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The perceptions of specific needs among a discourse community of ESP learners : whether these relate to their achievement, attitudes and motivation

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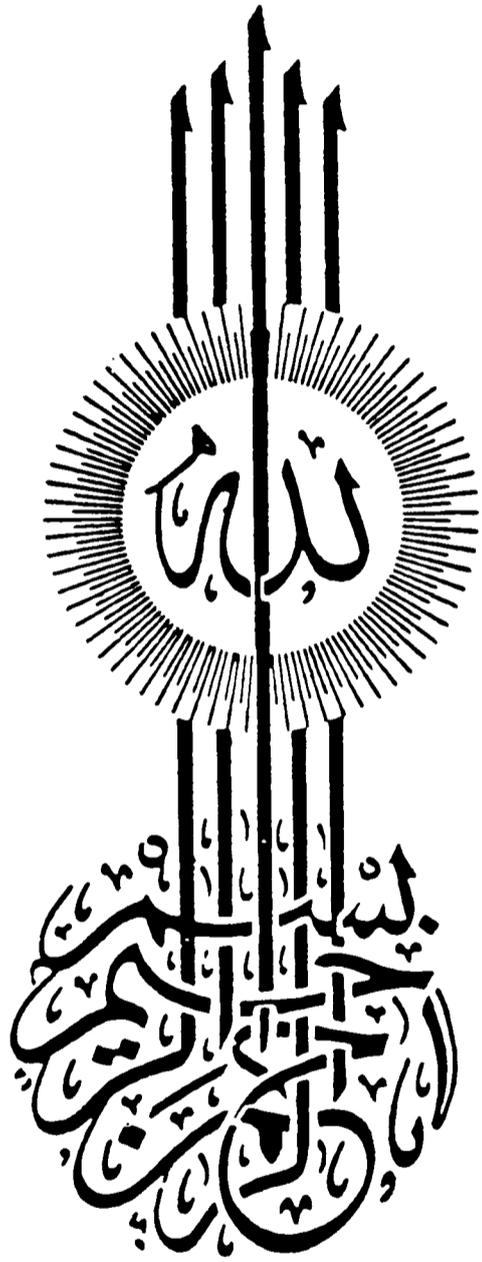
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Abstract

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The Perceptions of Specific Needs among a Discourse Community of ESP Learners: Whether These Relate to their Achievement, Attitudes and Motivation

This study investigates the issues of motivation and attitudes in ESP. It attempts to examine the theoretical assumption that ESP is motivating for its learners. The attempt is to see what relevance the ESP situation could have on its learners' attitudes and motivation. Particularly it looks at a circle of possible significant relations of ESP learners. It examines the possible relevance among the perceptions of specific needs of learners, ESP, achievement, attitudes and motivation. The aim is to see if there is a relationship between ESP, perceptions of the discourse community's specific needs and achievement and motivation. The study uses a military institute as an example of an ESP teaching situation.

The sample of the study is 502 cadets, 486 in the questionnaire and 16 in the interview, in King Khalid Military Academy in Riyadh, Saudi Arabia. They represent the three levels (years) in the Academy. Two research methods are used to collect the data: semi-structured interviews as a qualitative method and a questionnaire as a quantitative method. The interviews are analysed qualitatively, and questionnaire responses are analysed quantitatively, both in percentages using SPSS correlational analysis.

The results of the study show that there is a positive perception and preference among learners of their specific needs. They also suggest that attitudes towards learning the language were significantly correlated with achievement; but this was not the case with attitudes towards the people and culture of the language. In addition, the results reveal that there is a significant relationship between the perception of specific needs, ESP, high achievement and positive attitudes towards learning the language. The study also suggests that these learners have an integrative type of motivation of learning English, related to their discourse community.

In the light of the results, the study concludes that the positive attitudes towards learning ESP are related to learners' positive attitudes towards learning and better achievement and motivation, which could suggest that ESP can work to engender learning. The study also concludes that the ESP learning situation could work as a counter to learners' negative attitudes towards the people and culture of the target language; and these were seen as not influential on these learners' achievement. It is suggested that the issues of different attitudes towards the people and culture of the target language and attitudes towards learning it, as well as the integrative motivation towards the sub-culture of the ESP discourse, are worthy of more investigation in different settings, as these are under-researched conceptions within ESP.

List of Abbreviations

CLT	Communicative Language Teaching
CNP	Communicative Needs Profile
EAC	English for Academic Conferencing
EAP	English for Academic Purposes
EB	English for Biology
EBE	English for Business and Economics
EBP	English for Business Purposes
EL	English for Linguistics
ELT	English Language Teaching
EMP	English for Military Purposes
ENP	English for Nursing Purposes
EOP	English for Occupational Purposes
EP	English for Psychology
EPP	English for Professional Purposes
ESM	English for a Specific Mission
ESP	English for Specific Purposes
ESS	English for Social Sciences
EST	English for Science and Technology
EstP	English for Studying Purposes
ITA	Initial Teaching Alphabet
KAMA	King Abdulaziz Military Academy
KKMA	King Khalid Military Academy
NA	Needs Analysis
PSA	Present Situation Analysis
TSA	Target Situation Analysis
VESL	Vocational English as a Second Language

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Declaration

I hereby declare that the work presented in this thesis for the degree of Philosophy is my own work and has not been presented either wholly or in part for any other degree.

Statement of Copyright

The copyright of this thesis rests with the author. No quotation from it should be published in any form without the author's prior written consent. All information derived from this thesis must be acknowledged appropriately.

Omar Al-Sudais

Dedication

To my father who passed away just as I started my PhD research. He was my source of moral support and motivation since I began primary school. He set an ideal example by his actions. He always kept asking when I would be returning, but unfortunately, when I return he will not be there. His departure was very difficult to live with. He left a gap in my heart that will never be filled.

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Introduction

It has been suggested that English for Specific Purposes (ESP) is an efficient focus for teaching and learning English which motivates learners because it closely addresses their language needs. The content of a syllabus relates to the English they will come across in their present and future lives. This is considered by many, e.g. Strevens (1988), Robinson (1991), Dudley-Evans and St John (1998), as one of the major advantages of ESP. Higgins (1985) goes so far as to suggest that ESP courses aim to solve the problem of motivation that arises in General English courses. In General English, the learners feel they have to learn because the English language is arranged and imposed on them, so their motivation may be low. In ESP, in theory, the problem is resolved by presenting materials that are relevant to the learners' needs and job or specialisation (Kennedy, 1980).

I.1 The Scope of the Study

There are studies that indicate how the use of specific and related content could be more motivating to learners of ESP, e.g. Mparutsa et al (1991) and Baird (2000). Therefore, the specificity of the learning situation and the use of special content courses could be seen as motivators within an ESP learning situation.

However, this view is not always justified by reality. This mis-implication may arise due to a number of factors such as: the process of meeting learners' needs being 'mis-performed', the use of inappropriate procedures while undertaking needs analysis; neglecting an important factor of needs such as the learners themselves; or even using an ESP course that is only peripherally related to learners' needs. Also, the learners' attitudes towards English culture, people and learning the language could have a significant influence on their motivation and, consequently, achievement and attitudes to language may be embedded inside a view of culture.

Use of the English language in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia has been growing over the years in various sectors in line with demands in the rest of the world. The military

sector is an important field that receives particular attention from the Saudi government in order to equip it, not only with latest technology, but also with qualified personnel equipped with the relevant training and knowledge. The English language, therefore, is an essential requirement for ambitious professional personnel. Thus, the Saudi government has made learning English language a military training requirement and has sent some personnel abroad to obtain both the language and advanced training.

In the light of these considerations, this study aims to investigate a circle of possible significant relations of ESP learners. It looks for the possible relevance among the perceptions of specific needs of learners, ESP, achievement, attitudes and motivation.

I.2 Purpose of the Study

In examining the significant relationship between these issues related to these learners, I will try to explore the question of attitudes and motivation among ESP learners in relation to their perceptions of their specific needs and ESP. Ascertaining whether these relationships are or are not significant would allow us to see if positive perception of ESP and attitudes towards it are related to better achievement, high motivation and positive attitudes towards learning.

The target institution to be investigated is King Khalid Military Academy (KKMA). This is a military institute that trains officers for the Saudi National Guard in the Kingdom to prepare and qualify them for serving in the military. English is taught in the Academy using some military-related course books, *Command English* and *Practical English* The cadets join the Academy after secondary school. English is one of the main subjects taught. In the Academy, the status of English has been raised with a view not only increasing the knowledge of English, but also making cadets more aware of the type of English used in the military.

I.2.1 Research Questions

There are four research questions designed to guide the directions of this investigation. These are:

1. Do ESP learners have a positive understanding and perception of the military discourse community and its specific language needs?

2. Do achievement and perception of specific needs of learners relate to attitudes towards culture, people, and learning the target language?

3. Does the perception of the prospective ESP discourse community's specific needs engender better learners and achievers of the ESP language learning?

