take out			
Straighten up			
Wipe			

4.2.4.3. Development of Teaching Unit 2

CLASS #1

Task 1.1.: **Warm-up**
Topic: Guessing game
Objective: SWBA to recall names of furniture acquired in the first unit and use rising intonation in yes/no questions and falling intonation in short answers.
LA—A: Vocabulary about furniture from unit 1
Rising intonation in yes/no questions
Falling intonation short answers
LA—P: Simple present, present continuous, short answer to yes/no questions
Skills: Listening and speaking
Materials: None
Class org.: Whole class
Time: 10 minutes

Procedures:
The T mimes thinking and says: *I'm thinking of something in this room. What is it?* The T shrugs shoulders and points/touches items, encouraging the Ss to say the name of the item being touched with rising intonation: *(Is it the) bed?*, upon which the T answers *Yes, it is, or No, it's not.* The students are given 5 guesses.

Ss can continue playing as a competition against the teacher, or the student who guesses the word comes forward, in which case this student will tell the word to the T and the T will say: *x is thinking of something in this room? What it is?*

Task 1.2.: **Speaking—This is a _____.**[31]
Topic: Utensils for cleaning
Objective: SWBA to recognize and say the names of cleaning utensils
SWBA to ask for clarification formally and informally
SWBA to understand questions and give one-word answers
LA—A: Vocabulary Nouns–broom, duster, dustbin, rag, wastebasket, trash
Pronunciation—rising and falling intonation
Formulaic phrases—This is a_____; Pardon me?; Excuse me?; Say what?; A what?
Short one-word answers
LA—P: Descriptive yes/no questions; choice questions; Wh-questions Who and What
Skills: Listening and speaking
Materials: Pictures of all vocabulary (flashcard size) and actual objects for broom, dustbin, rag and wastebasket.
Class org.: Whole class, pairs
Time: 15 minutes

[31] From Turtledove (1993, p.12). I have used this activity with variations very successfully with all levels when teaching new vocabulary or grammar structures.

Procedures:

1. The T holds up two objects and then passes one of these to S1 on the right, saying: *This is a broom*. Indicate to S1 to show a quizzical face and give the words: *A what?* Then the T repeats: *A broom*, whereupon S1 says: *Ah, a broom*. Then S1 turns to S2 and repeats the lines. The whole dialogue goes as follows:
   S1: This is a broom?
   S2: A what?
   S1: A broom.
   S2: Ah, a broom.

2. As the first object is being passed around to the right, pass around the next object to the left. At some point one student will end up with two objects to pass along. If this is the first time doing the activity, it is better to just to pass one object around at a time. The following object can then be passed around starting on the left. This time change the response of S2 to the more formal: *Excuse me, or Pardon me?* Explaining to the Ss that *A what?* is considered impolite and informal.

3. Follow up with a review of the names and questions:
   - Commands: Point to the x; pick up the y; put down the x; hand the z to _____; put the y on the _____.
   - Descriptive yes/no question: followed up by choice questions:
     Q: Is this a _____? A: Yes/No;
     Q: Do you have a ____ ? A: Yes/No;
     Q: Does Mary have a ____ ? A: Yes/No;
     Q: Is Tom holding the _____? A: Yes/No;
     Q: Are Bill and Sue using the ____?
   - Choice questions:
     Q: Is this a ___ or a ___? A: (It's) a ___;
     Q: Is this a ___ or a ___? A: (It's) a ___;
     Q: Do you have a ___ or a ___? A: (I have) a ___;
     Q: Does x have a ___ or a _____? A: (He has) a ___;
     Q: Is Mary holding the ___ or the ____? A: (She's holding) the ____.
   - Wh-questions (if Ss hesitate add on a choice):
     Q: What is this? A: (It's) a _____;
     Q: Who has the _____? A: Mary (has the ___);
     Q: What do you have? A: (I have) a _____;
     Q: What does Tom have? A: (He has) a _____;
     Q: What is Bill holding? A: (He's holding) a___;
     Q: What are Bill and Sue using? A: (They are using) the ____.