4. Does the positive perception of using English within the discourse community result in an integrative type of motivation in the process of learning, and have learners willingness to be integrated with the sub-culture discourse community?

These questions will be investigated by two approaches: qualitative and quantitative. A questionnaire is used to examine in detailed respondents' perceptions of specific needs and their attitudes towards the British, Australian and North American (BANA) peoples and cultures. On the other hand, an interview is used as a complementary and more insightful method to explore the cadets' views, as well as to generate hypotheses for the research.

Thus, these questions are researched in this study to look for broad answers and fill in gaps in knowledge of the issue of attitudes and motivation in ESP. These questions are investigated through four factors: achievement; perception of specific needs; attitudes; and motivation.

The first factor is "achievement" and its relationship to attitudes towards the specialised study of English. Achievement will be assessed according to the KKMA's testing system and it should be noted that the relationship to real knowledge of English is unclear. The assumption is that high-scoring cadets will perceive themselves as being good and can thus be considered motivated by the subject. The second factor is the cadets' perceptions of their needs. The assumption here is that cadets who see

their situation as requiring military language will respond well to military language courses. These factors will be correlated and inter-correlated with other variables.

The other two factors are attitudes and motivation. These are mainly seen as related to each other. Motivation can be studied as attitudes to learning and attitudes that affect learning. The attitudes that affect learning fall into three categories:

- attitudes towards native speakers of the target language;
- attitudes towards the target language culture (or the perception of it);
- attitudes towards learning the target language (e.g. the enjoyment of the learning experience).

By looking at correlations between these attitudes and learning achievement measured at KKMA, I will draw conclusions about the use of ESP related to motivation. These will examine the relation of attitudes with achievement and perception of specific needs and, as a result, the influence on learning the language. Motivation, on the other hand, is also investigated for correlation to other researched variables in the study, mainly achievement and perception of specific needs, in order to gain deeper insight into possible influences on learning

I.3 Study Contribution

The first area of contribution for this study concerns attitudes and motivation in the ESP field. Research of these two concepts in a military setting is rare. Moreover, possible relationships of perceptions of specific needs to attitudes, motivation and achievement have almost never been researched before. Therefore, this study is an attempt to find out whether ESP learners, within their specific situation (i.e. military institution in this study) perceive their specific needs and their course content positively to be more specialised, and whether the perception, in turn, is associated to their attitudes towards BANA people, culture and especially language. Such insights may point the way to the ultimate aim of obtaining better motivation in learning the language and, as a result, a better achievement.

The cadets of King Khalid Military Academy are the subjects of the study. KKMA is used as an example of the ESP setting, and its cadets are the ESP learners. Therefore, although the results are confined to particular circumstances of information gathering, the outcome still can be considered as an example of an investigated ESP situation that can provide such results. These results in turn can be used in the whole of ESP area suggesting that an X case of research in these settings would provide Y outcomes.

I.4 Structure of the Study

The study has five chapters. The first one is devoted to ESP, highlighting its history and the main factors behind our increasing interest in it. I set the relationship of ESP to language theories and the approaches to course design process in a historical perspective, examining recent research developments in the area. The second chapter highlights the conceptions of needs analysis, motivation and attitudes of learners in second language learning, with particular reference to the ESP situation, and considers how they can be investigated in this research.

The third chapter explains the methodology which is used in this study. I will relate it to the needs and motivation, considering how these concepts are implemented, whether qualitatively or quantitatively, and discuss the different methods by which the research issues can be investigated. Then the survey's methods, -the questionnaire and the interview-, will be discussed, as well as the method of analysis.

The fourth chapter recounts the results of the interviews and questionnaire. The first part is the qualitative analysis of interviews and their findings. The quantitative analysis of the questionnaire has two dimensions. The first is mere percentages of a response frequencies. The second one is correlation analysis, in order to look for the association between some responses. Finally, the fifth chapter has two parts. In the first, the research questions of the study are answered, and the findings and their contribution to the area of ESP are discussed. In the second, the study is concluded with some recommendations specifically for the investigated situation, cadets learning English in KKMA, and suggestions for further studies.

Chapter One

English For Specific Purposes ESP

In this chapter some basic features of English for Specific Purposes (ESP) are discussed. It is divided into three parts. The first addresses, from a historical perspective, the factors that have contributed to the rise of the ESP. The second considers, historically, the influence of course design approaches and language theories on ESP. Then it reflects on the development in ESP types and branches, and highlights Teaching English for Military Purposes as another type of ESP. Also, the chapter provides an account of the situation in King Khalid Military Academy, its educational and social life. Finally, the chapter reviews some of the previous research in the related issues of this study.

1.1. Basic factors in the rise of ESP

ESP emerged from within the English Language Teaching (ELT) family in the early 1960s, as a demand, need and necessity of the fast technological and international communication developments of the modern world. Subsequently, the research and development in ESP in different aspects increased remarkably. Williams, Swales and Kirkman (1984:2) explain that ESP began to develop in the mid 60s in response to an awareness that English as a Foreign Language (EFL) courses did not adequately and efficiently meet the needs of certain types of specialised learners. Johns and Dudley-Evans (1991:297) emphasise the viability and vigorousness that ESP has established for itself over the past 30 years within the field of Teaching English as a Foreign Language/as a Second Language (TEFL/TESL). They point out that in recent years, the focus of research has predominantly been on international science, technology, and trade. They also indicate that the demand for English for specific purposes (e.g. English for science and technology, English for business, vocational ESL) continues to increase and expand throughout the world. Therefore, there has been much need and demand for increased ESP in ELT; moreover, it has become compelling in the modern world. This rise in ESP is attributable to various factors.

1.1.1. English as First Language

The spread of any language is mostly attributable to the role which that language plays and what it conveys, as well as to the contributions of the people speaking that language. English, as one of many languages in the modern world, has gained more status than any other language at the present time. Historically, according to Phillipson (1992), the spread of English can be seen in relation to *core English-speaking countries*, Britain, the USA, Canada, Australia, and New Zealand. Moreover, Crystal (1997) remarks on the huge expansion of the English language in the last decades, asserting that English has become the chief medium of the international communication. Thus, English is the first language in countries like the UK, US, Australia, Canada and New Zealand, and a second language in e.g. India, Pakistan and Nigeria.

What makes English so special that it has attained such success all over the world? It is not particularly magical or not considered as a beautiful language adored by many people. Then the question remains what are the special characteristics of English that led and contributed significantly to its vast worldwide use?

The whole situation can be described a spiral of upward growth; every new aspect is presumably dependent on the previous one. What English is now gaining is a result of previous achievements. It can be briefly ascribed to two main factors. The first is the position of the native English countries, their important role, either historically as in the case of the UK, or recently as with the US. The power of these countries is scientific, technological, military and economic.

This leads to the second factor. English is *needed* in different parts of the world, as other countries are trying to keep up with English-speaking ones. This *need* for English is more of the focus now, and leads to one of our concerns for ESP. Nevertheless, this *need* to follow developments, basically, is or was dependent on the position of the countries that boosted the spread of the language. Hence, it can be suggested that one of the important factors for learning English was driven by a need to keep pace with advances in these crucial fields of human development. Therefore, to keep up with developments, there has been a demand to learn and teach English not only for general

purposes but also, more importantly, within specific fields such as technology, business, medicine and the media.

In his investigation of English as the international language of medicine, Maher (1986) points out that the "dissemination" and exchange of medical information in English has become not only an *inter*national but also an *intra*national phenomenon. Thus, in countries such as Germany, Japan and France, information is being frequently published in English for domestic consumption. That is to say, English is used in a specific community to serve a specific purpose, in a neutral ground beyond its native cultural territory.

An example of this occurred in one of the Saudi hospitals. A patient was about to have an operation under a Saudi medical team. This group of doctors was discussing the details as well as the possibility of the success of the operation. This discussion took place in front of the patient himself, but they were communicating in English. It can be assumed that they were using English to communicate easily, especially in using medical terms and explanations. There are many similar cases in similar settings of ESP in real world practice. All this leads to a compelling need to learn and teach English not only for general benefit but also for certain purposeful specialised needs. That is seen as one of the main motivations of ESP; namely, it is a response to the educational and career-development opportunities that English provides.

1.1.2. English as a Second Language

Another factor in the rise of ESP, which is closely linked to the previous one, is its use of English as an official second language in various countries. As Phillipson (1992) points out, the conventional definition of ESL countries is countries in which English is not a native language but where it is used widely as a medium of communication in domains of education and government; the term includes countries such as India, Nigeria, Pakistan, Singapore, the Philippines, etc. Most of these countries such as Pakistan, India, Nigeria and Singapore, are former British colonies. Others such as the Philippines were connected to the USA.

The strong position of English in such countries has encouraged the spread of English in these parts of the world at a distance from its native centres. For example, Graddol et al (1996) indicate some reports in the US that show how more than 745 million people around the world now use English as a first or a second language. He adds that it has become the worldwide 'lingua franca' not only of diplomacy, aviation, tourism and pop-culture, but, more importantly, of science, technology and commerce.