Task 1.3.: **How clean is it?**
Topic: Descriptions of levels of cleanliness
Objective: SWBA to describe if something is or is not clean, dirty or dusty.
SWBA to understand questions posed about cleanliness with different word order.
SWBA to understand questions and respond with one-word answers.
LA—A: Vocabulary—adjectives: clean, dirty, dusty

Short one-word answers: yes/no and adjectives
Short one-word answers using not + adjective

LA—P: Command form;
Position of adjectives in questions and statements—before nouns (This is a dirty floor)
Position of adjectives after the verb to be (The floor is dirty)
Yes/no questions and wh-questions, plus How

Skills: Listening and speaking

Materials: Pictures of dirty and clean surfaces—one of each: floor, wall, table, and nightstand
Pictures of items that are dusty and not dusty—one of each: TV, dresser top, window sill, headboard. Pictures in flashcard size and medium size

Class org.: Whole class, pairs

Time: 15 minutes

Procedures:

1. On the floor or a table put down one picture each of something that is dirty, dusty and clean. Then say: *The __ is _____*, for each of the three pictures. Check understanding by asking Ss to point to something that clean, dirty or dusty.

2. Set aside the first pictures and place pictures of items that are the opposite of the others: not dirty, dusty or clean. Proceed as in #1

3. Now, place all pictures (16 total) on the floor or table giving commands and asking questions as in Task #1.2, step 3. But change word order: Is the table clean? Is this a clean table?. Also add the wh-question How: How is the table?

4. Follow up/Additional activities:
   a. Hand out one set of medium-sized pictures per pair of Ss and they work together as follows: One student points and the other makes a statement or vice versa.
   b. Place one set of 16 medium-sized pictures on two separate tables. Divide the Ss into two groups and instruct them to walk around with hands behind their backs. Then the T calls out a description. For example: The TV is not dusty. The first group to find the picture and hold it up gets to put that picture aside; the other group must keep theirs on their table.
   c. Memory. Place all 16 small or medium-sized pictures face down. In pairs or two groups, one student lifts up and describes the picture (*the table is dusty*). The student then lifts up another picture, and describes it (*the table is not dusty*). If it is a match, the student or groups gets another turn. If not, the other partner or group has a turn.

Task 1.4.: **TPR—Let's Clean**

Topic: Cleaning Activities

Objective: SWBA to understand and follow commands involving cleaning activities;
SWBA to give one-word answers about his/her activities;
SWBA to express which cleaning activities they like or do not like.

LA—A: Vocabulary—verbs: sweep, dust, wipe (off), collect, and empty.
Short one-word answers: yes/no and wh-questions

LA—P: Command form, affirmative and negative;

Yes/no questions with do: Do you like to dust?
Wh-questions with why

Skills: Listening and speaking

Materials: Pictures of people (preferably the students themselves) sweeping, dusting, wiping, collecting and emptying trash.
Pictures in flashcard-size and medium-size

Class org.: Whole class, pairs

Time: 15 minutes

Procedures:

TPR Sequence

Step 1. T requests volunteers (2-4) to come up to the front of the room and to sit down next to the teacher (on each side) facing the other students.

Step 2. T gives commands and performs the activities with the volunteers, introducing two or three new commands at a time, adding on new ones and repeating them various times. In this case the activities are mimed. For example:

- Let's take the broom and sweep the floor; let's sweep over here and under the bed; now let's dust; let's dust the TV, dust the headboard and dust the windowsill; now let's wipe off the table, the wall and the night stand (repeat various times);
- Now let's sweep behind the bed. Now the sweeping is done, so let's collect the trash in the dustbin and empty the trash in wastebasket;
- Ok, what still needs cleaning? Let's dust some more, sweep some more, wipe some more, and collect and empty the trash.

Step 3. T gives commands to the volunteers without participating, making sure to vary the sequence in order to assure they understand the commands and are not just following the routine from memory.

Step 4. T gives commands to only one of the volunteers.

Step 5. T gives commands to the whole class.

Step 6 T gives various commands in a row and tries to build in surprises.

Step 7. Now have Ss do the activities and ask questions using the present progressive while Ss are miming activities. (see Task #1.2 step 3 for sequencing of questions from descriptive yes/no to Wh-questions.)

Step 8. Ask students questions about their likes and dislikes concerning cleaning activities. Mime dislike and say: *I don't like to dust and I don't like to wipe.* Then smile and say: *But I like to sweep.* Ask Ss: *Do you like to sweep, dust or wipe?* A: *(I like to) dust (or: none of these). What do you like to do? What does X like to do?*

CLASS #2

Task 2.1.: Warm-up

Topic: Guessing game: Who's changing the action?[32]
Objective: To activate Ss and set the scene for more cleaning activities
Class org.: Whole class
Time: 10 minutes

Procedures:

1. One student in the class goes outside (the guesser). The remaining group decides who will change the action of the whole group.

2. The teacher explains in English miming or in Ss' L1 that all students will be miming or doing housekeeping activities and that one student will be responsible for changing the action. This student should do so unobtrusively, so the guesser does not notice, and the others should try not to be looking at this student.

3. The group selects a volunteer responsible for changing the actions and start acting.

4. The guesser is brought in as the group is already acting. The guesser is told in L1 what the game entails and begins watching the other students. Once the guesser thinks (s)he knows who is changing the action, (s)he says: *Stop*.

5. The rest of the group with the prompting of the group asks: *Who is changing the action?* The guesser, again with the help of the teacher, says: *X is changing the action*.

Task 2.2.: **Speaking—I need a_____.**
Topic: More utensils for cleaning.
Objective: SWBA to recognize and say the names of additional cleaning utensils, using the memorized and formulaic phrases;
SWBA to ask for clarification formally and informally;
SWBA to understand questions and give one-word answers;
LA—A: Vocabulary Nouns–bucket, mop, floor cleaner, glass cleaner, ashes, cigarette butts, rag, liner.
Pronunciation—rising and falling intonation
Formulaic phrases—Here you are; thank you, you're welcome.
Short one-word answers
LA—P: Descriptive yes/no questions; choice questions; Wh-questions Who and What
Skills: Listening and speaking
Materials: Pictures of all vocabulary (flashcard size) and actual objects for all vocabulary items, including a dirty ashtray, if available.
Class org.: Whole class, pairs
Time: 15 minutes

Procedures:
Follow Task #1.2 above, with the exception of the beginning where the teacher hands one of the vocabulary items to the student (the mop for example) and mimes looking around for the bucket

[32] From Turtledove (1993, p. 111)

as a way to show need (if Ss don't understand have a picture of a person panting in the desert and say (s)he needs water) and says: *I need a bucket*. Prompt the whole group to ask: *A what?* And the T repeats: *A bucket.* As the student with the bucket hands it over, the T prompts the student to say: *Here you are.* The teacher then says, *Thank you*, and prompts the student to say, *You're welcome*. The complete mini dialogue goes as follows:

S1 I need a bucket.
S2 A what? (vary with excuse me? and pardon me?)
S1 A bucket.
S2 Ah, a bucket. Here you are.
S1 Thank you.
S2 You're welcome

Task 2.3.: Is it empty?
Topic: More descriptions of levels of cleanliness
Objective: SWBA to describe if something is or is not empty, full, shiny.
SWBA to understand questions posed about cleanliness with different word order.
SWBA to understand questions and respond with one-word answers.
LA—A: Vocabulary—adjectives: empty, full, shiny
Short one-word answers: yes/no and adjectives
Short one-word answers using not + adjective
LA—P: Command form;
Position of adjectives in questions and statements—before nouns (This is a shiny window)
Position of adjectives after the verb to be (The window is shiny)
Yes/no questions and wh-questions, plus How
Skills: Listening and speaking
Materials: Pictures of full and empty items—one of each: ashtray, dustbin, wastebasket, glass
Pictures of items that are shiny—one of each: floor, mirror, window, glass of a picture
Pictures in flashcard size and medium size
Class org.: Whole class, pairs
Time: 15 minutes

Procedures:
Follow procedures in Task #1.3, adding on one of the additional activities that have not been done yet.