The global use of English for knowledge transmission means the language is more than a medium of communication; it is a medium of development. As Mathula (1986) suggests, the language problem in development originates from at least three communication needs which are increasingly being recognised both in the developing countries and in those countries helping in their development. These communication needs are internal communication, transmission of science and technology, and international communication. These development language needs are ascribed to the influential role of the main English-speaking nations, historically the UK and recently the USA. Phillipson (1992) explains that the English language is not only the concern of those who live in relatively small islands in northwest Europe or who have emigrated to North America or the antipodes. Rather, it is now ingrained worldwide, as a result of British colonialism, international interdependence, 'revolutions' in technology, transport, communications and commerce, and because English is the language of USA, a major economic, political and military force in the modern world.

As an example, both Pennycook (1994) and Phillipson (1992) cite Pattanayak (1969) who observes that in India, English serves as the distinguishing factor for those in executive authority, no matter how low their level is, and acts as a convenient shield against the effective participation of the mass of the people in the governmental process. Pattanayak (1969) also points out that English in India not only serves as a link language but also offers the best opportunity for education, and the maximum advantage in obtaining a position, rank, wealth and power.

The example of India may be described as a clear result of a postcolonial situation. However, the expansion of English goes beyond the sphere of political influence. Phillipson (1992) explains that the spread of English is considered natural and neutral. It is seen as natural because its subsequent expansion is seen as a consequence of

inevitable global forces; neutral because it is assumed that once English has in some sense become detached from its original cultural contexts (particularly England and America), it masquerades as neutral and transparent medium of communication. It is considered beneficial because a rather blandly optimistic view of international communication assumes that this occurs on a co-operative and equitable footing, Phillipson (1992).

The status of English can be graphically illustrated by two examples as an L2, Pakistan and India. The first one is a student from one of the Arab countries studying Medicine in India. The second is a Saudi who had been sent abroad to Pakistan to participate in an advanced an advanced military training course. Both individuals were using English as a medium communication in their learning and also in their daily life activities. The same situation applies on a larger scale, in communication among the countries, i.e. Pakistan, Saudi Arabia, and India.

In some cases, the use of English, special English, can be vital and the results of 'misusage' or misunderstanding might be tragic. In India in 1998 two flights, one from Saudia Airlines and the other from Kazakhstan Airlines, collided together in a horrifying disaster which resulted in all the lives on both planes being lost. The cause of the disaster, as concluded by investigators, was that the Kasakhstanian pilot did not comply with altitude instructions given by the New Delhi airport, and eventually both planes were at the same altitude when they collided. This catastrophic incident occurred because of a deficient understanding of English by the Kasakhstanian pilot, as all communications in aviation use English. This indicates the importance of the English language in modern life, not just for general aims but more significantly for special fields and aspects of life in which English has considerable importance.

In addition, the English language has another significance. Pennycook (1994) elaborates the extent to which English functions as a gatekeeper to positions of prestige in society. Mahadeo's (2003) study is an example of the urban societies are more conductive for learning English than the suburbs. Pennycook (1994) also argues that with the English language taking up such an important position in many educational systems around the world, it has become one of the most powerful means of "inclusion into or exclusion from" further education, employment or social positions. In many countries, particularly

former colonies of Britain, "small English-speaking elites" have continued the policies of the former colonizers, using access to English language education as a crucial distributor of social prestige and wealth.

Such a social effect of English beyond its native society can be assumed in different fields. The use of English in the military sector, with its diverse sections, might have different purposes for its learners. In other words, a cadet learning English in the Saudi National Guard might consider that English would give him more prestige and status in that field; another one may believe that it will enable him to communicate with other international personnel and earn him the type of experience on which his promotion will be based.

The spread of English means that it is increasingly seen not as an interest or as a vehicle for self-development. English is 'needed' by the ambitious, career-minded individual. ESP is essentially a response to this perception of language as a need. It is an exploration of how, exactly, that need is formulated.

1.1.3. English as an International Language

Language is considered, arguably as a factor in development. Candlin (1978) refers to the increasing specialisation of content in English teaching curricula since the early 60s. That resulted in the analysis from an international meeting of specialists held in London in December 1960 on second language learning as a factor in national development in Asia, Africa and Latin America. The analysis is significant for its concentration on the concept of 'communication need', implying a specification of purposes for the learning of languages, "internal communication, transmission of technology and science, international communication".

Crystal (1997), Graddol (1997) and the British Council website, reveal that English now has official or special status in at least seventy-five countries with a total population of over two billion. In the world around 375 million speak it as a first language, and as a second language by around 375 million speakers, and ever increasing which probably

outnumber those who speak it as a first language. Speakers of English as a foreign language are believed to be around 750 million people.

In considering what makes English so special, we have to observe the following information: It is the main language of books, newspapers, airports and air-traffic control, international business and academic conferences, science, technology, diplomacy, sport, international competitions, pop music and advertising, over two-thirds of the world's scientists read in English; three quarters of the world's mail is written in English; eighty per cent of the world's electronically stored information is in English; of the estimated 200 million users of the Internet, some 36% communicate in English (Crystal 1997, Graddol 1997).

This results in a crucial demand to learn English. In 2000 it was estimated that over one billion people will be learning English. At any one time, there are 130,000 students learning English and other skills through the medium of English in British Council teaching centres. Worldwide, around 700,000 people come to learn English in the UK each year (the British Council website).

Learning English is not the only way of coming into contact with English, as the industries of tourism, trade, and media are also factors of using and communicating in English. According to the British Council website, tourists are encouraged to visit the UK, businesspeople are invited to invest and build partnerships with the UK, and people are encouraged to watch British films. Nearly one in two European Union citizens claim to be able to converse in English according to a survey carried out in 1998, and 69% of survey respondents who did not speak English as their first language felt that it was the most important language for them to learn or use.

This reflects the contributions of the English language in the modern era. It can be assumed that these figures have increased considerably, bearing in mind the huge expansion in computers, internet and communications in the 1990s and 2000s.

Dudley-Evans and St John (1998) indicate that the spread of English occurred in parallel with the spread of the culture of international business and technological standardisation. Examples of such standardisation of using English in both technology and business have been manifest in the last thirty years or so. However, more recently,

standardisation has become very important in maintaining co-operation and co-ordination between countries. This is reflected in the United Nations' Security Council, and NATO. During the Second Gulf War in 1991, statements and conferences were in English and, more importantly, communications among the allied forces were in English. In Bosnia and Kosovo, English was the language used by NATO for press releases. Thus, it can be assumed that English is used in these situations, not only to speak to the media, but more importantly, behind the scenes, in the co-ordination and co-operation among officers from different countries. Such situations would demand that officers who are non-native English speakers should have knowledge of English and, specifically, of military English.

Apart from English being used as a second language in some countries, the strong position of English as a foreign language in most parts of the world is a factor that leads to the spread of the English at the present time. There has been an enormous increase in the number of speakers of English since 1900, between 700 million and one billion, as mentioned above. Pennycook (1994) points out that they can be divided into three roughly equal groups: native speakers, speakers of English as a second (or intra-national) language, and speakers of English as a foreign (or international) language. It is this last group which is the hardest to estimate but it is clearly the fastest growing section of world speakers of English. Phillipson (1992) explains that in EFL (English as a Foreign Language) countries such as France and Japan, English is not a medium of instruction or government, but is learnt at school for communicating with speakers of the language, or for reading texts in the language.

In that regard, Pennycook and Phillipson argue that English is an instrument of cultural, linguistic and economic domination by BANA (British, North America and Australia). However, from another perspective, language spread, especially the use of ESP, could be an attempt either to disengage culture from language by making language into a means to obtain specific forms of knowledge, or a means to propagate BANA values by linking language to the knowledge forms they value.

Hence, English is used both *internationally*, that is between native countries and other countries; and within a foreign country, *intra-nationally*, as in the case mentioned above, of medical research in Germany. Nevertheless, English significantly has more

roles. English is used for communication among countries distant from its native speaking sources, that is "intra-international".

For example, in a country such as Saudi Arabia, where developing technology is used within medicine, surgeons would communicate in English with their counterparts in a hospital in Germany, while performing a live transmitted operation, in order to exchange or consult for better results during the operation. This situation has been developing, as can be seen in Saudi Arabia, with advances in both technology and medicine, with the aim of exchanging information and experiences through the medium of a common language. Another similar instance is the situation when a Saudi officer meets another officer or representative from a Scandinavian country to negotiate on arms purchase. They would use English as the best possible medium of communication.

1.1.4 Sociological and Psychological Factors

Another factor which the rise of ESP can be attributed to is the increasing interest in the study of language within a social context in relation to the anthropological and ethnographic works of sociolinguists. Such works aim not only to specify the components of speech events, but also to develop a workable methodology, that is, to show that when designing courses for language learners, cases should be taken not to isolate the linguistic features from their cultural and social environment. Candlin (1978) explains that developments in linguistics, especially in sociology, social psychology, and philosophy, suggest that a view of language as communication could not easily be "adequately contained in the form - oriented sentence - based linguistics of the time". Understanding utterances as a pragmatic achievement requires a view of language in discourse terms, where what is needed is an examination of the concepts and values underlying sentence-meaning.