Task 2.4: TPR—Let's Complete the Cleaning
Topic: More Cleaning activities
Objective: SWBA to understand and follow commands involving cleaning activities;
SWBA to give one-word answers about his/her activities;
SWBA to say which activity has or has not been completed yet.
LA—A: Vocabulary—verbs: mop, wipe, replace, scrub, polish,
Short one-word answers: yes/no and wh-questions
LA—P: Command form, affirmative and negative;

Present perfect—Has the ____ been _____?
Wh-questions with why

Skills: Listening and speaking

Materials: Pictures of people mopping, wiping, replacing the liner, cleaning out/off, wiping off/out, scrubbing, and polishing. Pictures in flashcard-size and medium-size.
Two large pictures (drawings or photos), one showing a room that has not been cleaned and one that as been partially cleaned.
Two medium-sized pictures of the same above, but with changes (3 things have been done/3 not).

Class org.: Whole class, pairs

Time: 20 minutes

Procedures:

1. Same as in Task #1.4

2. Show the two large pictures of room and proceed with questioning:
   Pointing to the first picture: Has this room been cleaned? Has the floor been swept?; etc.
   What hasn't been cleaned? The ____, _____, _____, or the ___?
   Pointing to the second picture: Has the floor been swept?; Have the windows been polished?, etc.
   What has been cleaned off?; What has been dusted?, etc.
   What hasn't been polished? The windows. Etc.

3. Pair work. Give students medium-sized photos and in pairs Ss look for the 3 things that have been cleaned and the 3 that have not been cleaned.

CLASS #3

Task 3.1.: **Warm-up**

Topic: Competition—Rock, paper, scissors[33]

Objective: To review vocabulary—nouns

Material: Flashcards of all nouns in unit 2
Flashcards from unit 1—bed, sheet, pillow, pillow case, bedspread, towel
A rock, a piece of paper and a pair of scissors

Class org.: Competition

Time: 10 minutes

Procedures:

1. Place 10 to 12 flashcards on the floor in a row leaving some space between each;

2. Walk along the pictures saying the words and invite Ss to do the same;
3. Divide the class into two teams;

[33] From Krause & Abe-Ford (2003, p. 15). While this is an activity designed for children, I have done it quite successfully with adults.

4. Explain the activity by modeling it with one student: T begins at one end and says the words and invites student at other end to do the same. When we meet, say *stop* and show the rock, paper and scissors and mime the game (most adults will remember playing this game when they were children). Play the game with the student, and whoever loses has to return to the beginning and the winner remains. Then a new student from the losing side begins and the winner continues until they meet. They repeat the rock, paper, scissors game to decide who stays and who returns. The game finishes when one side reaches the other end.

5. Before playing the game have the teams practice. (This is really where the real learning takes place, as well as cooperative team work, as the students coach each other on saying the words.)

6. Play the game.

Task 3.2: TPR—Let's Make up the Bed and Straighten Out
Topic: Making the bed and straightening out
Objective: SWBA to understand and describe activities involved with making the bed and straightening out
SWBA to give one-word answers about his/her activities;
SWBA to use ordinal numbers to describe the sequence in which they do things
LA—A: Vocabulary—verbs: Remove used sheets from the bed; deposit the sheets and pillow cases in the laundry bag on the cart; make the bed with clean sheets and the bedspread; shake out the pillows; turn down the bed; pick up dirty towels; hand clean towels on the towel rack[34]
Personal pronoun I,
Ordinal numbers (1^{st} to 10^{th}) and expressions next, then, finally to describe a sequence
Short one-word answers: yes/no and wh-questions
LA—P: Command form, affirmative and negative;
Third person singular simple present
Questions with do and does
Wh-questions with why
Skills: Listening and speaking
Materials: Pictures in flashcard and medium-size of all the vocabulary above.
Chits with ordinal numbers on them—at least up to 10^{th}
Video clip taken earlier of staff members making up the beds and straightening out
Class org.: Whole class, pairs
Time: 30 minutes

Procedures:
1. Ordinal numbers
   a. Place chits with ordinal number on board or floor, out of order. Ask: What number comes first? Ss will probably say one. So, repeat saying 1^{st}. Proceed until all the numbers are in order. Practice pronunciation (the sound and the word fifth usually create problems)

[34] The exact vocabulary and sequences would need to be revised and based on observing staff performing these activities. The vocabulary was consulted with Grebel, R. & Pogrund, P. (1997a, pp. 27-30)

b. Once Ss can say them, play a short game of numbered chairs as follows: Place chars in a semi-circle and indicate which chair is the 1st, 2nd, etc. Review by asking. What chair are you sitting in?
c. Explain the rules: Student 1 (S1) says his/her chair number, followed by the number of S2 chair number. S2 then says his/her chair number and the number of S3, and so on. If someone misses hearing his/her number or hesitates too much, the whole group moves up one chair. This way, Ss have to remember a new chair number. Play until Ss can say the numbers with little hesitation.

2. Sequence of making up the bed and straightening out the room: Questions and answers:
   a. Place the chits with the ordinal numbers in order on the board or floor and around these the flashcards showing the activities in random order.
   b. Ask Ss: *When do you _____? First, second, third, etc.?* According to the answer, the T places the picture with the activity under the corresponding ordinal number. Continue until all have been placed.
   c. The T asks: *Do you _____ or _____ first?* S: *(I) _____, first.* T continues with the rest.
   d. The T mixes pictures all up again and indicates that is trying to remember the order, but has a bad memory. So, the T asks: *What do you do first?*. Ss answer: *(I) _____, first.*

3. Sequence of making up the bed and straightening out the room: TPR
   Decide with the Ss how to mime the activities. Then proceed with TPR steps as described in Task 1.4. For Ss who may be ready to give commands, give them an opportunity to direct the class or work with a partner.

4. Pair work:
   Give each pair of students a medium sized set of pictures showing the activities. Model the activity with of student in front of the whole class: Signal the student to say what (s)he does first and as the student answers the T places the pictures down on the left. Then the T signals that describe what (s)he does second, and T places the appropriate pictures to the right of the first one. As students work in pairs, monitor their progress. Do not overcorrect or expect perfection. Once the first group of Ss has finished, elicit responses to the following question: *Who <u>picks up the towels</u> first?* Try to get Ss to answer in complete sentences. After this, let the second group of Ss describe their routine.

Task 3.3.: Reading—matching pictures with words
Topic: Printed words— names of furniture and fixtures[35]
Objective: SWBA to match words with pictures and/or realia
LA—A: Vocabulary—words for all the names of furniture seen in unit 1

[35] If the group is strong, one could begin to look at the spelling of the words worked with in this unit. However, from my experience students generally need a lot more oral reinforcement of vocabulary before they are able to read the words as whole words rather than sounding out each of the letters/syllables, which is a common problem when students begin to read too soon in English.

LA—P: Teaching instructions: "Match the words with the picture or item/place the word on the picture/item"
Skills: Reading
Materials: Medium-sized chits with the names of all furniture and fixtures seen in Unit 1
Flashcards of furniture and fixtures seen in Unit 1
Class org. Whole class
Time: 10 minutes

Procedures:
Hand out words of furniture and fixtures and have Ss place on the actual items or on the flashcard pictures of the items. Ss generally do not have any problems with this if they have acquired the words.