This is attributed to the theory of language developed by the British linguist J. R. Firth. Firth himself was influenced by the conceptions of the Professor of Anthropology, Malinowski. Firth's theory was that the language of a community could not be understood apart from its social contexts of use; the meaning of an utterance depends on the use to which it is put. Halliday and Hasan (1985) state that Firth was concerned with the cultural background of a language. So, the notion of meaning as a function in context, including 'social context' became central to Firth's view. The function of a

linguistic item in its context of use was paramount, as the social context is very important in the produced utterance, making 'meaning' the cornerstone of linguistic theory (Butler 1985).

Halliday and Hasan (1985) explain that Firth expanded Malinowski's view in the sense that he built the concept of context into a general linguistic theory. Firth himself explains the context of situation as "a group of related categories at different levels from grammatical categories but rather of the same abstract nature". According to Butler (1985), meaning in Firth's view is to be regarded as a complex of textual relations and phonetics, grammar, lexicography and semantics, each dealing with "its own components of the complex in its appropriate context". He adds that techniques of linguistic description should be applied not to a 'language as a whole' but to a 'restricted language' that has its own grammar and dictionary, such as sport, narrative, and political propaganda, etc.

As it can be inferred from Firth's views of a 'restricted language' explained by Butler, and Halliday's contributions, the idea of '(a) special context(s)' has led to more focus on ESP and ESP research developments. Robinson (1991:22) points out that an important reason for the development of ESP was the observation by those involved in teaching English as a foreign language that, while students might be acquiring some knowledge of English usage through EGP (English for General Purposes) classes, they had not actually learned to use the language in the "specialised context of work or study". In addition, Bloor and Bloor (1986:28) argue that "language acquisition develops through exposure to language in context" and a language learner is likely to acquire "the language from one variety as from another", but language use is learnt in an appropriate context. ESP, in a sense, provides that appropriacy.

Dudley-Evans and St. John (1998:10) indicate that ESP teaching is not necessarily related in content but it should always 'reflect the underlying concepts and activities of the broad discipline. For example, EAP (English for Academic Purposes) should make use of the essentially problem-solving methodology of academic study, and EBP (English for Business Purposes) teaching should reflect the business context in which business meetings or negotiations take place. Thus, they add, in ESP any teaching activity, whether its aim is to teach language or skills, is presented in a context, making

use of a (specific) context in presenting a specific task in order to introduce the specific language. For example, the *plant life cycle* could be the carrier content for presenting and practising the expressions of time sequence.

The consideration of contexts and special contexts is not restricted to spoken language but applies also to written discourses too, mainly genres. Dudley-Evans and St. John (1998:93) indicate "the more detailed sociological consideration of the context in which texts are written is important for ESP, especially in the professional and business context." They add that local discourse communities adapt or develop genres to meet the needs and the expectations of the readership, "and that there is a dynamic tension between the existence of models for a genre and the changes in the professional or business context that necessitate adaptation of the model." Therefore, such developments and contributions of language and context, sociolinguistically, lead to certain contributions in the ESP realm. The notion of a special language context led to developments of certain ways of researching discourse and discourse communities in ESP, finding special domain discourse components to be learnt and taught.

1.2. Approaches to ESP Course Design and Language Theories

ESP has benefited throughout its phases of development from theories of language and approaches to course design. It has led to certain differences in approaching ESP in teaching and learning. These historical phases of developments are followed by most of ESP researchers such as Robinson and Hutchinson and Waters.

1.2.1 Register

The term register has been described differently by different writers. For example, Mackay (1981) describes register as a norm of language use or field of discourse, which is essential to a discussion of style. They add that style itself is seen as the aggregate of linguistic markers. However, the most elaborate view of register was Halliday's. Halliday defines register as a "configuration of meanings that are typically associated

with a particular situational configuration or field, mode or tenor (style)", Halliday and Hasan (1985).

McCarthy and Carter (1994) describe register as a powerful theory of language variation, particularly useful to teachers, which has been developed by Halliday. Halliday et al. (1964) state:

> The category of register is needed when we want to account for what people do with their language, when we observe language variety in various contexts, we feel differences in the types of language selected as appropriate to different situations.

In his definition, Halliday clarifies that these terms 'field', 'mode' and 'tenor' "explain how language users interpret the social contexts or textual environments in which meanings are made". For example, field refers, generally, to the subject matter or topic of a "stretch" of a language, e.g. maths, geography etc; the mode refers, in particular, to the channel of communication in which the language is used, spoken or written or a combination of both; whereas tenor relates to the roles of the participants, their respective status and power within a communicative exchange (Robinson 1980; Halliday and Hasan 1985).

Halliday's account of register stems from his approach to grammar. Halliday and Hasan (1985:29) explain that the main strength of their theory of grammar is that it is meaning-driven, and aims to identify the role of various linguistic terms in any text in terms of their function in building meaning. Halliday considers linguistics as a kind of semiotics, study of meaning, and "culture as a set of semiotic systems, a set of systems of meaning, which all interrelate". He includes the term 'social system' in his theory, stating that it has two senses. First, it has a cultural meaning. He defines 'social-semiotic' as a definition of a social system or a culture as a system of meanings. The second meaning indicates the concern with the relationships between language and social culture, considering the social culture as one aspect of the social system.

Halliday and Hasan (1985:30) and Halliday et al. (1989) describe a system as "a way of doing things", thus orienting the description of language to its practice and use. According to their explanation, understanding the use of language means grouping such features as the nature of discourse, and of functional variation in language (register),

studying particular types of discourse (classroom, medical, etc.) for practical purposes such as training of teachers and specialists in the field, and exploring a range of specific and practical activities in which the language is involved. In sum, the main features of the theory are: "the emphasis on language as social semiotic, on language variation in relation to social contexts, on descriptions of language according to the user (dialects) and according to use (diatypes or *registers*)", leading to *register* being "widely agreed to be a useful way of systematizing the diversity of textual variation in a language" (McCarthy and Carter 1994:22).

These characteristics of register have been the main concern among ESP researchers, especially in the first stages of ESP development. At the beginning, the benefit of register was in determining some linguistic features by which certain teaching areas are marked. Then, it has enabled ESP investigators to determine different areas of interests in teaching English for different learners and for different purposes, as well identifying, though in a later stage of research within register and ESP, the discoursal community for these areas.

1.2.1.1 Register Analysis and Language Teaching

Register analysis is used in ESP in relation with frequency studies to identify the linguistic features needed for students in a course. This type of calculation, according to Mackay and Mountford (1978), is concerned with the teaching of a special language in ESP, if we assume that, a given subject area is as "statistically quantifiable register" defined in terms of formal linguistics properties, lexical items and sentence structure.

Dudley-Evans and St John (1998) note that the leading works in register analysis in ESP are Barber (1962), Ewer and Hughes-Davies (1971), all of which are included in Swales (1988). The focus of such works was on "the grammar and vocabulary of Scientific and Technical English" using what Swales (1988:1) refers to as an approach based on 'lexicostatistics'. It assumes that whereas the grammar of scientific and technical writing does not differ from General English, "certain grammatical and lexical forms are used much more frequently". For example, the use of the passive tense is more frequent than in General English. They also assert the importance of *"semi-* or *sub-*

technical vocabulary" such as 'acts as', 'enables', 'consists', etc, that is more likely to occur in such settings.

Such analysis resulted in the development of a structural approach to syllabus design, which apparently emphasised the structure of a language, with less attention to the function of that language. A distinguished project in this respect is Ewer and Latorre's *Basic Scientific English* (1969). This course design, as Mackay and Mountford (1978) explain, is based on:

a. Analysis of the English actually used in the "target" conditions
b. Selection of the most frequently-occurring items
c. Systematic exercising and drilling
d. The provision of supplementary readings from the corresponding literature.

The identification of certain linguistic features of a specific domain leads some others to argue that there is "a special language", because: users, for example, (bankers), in a particular domain (banking) use language in a particular way, resulting in "banking English" (special language). Al-Gorashi (1988) explains that in an ESP context register reflects the view that ESP implies a special language, rather than a specific aim on the part of the learner. For example, in an ESP situation, such as KKMA, our target institution of investigation, register would imply the use of special lexis for military purposes as well as special structures that suit the settings of the military environment, whether learning or working.

Register analysis is one of the earlier attempts to define certain domains in language teaching and thus ESP specialism determining features or characteristics, structure and lexis, of certain domains and presumably indicating how they differ.