Task 3.4.: Memory—Game matching pictures with words
Topic: Matching words to pictures of furniture and fixtures[36]
Objective: SWBA to match words with pictures of the words
LA—A: Vocabulary—words for all the names of furniture seen in unit 1
LA—P: Teaching instructions: "Match the words with the picture or item/place the word on the picture/item
Skills: Reading
Materials: One set of small-sized chits with pictures of furniture and fixtures and one set of small-sized chits with the corresponding names if time to do additional activity
Class org.: Two teams
Time: 10 minutes

Procedures:
Place the two sets of small-sized chits face, mix them all up and place in rows. Form two teams. The first team member picks up a chit (either picture or word) and says or reads the word. If it is correct, the team member can lift up another chit reading or saying the word. If there is a match—the picture matches the word, the team removes the pair or chits and gets another turn.

CLASS #4

Task 4.1.: Warm-up Guessing game: What word is missing?[37]
Topic: Remembering words and spelling them out loud
Objective: SWBA to remember the word that was removed from a group of words.
SWBA to spell missing words from memory.
LA—A: Spelling words seen in Task 3.4
Commands: Close your eyes, open your eyes
The alphabet (learned and practiced in Level I)
Spelling out loud (practiced in Level I
LA—P: What word is missing/or what word has been removed

[36] See footnote 33 above
[37] Adapted from Ur & Wright (2001, p. 20).

Skills: Listening and speaking
Materials: Medium-sized word cards of vocabulary words seen in Task 3.3 with the picture on one side and
Class org. Whole class
Time: 10 minutes

Procedures:
1. Place chits with spelling words face up on the floor, table or surface (10 to 15 at a time).

2. Tell Ss to study them well and then close their eyes. Remove a word and move other ones around. Tell Ss to open their eyes and ask: *What word is missing?* or *What word has been removed?*
3. Ask the student who remembered the word: *How do you spell _____?* The student spells by first saying the word, then spelling the word and then saying the word again.

4. The student who remembered the word comes up front and continues the game with the help of the teacher prompting the commands and questions.

Task 4.2.: Video watching
Topic: Describing activities and vocabulary in a video
Objective: SWBA to name vocabulary words together with descriptions of activities. SWBA to answer questions about the video.
LA—A: Vocabulary review of all nouns, verbs, adjectives from Units 1 and 2
LA—P: Questions in present progressive (future with going to past progressive, simple past, present perfect)
Skills: Listening and speaking
Materials: Video and projector (5 minute segments of Ss making up the area of the bedroom taken earlier)
Class org. Whole class
Time: 15 minutes

Procedures:
1. Play video all the way through

2. Replay and have Ss say stop when they can name an item or action.

3. Replay asking questions: Descriptive questions, predictive questions (*Is Tom going to pick up the towels next?*), and Wh-questions in the present progressive. (Try to ask questions in the other tenses and continue if Ss respond well. For example: *Was X picking up the towel while Y was making the bed? What was X doing while Y was making the bed—picking up the towel or dusting the TV? Who dusted the TV?, etc.*

Task 4.3.: Creating and practicing dialogues[38]
Topic: Conversing with a hotel guest

[38] Consulted with Grebel, R. & Pogrund, P. (1997a, pp. 27-30).

Objective: SWBA act out small dialogues as housekeeper and hotel guest using formulaic expressions, memorized sentences with the vocabulary learned in units 1 and 2[39]. SWBA to use context clues to guess the meaning of the teacher's communication
LA—A: Formulaic expressions related to the functions of announcing presence, greeting a guest, responding to guest requests, clarifying, offering a service, thanking, and acknowledging thanks
LA—P: Language used when the teacher plays the guest
Skills: Listening and speaking
Materials: Video camera
Class org. Whole class, pairs
Time: 25 minutes

Procedures:
1. Practice and rehearse various possible scenes. The students will be memorizing these:

Variation a.

(knocking on the guest door)	Housekeeping!
(no answer)	Housekeeping!
(housekeeper opens door slowly)	Anyone here?

Variation b

(knocking on the guest door)	Housekeeping!
(no answer)	Housekeeping!
(guest opens door, quizzical tired look)	Yes?
(housekeeper answer)	Good morning. I'm here to clean the room.
(Guest answering)	Please come back/return later/in two hours, etc.
(Housekeeper)	Sure/no problem/no hurry. Take your time.