Although the term 'special language' is open to criticism or may have been played down recently, Robinson (1991) clarifies that language for specific purposes (LSP) does not fulfil the requirements for a language in the usual sense, as it is "not composed exclusively of its own resources". Some writers suggest the term "technolect" is a more useful term than special language, "-lect" as in dialect, "a form of language" arriving to "a special form" of language. However, since there is no clear-cut definition of special language or general language, these are best seen as "working concepts". In addition,

"special language" may presume "special education". It may be restricted to "communication among specialists in the same or closely related fields" Robinson continues to explain that what is important in ESP, as others point out, is "the content of students' specialist disciplines," that is, the knowledge and the conceptual network involved. Moreover, it is important in ESP to know the subject as well as the technical terms. Thus, the language of special domain reflects subject knowledge but is probably not a special language.

Hutchinson and Waters (1987) point out that the concept of language variation gave rise to types based on register analysis. The main aim of register analysis was to produce a syllabus with more focus on the forms language students would meet in their working life and with less focus on forms that they would not meet. This type of approach marked the early stages of ESP, in the early 60s. It was also linked with the frequency studies in designing syllabuses, for example Barber (1962) and Ewer and Lattore (1967). Robinson (1991) cites Hoffman in explaining that such studies were quantitative nature, concerned with "the significantly frequent occurrence of certain speech elements, forms or structures that characterise scientific writing and spoken discourse". Consequently, a statistical procedure gives an indication for selecting an inventory for teaching purposes. Hoffman adds that its best results are seen at the word and phrase level, that is, producing lists of lexical items to help students to be more focused and effective in teaching and learning. Courses based on register analysis and frequency studies were mainly associated with the structural approach to language teaching, such as sub-drilling, sequencing, etc., as in Ewer and Lattore (1967).

The structural approach is also characterised by the ordering of the language items to be taught into a list of grammatical structures and lexical items. The learner is exposed to only a limited sample of the target language at a time and the sample is carefully controlled by the teaching situation. The learner reintegrates the language that has been broken into pieces and presented to him, and this usually takes place at the final stage of learning, the advanced level. Therefore, the result of applying register analyses for specifying the content of special-purpose courses has been linked to the conventional structural approaches to syllabus design, and to a more restricted sample of language data.

The main problem of register analysis and frequency studies is that they are 'insubstantial' as a basis for selecting items of an ESP syllabus, in the sense that it is difficult to decide what distinguishes a language register. Also, they describe a language rather than explain it, and hence are more related to the quantified linguistic feature 'form' rather than their function or use (Coffey 1984; Hutchinson and Waters 1987 and Robinson 1991). Dudley-Evans and St John (1998) cite Swales' (1988) comment on one of the first significant ESP (EST) textbooks, A. J. Herbert's *The Structure of Technical English* (1965): it was good at covering the language, semi-technical vocabulary, but not as good as a classroom textbook. "The passages were dense and lacking authenticity, the accompanying diagrams were not very supportive, and worst of all, the exercises were repetitive and lacking in variety" and that it is a difficult book to use. "Theoretical objections were that the concentration on a restricted range of grammar and vocabulary was an insufficient basis for Science and Technology and that this concentration on *form* needed to be replaced by a concentration on language *use* and *communication*."

Another criticism of register analysis, as Hutchinson and Waters (1987) explain, was that a frequency of a form in a text is overemphasised as the basis for a syllabus, since "a form is commonly drawn from the stock of the grammar of the language". Besides, this approach did not adequately supply the learner with awareness of the meaning conveyed in the use of the language in a social context, and meaning was taught primarily in relation to isolated words and sentences, rather than within sentences (Mathula 1986). Many found it not to be the most effective way of designing language courses. Most of the materials produced under register analysis followed a similar pattern, which was perceived as a weakness of the approach. These criticisms led to the second major movement in ESP, discourse or rhetoric analysis.

1.2.2 Discourse and rhetoric analysis

Discourse and rhetoric analysis was another phase of the developments in ESP which emerged probably as a reaction to the previous focus on register, with the aim of giving more account of an analysis beyond the sentences level. This was as a result of some

limitations in the first phase. Dudley-Evans and St John (1998:22) state that the work of 'lexicostatiscians' looked for the language of specific registers, but offered little explanation of "why certain grammatical pattern are favoured by the English of Science and Technology, nor of how sentences are combined to form paragraphs and whole texts of 'discourses'."

Robinson (1991) describes the move to discourse and rhetoric analysis as a significant shift of approach in linguistics analysis for ESP. It assumes that the importance is not in the frequency of one feature more than another, as was assumed in the first phase, but the choice of certain features rather than others in developing the text. Therefore, the focus was on the text, rather than the sentence. Thus, the focus was changed from sentence structure, to knowing how sentences were combined on discourse to produce meaning (Hutchinson and Waters 1987).

Most of the research in this area, as Dudley-Evans and St John (1998) and Hutchinson and Waters (1987) suggest, is linked by the work of Lackstrom, Selinker and Trimble (1973) whose work is best summarised in Trimble (1985). Trimble defines rhetoric as 'the process a writer uses to produces a desired piece of text' and describes EST text as 'concerned only with the presentation of facts, hypotheses and similar type of information'. Widdowson led the research in Britain, whereas Selinker and Louis Trimble were prominent in the US. For example, Trimble (1985) points out that the term 'rhetoric' refers to both organisation and content. He also adds that it is not a substitute for the term 'discourse', as it is one part of the concept discourse. Although he uses both terms to refer to the presentation of information in written, not oral form, he does not accept them as synonyms.

Moreover, Mackay (1981) explains some of the features of the discourse analysis. He describes a discourse as a connected and self-contained body of language that has some identifiable instrumental or integrative purposes a communicative function of a text that is expressed in units higher than the sentence, e.g. paragraph, episodes, etc. The organisation of discourses according to principles of rhetoric may be seen as these uses of language that provide unity, coherence and emphasis; or as techniques of exposition and inquiry such as observation, description, analysis, comparison, contrast, etc.

Discourse analysis is seen as a development which had a profound effect on ESP. It was a logical development of the F/N (Functional/Notional) approach, in that the latter indicates that there is a more meaning than just words in the sentences, and the context of sentences is important in creating the meaning. Such work, according to Dudley-Evans and St John (1998:23), introduced the idea of relating language *form* to language *use*, and made use the main criterion for the selection of ESP teaching materials. Hutchinson and Waters (1987) identify two uses of discourse analysis. In the first, learners are made aware of the stages in "certain set-piece transaction" associated with particular specialist fields. That is, the transaction of a discourse develops sequentially, one stage upon the other. Examples are doctor-patient communication cited by Candlin (1987) and English for International Banking, cited by Ferguson and O'Rally (1979). The second is the use of discourse materials in ESP to explain the way meaning is created by the relative positions of the sentences in a written text. It has become an important feature in many ESP textbooks that they seek to develop a knowledge of how sentences are combined in texts in order to produce a particular meaning (Hutchinson and Waters 1987).

The main criticism of this approach is that it represents the real nature of discourse, that it establishes patterns, but does not account for these patterns creating meaning. In trying to help those who are learning structural sentences, it does not enable them to use these patterns in communication. It is also not certain that making learners aware of the patterns of discourse will enable them to use these patterns in communication (Coulthard 1977; Allen and Widdowson 1974; and Hutchinson and Waters 1987).

1.2.3 Functional/Notional Approach and Communicative Language Teaching CLT

This type of approach to syllabus design and language teaching emerged originally as a reaction to the limitations of the structuralist approach, mainly to account for the communicative competence of learners. Newmark (1966) states that the problem of communicative incompetence exists because acquisition cannot simply be 'additive'. In his view, "complex bits of language" are learned as a whole chunk at a time. He

recommends that treatment is to exploit the "exponential power available in learning in natural chunks." Hutchinson and Waters (1987) explain that functions, in the functional approach, relate to the social behaviour indicating an intention of a speaker or writer, e.g. advising, warning, threatening, describing; etc. and they are also treated equally as communicative acts. On the other hand, notions indicate the way in which the human mind thinks in categories where the mind and, thereby, language divide reality, e.g. time, frequency, duration, number, location, quantity, quality; etc.

In the early seventies, the functional approach began to influence language teaching, as a result of the Council of Europe attempting to find a simplified way of presenting syllabuses for learning different languages and avoiding the focus on some formal features of some European languages which were difficult for their learners.

The development of the F/N approach was combined with Communicative Language Teaching (CLT), which recognises the necessity for teaching language based on inventories which are arrived at by considering presumed communicative needs. This way of teaching stems from a theory of language as a communicative tool (Richards and Rodgers 1986). Littlewood (1981) points out that one of the most characteristic features of CLT is that it gives more systematic attention to functional as well as structural aspects of language. The most distinguished techniques of CLT, as Richards and Rodgers identify, are learners working in pairs or groups, problem-solving tasks, etc. Howatt (1984) explains that in this approach to teaching, there is an emphasis on acquiring language through communication and 'not only activating an existing but inert knowledge of the language but stimulating the development of the language system itself'.

Hutchinson and Waters (1987) state that this approach has a strong influence on the ESP Syllabus. It has also been seen as a suitable move in the sense that ESP students have already followed a structurally organised syllabus and learnt the basic grammar, so what they need to learn is how to use the knowledge they already have. Munby's (1978) project in course design is a landmark of using communicative approach in designing courses. It is also blossomed the 'content specification' in ESP courses.

However, the functional/notional approach has not been uncriticised. The main problem with this approach, as Hutchinson and Waters (1987) argue, is that it was adopted as a replacement for the structural approach, and not particularly taken as a syllabus itself. The two approaches are seen as distinct, when they should complete and support each other: structure + context=function. Richards and Rodgers (1986) criticise the F/N approach as merely replacing, for example, a list of grammar items, with another of notions and functions, making it only a specification of products rather than a communicative process. Widdowson's (1979) criticism of this approach is that it provides an alternative:

> What we are offered in Wilkins (1976) is really only a very partial and imprecise description of certain semantic and pragmatic rules which are used for reference when people interact. They tell us nothing about the procedures people employ in the application of these rules when they are actually emerged in communication activity.....If we are to adopt a communicative approach to teaching which tasks as its primary purpose the development of the ability to do things with language, then it is discourse which must be of the centre of our attention.
> (Widdowson 1979:254)

1.2.4. Skills and Strategies Approach

The main rationale of a skills-based course, as Dudley-Evans and St John (1998) indicate, is that the teaching of language in itself is not sufficient for the development of the ability to perform the tasks required of a tertiary level student, a business person or a practising engineer. The basis of this approach is that, in addition to language work, there is a need to address the thought processes that underpin language use. These thought processes might be either fairly general or specific to a particular discipline or profession. The development of interest in skills is attributed to the functional-notional material accompanied by the ideas of communicative language teaching. The needs analysis approach, which was growing alongside the skills approach more than any other approach, made it possible to identify priorities amongst the four skills for a given approach.

The skills-strategies approach to course design is related to projects in ESP to develop certain ability skills of students, e.g. reading (Hutchinson and Waters 1987). It aims to assist learners in developing skills and strategies not only during a course, but also after

it. This purpose is not to provide a special corpus of linguistic knowledge, but to make learners better processors of information. Dudley-Evans and St John (1998:24) point out that skills are taught using general carrier content, and reading or listening passages are chosen on the basis of general academic interest and authenticity. It is assumed that the skills learnt through the exercises could be transferred to the students' own specific tasks.

Johnson (1996) explains that designing any syllabus usually requires a syllabus inventory, which refers to a set of lists of items to be covered, or 'taken into consideration' during the language teaching programme. He identifies such an inventory as including settings, topics, roles, notions, functions and structures. For example, he clarifies that in a functional syllabus the settings list would determine the contexts in which the functions were introduced; the role list would determine who spoke to whom, and so on, using unordered lists of the syllabus inventory. In contrast, in a skills-syllabus, as Johnson (1996) points out, language behaviour is divided into skills, as in general areas of reading, writing and speaking, then into subskills as when reading is continued as reading for detail, skimming and scanning. The level of the analysis would be broader 'content specification' than in the narrow term, used in some syllabus projects. Johnson argues that specifying content by dividing language behaviour into subskills will enable syllabus designers to be able to list, for example 'using syntactic structures' as a large skill area, which would then be subdivided. Thus, for example, 'the present perfect' would have a place on a skills syllabus just as well on other more traditional syllabuses.

The skills syllabus is underlain by a distinction which Widdowson (1981) made between a goal-oriented course and a process-oriented course, that is, one which not only achieves practical goals, but also enables the learners to achieve what they can within given constraints (Holmes 1982). Holmes, using the term process-oriented synonymously with skill-centred, describes this approach as realistic in concentrating on strategies and processes which enable students to be aware of their abilities, and motivating them to approach target texts on their own after the end of the course.

The skill-centred course design is linked with needs analysis (NA) within ESP. Hutchinson and Waters (1987) explain that NA provides a basis to discover the

underlying competence that enables people to perform in the target situation. In addition, it makes the course designer investigate the potential knowledge and abilities that learners bring to the classroom. The advantage of the skill-centred approach is that it takes learners more into account than in previous approaches. It looks at the language in the terms in which the learner's mind processes it. However, one of the deficiencies of this approach is that it takes the learner into account as a user of language, not as a learner.

1.2.5 Learning-Centred Approach

The Learning-Centred Approach is a term which was introduced by Hutchinson and Waters (1987). It is an approach to course design which takes the learner fully into account in every stage. It is seen as a development of other approaches, trying to cover the gaps in the course design process. For example, language centred approaches, such as those that are register based, describe the target situation performance as determining the ESP course, whereas a skill-centred approach goes beyond that, aiming to describe what the processes enable someone to perform. The learning-centred approach includes looking beyond competence to discover how someone acquires that competence:

Learner-centred teaching and learning stems from the investigation into learning strategies and cognitive styles. Nunan (1991:178) describes such an approach as building on a belief that "learners will bring to the learning situation different beliefs and attitudes about the nature of language and language learning and that these beliefs and attitudes need to be taken into consideration in the selection of content and learning experiences." Then, if learning strategies and cognitive styles are developed into a learning-centred approach they look beyond the competence that enables someone to perform, because someone acquires that competence (Hutchinson and Waters 1987).

Hutchinson and Waters indicate that in the learning-centred approach, course design is a negotiated process, in which the ESP learning situation and the target situation will both influence the nature of the syllabus, materials, methodology and evaluation procedures. In addition, course design is a dynamic process where needs and resources vary with time, and feedback channels have to be established to see the responses to the development of the course.

Hutchinson and Waters (1987) illustrate different stages of the course design process in a learning-centred approach. They begin by identifying learners in relation to analyses of both the target and learning situation. These situations relate to the theoretical views of language and theoretical views of learning. The second stage involves identification of skills and knowledge in relation to function in the target situation. At the same time, looking at the theoretical views of learning and analysing the learning situation, we can identify attitudes of learners as well as their potential needs, constraints on learning and the teaching situation. This leads to the process of writing the syllabus and materials required for these learning and target situations, and evaluating this syllabus, which can lead to the same process all over again.

1.2.6. Genre and Genre Analysis

Genre analysis use with ESP is mainly associated with Swales' work (1981-90) on the introduction to an academic article. In his early article, Swales identifies 'moves' and 'steps' as regular pattern that appears in a certain order in such text types as the academic article. This model has been a major influence in research on EAP. Dudley-Evans and St John (1998:90) point out that the advantage of the model is that steps and moves could reflect "a reality in text and in the way in which writers approach the task of writing up their research". From a pedagogic point of view, it is possible to convert the analysis very readily into teaching materials that provide a way into both the organisation of writing and the relevant language forms. Swales' work has led to research in other sections of the research article: results, discussion of results and abstract. It was also developed by other researchers such as Hopkins and Dudley-Evans (1994).

In the area of English for Occupational Purposes (EOP), Bhatia (1993) argues that the techniques of genre analysis developed generally for the study of academic text can be applied to business letters and legal documents. Such research in genre is text-based. Dudley-Evans and St John (1998:91-92) point out that it can be useful to ESP teachers as a way of preparing reading and writing materials, but there is a disadvantage that teachers might get 'stuck' in the text, being only interested in "the surface features rather than the context and other outside influences on the text".

In a more general classification of genre, Yunick (1997) cites Hyon (1996) to define three types, or what he calls traditions, of genre analysis. The first is the English for Specific Purposes group which primarily includes Swales (1990); Bhatia (1993); Johns and Dudley-Evans (1991); and Johns (1995). The second group is the Australian Educational Linguistics, represented by Cope and Kalantzis (1993); LERN, (1990); Christie (1989), (1992); Martin, (1989); Halliday and Martin (1993). The third group is the New Rhetoric marked by Bazerman 1988; Bizzel 1992; and Berkenkotter and Huckin, 1995.

Yunick (1997) explains that the three traditions have some common features in analysing the relation of social function to language use in particular culturally recognised contexts and applying the analysis to language learning contexts. However, Yunick points out, they differ in the type of educational context to which they are applied each focuses on a particular aspect of the language and social function relationship. This comment is apparently related to functional linguistics, which is more associated with Yunick and his interpretation of register.

For example, if we take the first tradition, genre in ESP, which is our main concern here, according to Yunick's interpretation, it is considered to be more flexible as a strategy for text-based needs analysis in the sense that it draws from other areas. One of the features of the educational context for ESP is that it is mainly concerned with non-native speakers, which differentiates it from the Australian Educational Linguistics, which focuses on mother tongue education. Another characteristic of genre in ESP is the influence of the Hallidayan linguistic tradition. In this respect it is similar to Australian educational linguistics, but it differs in the sense that it has less focus on the linguistic model and more on "top-down ethnographic methodology" and a synthesis of diverse styles of learning and discourse. Finally, genre in ESP not only considers social purposes but also focuses on moves in discourse structure.