Variation c

(knocking on the guest door)	Housekeeping!
(guest opens door and asks)	What time is check out?
(housekeeper answers)	At 12 noon (or whatever the time is at the hotel).
(guest)	I'll be here until then.
(housekeeper, getting ready to leave)	Sure/Fine/No hurry. Take your time.

Variation d

(knocking on the guest door)	Housekeeping!
(guest ready to leave)	I'm/we're just leaving. You may come in.
(housekeeper enters)	Are you sure? I can come back later.

Variation e

(knocking on the guest door)	Housekeeping!

[39] This language will have been developed on the basis of interviews with staff in which the staff describes the types of communicative
situation

(guest opens the door and makes) the way ____	I'm/we're just leaving. But before we go/By
(guest requests something) need a _____	Could you please ___/I need you to_____/I
(Housekeeper responds)	Sure, right away./Just a moment/Here you are/Of course. Right away./Anything else?/Pardon me?/Excuse me?/Wait a moment. I'll get help.

Variation f

(Guest on the way out/greet each other) ____. Could you please ___?	I'm just leaving/By the way, the ___ is
(Housekeeper responds)	Sure./Of course./Just a moment./Right away/

Variation g

(Housekeeper is just finishing up) need?/	I'm just finishing./Is there any thing you
(Guest hands a tip)	For me? Thank you very much./How nice of you. Thanks

2. Once a number of scenes have been rehearsed students as guests and the teacher as the guest (try to say more unpredictable/unrehearsed lines to force Ss to listen to key words), Ss who are ready can be video taped.

Depending on the time a short unit quiz and student self-evaluation and evaluation of the teacher could take place here.

4.2.4.4 Sample Quiz / Exam Items Unit 2

Name: _____ Date: _____

A. Listen and circle (vocabulary words) (the teacher reads the word or a sentence involving the word and the Ss circle one of the four)
(under written instructions show a picture of someone listening and a circle)

1.	pictures of an item	picture of an item	picture of an item	picture of an item
2.	picture of an action	picture of an action	picture of an action	picture of an action
3.	picture of an adjective	picture of an adjective	picture of an adjective	picture of an adjective

B. Listen and circle (affirmative/negative) (the teacher reads a sentence and the Ss circle one)

1. picture of something clean picture of something dirty (Example: The floor isn't dirty)
2. picture of something empty picture of something full (Example: The bucket isn't empty)

C. Listen and Draw. Then draw lines to the pictures (vocabulary words)
(So Ss understand, provide an example

1. ____(mop)__ a. picture of someone dusting
2. ___(broom)__ b. picture of someone sweeping
3. __(duster)___ c. picture of someone mopping

D. Listen and circle the number you hear (ordinal numbers)

1. 1st 2nd 3rd 4th 5th 6th 7th 8th
2. 1st 2nd 3rd 4th 5th 6th 7th 8th

E. Listen and write the number you hear (describe a sequence and Ss write number under pictures)

Picture	picture	picture	picture
___	___	___	___

F. Read and match (Ss match pictures with the words)

1. word a. picture
2. word b. picture
3. word c. picture

4.3. Level III

4.3.1. Cover Sheet Level III

LEVEL III

THE RESTAURANT AND BAR

4.3.2. Syllabus Level III

SYLLABUS

UNIT 1 The Dining Area

UNIT 2 Food

UNIT 3 The Menu

UNIT 4 Special Requests

UNIT 5 Small Talk

UNIT 6 The Bar Area

UNIT 7 Beverages

UNIT 8 The Bar Menu

UNIT 10 Special Requests

4.3.3. General Goals and Scope of Level III

General Goals: By the end of this level students will have reached the Developing Fluency Stage of language acquisition

DINING AREA

- Tables
- Chairs
- Window seat
- Smoking are
- Non-smoking area
- Terrace
- Outdoors
- Indoors
- Music
- lighting