Swales (1990:40-41) provides a possible definition of the term genre, implying different features, in order to be suitable for applied purposes such as in language -teaching and language learning. He points out that a genre consists of a class of communicative events, and that the members of it share a set of communicative purposes. These purposes are identified by "the expert members of the parent discourse community"

establishing the rationale of the genre. Such a rationale forms "the schematic structure of discourse" and influences and constrains choice of content and style.

This leads to one of the advantages of genre analysis, as Dudley-Evans and St John (1998:92) suggest; that is, its ability to relate textual findings to features of the discourse community within which the genre is produced. Swales (1990: 24-27) lists the following six defining characteristics of a discourse community that compose or are identified as an existing part of genre:

1. A discourse community has a broadly agreed set of common public goals.
2. A discourse community has mechanisms of intercommunication among its members.
3. A discourse community uses its participatory mechanisms primarily to provide information and feedback.
4. A discourse community utilises and hence possesses one or more genres in the communicative furtherance of its aims.
5. In addition to owning genres, a discourse community has acquired some specific lexis.
6. A discourse community has a threshold level of members with a suitable degree of relevant content and discoursal expertise.

Discourse and discourse analysis is a field of research on its own. However, the relation to genre is not overlooked, especially in relation to the discourse community as noted above. Dudley-Evans and St John (1998:92) suggest that although the concept of a discourse community is extremely useful, it can be difficult in practice to produce real concrete examples of actual discourse communities, and that an individual may be a member of many discourse communities.

Citing Bazerman and Paradis' view (1991), Dudley-Evans and St John (1998) state that it is important for ESP to have more detailed sociological consideration of the context in which texts are written, especially in the professional and business context. Thus, sociologically, local discourse communities adapt or develop genres to meet the needs and the expectations of the readership. In that sense, then, it will be more useful within ESP cases to emphasise the importance of taking into consideration the possible sub-

cultures and their features in observing any ESP situation. For instance, in reviewing the military environment certain features of such sub-cultures, such as way of living in campus, discipline, obeying orders, hierarchy of ranks; etc, would be predicted to add to the understanding of the whole situation and especially the learning one.

Dudley-Evans and Hewings (1996) suggest that to benefit from genres we need to teach moves, but in a flexible manner. For example in EAP, it can be explained that different departments expect students to adopt different positions. This may be found in the British Master of Business or Finance, where students are asked to adopt the role of business advisor making recommendations to an imagined client. In EOP (English for Occupational Purposes) it is necessary that writers use appropriate polite strategies in making requests or complaints and generally conducting business activities through faxes, letters and email messages.

Therefore, the importance and influence of genre in ESP is outstanding, especially in recent years. Moreover, research in the area is rapidly developing. Swales (1990) emphasises the danger of ignoring genre, which amounts to ignoring communicative purpose. He explains that, for example, to consider the criteria that determine "the nature or the nurture" of the task which looks at 'the language-learning process in the classroom', may be appropriate at the beginning stages. On the other hand, it is insufficient and does not account for situations in which students are already having to cope with "the exigencies of the English-speaking" world outside. He also emphasises the importance of considering the role of the genre in its environment in methodology in order to aim at well-conceived and useful learning tasks.

1.2.6.1 Register and Genre

Yunick (1997:234) explains that although genre analysis endeavours to be a multi- or perhaps a theoretical area of study, it is often distinguished from 'register analysis'. The possible assumed relation between register and genre is not clear according to Swales (1990). Swales (1990: 2-4) himself does not see such a relationship, since the register concept to which he refers as a progression from a very general correlation between a 'diatypic variety' and its lexico-grammatical features (e.g., the work on 'Scientific English' by Huddleston, 1971) to deeper and narrower analyses of texts with focus on

discourse structure. Yunick (1997) points out that by incorporating notions from writing studies, ethnography and psychology, Swales creates a 'thicker' version of register analysis. Consequently, Swales refers to register as "discourse genre". Apparently, Swales' concept of register is used to contrast genre and is widely seen as a pre-Hallidayan register analysis one.

In appropriating the term 'register' from T. R. Reid and the concept of 'context of situation' of Firth and Malinowski, Halliday constructs a stratified theory of context in relating lexico-grammatical patterns with features of context of situation. The context of a situation is broken down into three aspects, as it was mentioned in 1.2.1, *field, tenor* and *mode*, Halliday (1989: 12). Yunick (1997) points out that according to Halliday's explanations, the context of situation is more than a notion of cultural and situational surrounding. It is rather a configuration of semiotic systems (Halliday, 1978: 145). Register is, then, a semantic meaning potential within which linguistic choices are made; genre, on the other hand, has no serious theoretical status. It is seen as a different sort of unit, a cultural and historical phenomenon which is involved in the realisation of mode (Halliday, 1978: 145). Halliday explains: "genre is at once a subordinate concept to the mode aspect of register and at the same time genre selects for particular field and tenor choices." Thus, the goals of Hallidayan register and genre analysis in the ESP framework are seen as compatible.

Yunick (1997: 328) states that the primary distinction, however, between Hallidayan register and the notion of genre in ESP is the position of purpose in the conceptualisation. Purpose is the organising concept of genre analysis, but only a component (albeit an important one) in Hallidayan register. The Hallidayan concept of register has been criticised as lacking clarity in relation to the concept of purpose. For example, Martin (1992: 500) notes that Halliday has been inconsistent as to whether rhetorical purpose is part of field or mode. Swales cites Martin (1985) to emphasise the disentangling of genre from register within the school of systemic linguistics, explaining that genres are realised through registers, while registers are realised through language:

> Genres are how things get done, when language is used to accomplish them. They range from literary forms: poems, narratives, expositions,

> lectures, seminars, recipes, manuals, appointment making, service encounters, news broadcasts and so on. The term genre is used here to embrace all of the linguistically realised activity types which comprise so much of our culture.   (Martin 1985:250)

Swales (1990:40) explains that Martin presents two reasons to establish genre as a system underlying register. The first is the fact that genres constrain ways in which the variables of register, field, tenor and mode can be combined in a particular society. The second reason recognises that genres consist of a system for accomplishing social purposes by verbal means leading to an analysis of discourse structure.

Couture (1986) gives a slightly different explanation of the use of register and genre within systemic linguistics, as Swales has explained. He clarifies that register 'imposes' constraints at the linguistic level of vocabulary and syntax, while genre constraints work at the level of discourse structure. He goes on to illustrate that genre can be realised only in completed texts; and it determines conditions for beginning, continuing and ending.

The link between register, genre, and discourse is inevitable. Although they are seen as separate research areas, overlapping or confusion exists. Sometimes the confusion occurs because of attempts at distinction. For example, Yunick (1997:329) points out that registers are sometimes seen as only lexico-grammatical patterns, and genres as discourse structure patterns. Though productive, this distinction is confusing especially if seen within ESP rather than systemic or functional linguistics. For instance, registers are generally stylistic patterns while genres are structured texts. The confusion lies in the sense that all language *use* is realised in terms of both lexico-grammar and discourse structure, and both discourse structure and lexico-grammatical patterns may be specified in varying degrees prototypically.

Ferguson (1994: 21-22) describes another confusion, where register analysis is seen as concerned with situation types and genre analysis with message types. In addition, Yunick (1997:329) looks at another confusion in contrasting register and genre in discourse structure in that those who would present either register (Halliday and Hasan, 1989) or genre (Swales, 1990; Bhatia, 1993) as a theory of contextualization include both discourse structure and lexico-grammatical patterns in what they consider register

or genre, respectively, to be. Genre analysis then turns to the relationship between lexico-grammatical patterns and discourse structure, and between both and context.

Swales (1990:41-42) concludes the comparison by explaining that genre seems to be "indigestible" within linguistics, arguing that this comes from the fact that register is "a well-established and central concept in linguistics" whereas genre is a modern "appendage". It derives its importance from the studies of text structure which is arguably the field-mode constitution of register. In order to show the usefulness of Swales' model of genre it can be illustrated in the figure below:

Fig.1.1 Swales' Model of Genre

Therefore, the aim of Swales's concept of genre is the communicative benefit of its analysis. Within ESP, it has been adopted to structure the designing of courses for learners as they meant to be communicative and relative.

1.2.7 ESP developments and present status

That ESP has benefited from approaches in syllabus design processes, such as register analysis, functional/notional syllabus and needs analysis, is not in doubt. The development of an ESP module was one of the efforts that Swales has contributed. Bloor (1998: 47-48) observes that Swales, while keeping a "constant vigil" against

views and trends that might damage ESP, has made a considerable contribution (in the most interventionist way) in establishing ESP. Swales (1985:208) himself observes that it is better to see ESP as a "recently-evolved species that best thrives in certain secluded and restricted kinds of habits".