STAFF

- Waiter/ Waitress
- Bar tender
- Cook
- Chef
- Head Chef

TASKS

- TPR
- Mime activities
- Videotape daily work activities
- Videotape common communicative encounters with guests

VERBS

- Wait (on)
- Serve
- Clear (off)
- Bring
- Get
- Make
- Substitute
- Have
- Want
- Need
- Prepare

ADJECTIVES

- Noisy/Quiet
- Warm/cold
- Comfortable
- Uncomfortable
- Tasty
- Salty
- Sour
- Sweep
- Bitter
- Spoiled
- Delicious
- Tender/tough
- Rare
- Medium rare
- Well done
- Spicy
- Dry

SOCIAL LANGUAGE

- Greet guests
- Take orders
- Explain menu
- Handle complaints
- Thank
- Accept tips

MENU

- Starters
- Appetizers
- Main dishes
- Beverages
- Desserts
- Side dishes
- Bar menu
- Soups
- Salads

NOTIONS

- Taste
- Value
- Size
- quantity

TABLE SETTINGS

- Table cloth
- Place mats
- Salt and pepper
- Ketchup
- Mustard
- Mayonnaise
- Sugar
- Cream
- Napkins
- Toothpicks

DISHES AND SILVERWARE

- Plates
- Saucers
- Bowls
- Cups
- Mugs
- Glasses
- Silverware
- Knife/knives
- Forks
- Spoons

COOKING VERBS

- Cook
- Fry
- Sautee
- Bake
- Broil
- Barbeque
- Stir
- Pour
- Mix
- Chop
- Blend

4.4. Level IV

4.4.1. Cover Sheet Level IV

LEVEL IV

THE RECEPTION AREA

4.4.2. Syllabus Level IV

SYLLABUS

UNIT 1 Office Equipment and Supplies

UNIT 2 Hotel Prices and Services

UNIT 3 Telephone Calls 1

UNIT 4 Telephone Calls 2

UNIT 5 Arriving Guests

UNIT 6 Small Talk

UNIT 7 Special Requests and Troubleshooting

UNIT 8 Tourist Sites and Activities

UNIT 9 Departing Guests

UNIT 10 Memos

4.4.3. General Goals and Scope of Level IV

General Goals: By the end of this level students will have completed the Developing Fluency Stage of language acquisition

STAFF
- Receptionist
- Manager
- Assistant Manager

ROOMS
- Single
- Double
- Double bed
- Twin bed
- Suite
- Check-in time
- Check-out time
- Room service

OFFICE EQUIPMENT
- Telephone
- Computer
- Calculator
- Internet
- Desk
- Desk Drawer
- File Cabinet
- Wastebasket

OFFICE SUPPLIES
- Pen
- Pencil
- Marker
- Eraser
- Ruler
- Stapler
- Staples
- Paperclips
- Folder
- Paper

ADJECTIVES
- Expensive
- Cheap
- Big/Small
- Medium-sized
- Noisy
- Quiet
- Romantic
- Efficient
- Attractive
- Picturesque
- Relaxing
- Fun

VERBS
- Reserve
- Confirm
- Pay
- Prepay
- Charge
- Take a message
- Leave a message
- Hold
- Return a call
- Direct
- Explain
- Orient

PAYMENT
- Credit card
- Cash
- Charge
- On account
- Money
- Bills
- Coins
- Exchange
- Exchange rate
- Official rate
- Balance
- Invoice
- Taxes
- Account

STAFF
- Receptionist
- Manager
- Assistant Manager

SOCIAL LANGUAGE
- Receive guests
- Greet guests
- Explain Prices and services
- Handle complaints
- Conduct small talk
- Describe places, events
- Say goodbye to guests

OTHER VOVABULARY
- Nationality
- Name
- Address
- Luggage
- Wallet
- Purse
- Bag
- Suitcase
- Passport
- ID
- Magazine rack

TASKS
- Role Play
- Video Tape
- Information gap
- Interviews

NOTIONS
- Time
- Quantity