However, we can see ESP from a different starting point. Widdowson (1998:3) points out that the term English for Specific Purposes assumes that it is English which is somehow "peculiar to the range of principles and procedures" which determine that particular profession"; and so we have "English which is specific, associated with a kind of institutional activity which is also conceived of as specific". Widdowson (1998) regards ESP as what communication in English generally is all about. Communication, he argues, is closely related to community and culture; if you do not share a common view, a common culture and the linguistic categorisation that goes with it, then communication will prove difficult. By illustrating some examples of texts, Widdowson concludes that when a text fails to textualise a discoursal relationship, the text becomes cohesive but incoherent, and there will be no convergence on shared knowledge, no common frame of reference. He indicates that there is no cohesion without coherence and this is nothing to do with the difficulty of the language of the text. In other words, the simplicity of the language is not to be equated with accessibility of the language of meaning; and what causes the problem in such texts is that there is a "disparity in the perception of the world". Thus, one can understand the syntactic structure of a text without comprehending the discoursal communicative process out of it.

Thus, knowing the language is not always enough to communicate. The emphasis here is on the "discourse community" of communication in ESP cases. In that sense, Swales (1990) suggests that communication implies community and membership is "mediated with the meaning of the text"; and it is not enough to know the semantic meanings of the words, because, he argues, words are semantically connected to form "conceptualisations of reality which define the culture of a particular discourse community". Thus, being acquainted with the culture of a discourse community is of considerable importance in communicating within that community. Widdowson (1998:8) illustrates that, stating:

> Those who belong to the discourse community of investment banking would of course be able to use the expression to key them in directly to

what you know. In other words, the term *index-linked* would itself be pragmatically index-linked to their familiar affairs. They would be able to infer the relevant discourse because of their *professional* competence as members of this discourse community. There will be no need for them to analyse the meaning out of the text painstakingly, as I have to do as an outsider...

Thus, communication, according to Widdowson, is not just a matter of "issuing semantic tokens of fixed meaning but of using the resources of the language code indexically", to invoke "shared schematic knowledge" of ideational patterns of conceptualisations and interpersonal patterns of communications, shared assumptions, beliefs, values, conventions of behaviour, in other words, aspects of a "common culture which define particular discourse communities" (Widdowson 1998: 8-9)

In that sense, communication is very much linked to that comprehensive research aiming to expand "communicative efficiency" which has been accomplished in the ESP field on *genre analysis* by people such as Swales (1990) and Bhatia (1993). In addition to what is mentioned above under register analysis, this explanation of genre recognises certain conventions for language use in certain domains of professional and occupational activity. It is seen as a development from, and an improvement on, register analysis, because it deals with discourse and not just text, and looks beyond the sentence level. In other words, it attempts not only to expose what linguistic forms are manifested but how they realise, that is, make real the conceptual and rhetorical structures, modes of thought and action, which are established as conventional for certain discourse communities (Swales, 1990; Widdowson, 1998).

Genre analysis is, therefore, not primarily about the English of Engineering, of Medicine, of Business or Banking, but about the "conventions of thought and communication which define these areas of professional activity, and how, incidentally, these are given expression, or textualised, in English" (Widdowson 1998:10-11). It is apparent that Swales' practical approach to ESP is a genre-based approach, which deviates from the conventional register or text analysis in the sense that it emphasises the importance linked with communicative purposes within communicative settings (Bloor 1998).

Then it can be argued that there is a realm which combines ESP, register, discourse (community, sub-culture) and genre; including one does not, therefore, necessarily exclude the other, such as in Martin's Hallidayan model of ESP. Holme (1997:4) describes similar view of ESP:

> In fact ESP is about the discovery and progressive redefinition of individual's relationship to a skills community or subculture and as such it posits methods that make a far stronger affective appeal than the mere learning of formulaic interactions with fictitious communities that communicative teaching has come to imply.

Holliday (1994) emphasises the use of ethnographic methodology, including the classroom culture which is mostly within the host institution culture, and calls it an appropriate methodology. However, the whole process of involving the subculture or discourse community in the ESP course is apparently seen in investigating learners and their needs within that specific environment. Holme (1997:3-4) states that ESP requires forms of needs analysis that "perceive the target situation and the learning situation as aspects of the same continuum identifiable as social interaction or communicative exchange. A course objective should not be to separate the student from the language they have to learn, or the language from its circumstances of use, or the act of acquisition from the act of use".

1.3. Types of ESP

ESP in itself is considered to be consisting of different types. It has been subdivided into different specifications of English. Kennedy and Bolitho (1984:3) describe, that ESP types deal with "very broad distinctions; for teaching purposes much finer distinctions are required". Also, they suggest that such types usually begin in providing an "overall picture of the main groups of learners which might be a concern to an ESP teacher".

EST (English for Science and Technology) and EAP (English for Academic Purposes) are the main fields that come under the ESP umbrella. EST was one of the original types of ESP, developed in line with developments in science and technology in the modern world. According to one view, EAP was developed along with ESP as one of its types, referring to the specific purpose of taking an academic course at the university level (Holme 1996). Another view sees EAP as having, a quite different, general study-skills orientation, rather than a specific language context analysis. According to this view, EAP subsumes ESP which could refer to its sub-specialisation, English for (studying) biological sciences, or English for Law, for example Jordan (1997).

The view taken here is that ESP refers to any English teaching context where the target language context of language use is known and this context can inform the teaching syllabus about the language skills, language context or language types of teaching tasks that are required. The danger is that, as Widdowson (1998) observed, this can result in a view where all language teaching is seen as a kind of ESP, English for buying hamburgers for example. Yet if one adds a discourse community requirement and looks for a wider, practised concept of language use one exposes some limitations on what is an ESP what is not. ESP then supposes that one is preparing a student for entry into a community of product and discourse demands that intakes.

At present, ESP is a very large and expanding research field. Accordingly, the types that can be listed under ESP have expanded too. As many as ten or fifteen types or branches of language study can be named under ESP and the process is continuing and expanding as fields of research and practice to develop. Nevertheless, these branches or types are not always listed in the same way, resulting in some differences in categorisation.

Hutchinson and Waters (1987:17) consider ESP as a one whole branch stemming from English as a foreign language. They portray the whole picture as a tree of ELT, with three main branches:

- English for Science and Technology (EST)
- English for Business and Economics (EBE)
- English for Social Sciences (ESS)

According to their description, EAP (English for Academic Purposes) and EOP (English for Occupational Purposes) are the main body of ESP, from which stem the very specific fields such as English for Medical Studies, English for Economics, and English for Psychology, etc. This way of listing ESP types, although simple, can lead to overlap or confusion. This might be ascribed to its simplicity; because the distinction between EAP and EOP is not always valid. For example, English for Economics may be for either academic purposes or occupational purposes.

The branching of ESP might be seen to vary according to the school behind it. For example, as in Figure 1.2, Johns (1990) illustrates the ESP divisions in the United States. He lists four main branches of ESP: academic, professional, vocational and sociocultural.

Figure 1.2 Types of ESP
(John 1990)

The increasing development in various fields which use the English language has resulted in more specific needs of the language in certain domains. That is to say, the more specific the domain is, the more specific the needs are. To illustrate this, as shown in Figure 1.3, Holme (1997) introduces a pyramid of specific needs whereby the higher the levels of the pyramid, the more specific the language need becomes; resulting in the opportunity for more specific branches to emerge within these domains.

Figure 1.3   ESP Types according to needs

(Holme 1997)

For example, EAP (English for Academic Purposes) is less specific, but at successive levels it becomes increasingly specific, reaching the very specific EAC (English for an Academic Conference). In that sense, Holme (1997) suggests that the bottom of the Pyramid, e.g. EAP and EOP, might be considered as a category of specialisation rather than a specialisation by itself.

1.3.1 English for Military Purposes (EMP)

In continuing the above discussion of the developments of the use of English in different aspects, the military field has attracted some attention in recent years. After World War II, the use of English in the military content developed considerably, primarily due to the outcomes of the war. The US and the UK emerged as the major military powers, with the US becoming totally dominant at the end of the 20th century. McBeath (1999: 9) describes this situation as follows:

> In the post-war world, it was a simple matter for the British and American training authorities to reduce their intake of students, while adding English to their list of courses. Indeed, the British already have experience in this area, having offered instruction to personnel from the Free French, Dutch, Polish forces etc. stationed in Britain during the War. As a result, the Army school of languages at Beaconsfield and the Lackland Air Force Base at San Antonio, Texas, became centres for EMP (English for Military Purposes), attracting broadly similar students.

The cooperation, coordination and interchange of military information with these countries has to be in English. Not only that, but nowadays English has become the chief language of the international military. Examples of that, as mentioned earlier, are the United Nations and the NATO military deployment in various parts of the world.

Thus, the use of English in the military field does not necessarily involve a native speaking country. It might be used between or among countries where English is used as a foreign or a second language, as it was discussed in 1.1.4 above of *intra-international* vs. *international* use of English. For instance, military cooperation, coordination, exchange of information, or personnel training between Saudi Arabia and, for instance, Germany or Sweden would be mainly in English. McBeath (1999) explains that the teaching of English with military interests has spread all over the world, especially in countries receiving British and American aid, hardware, support or supplies.

English for Military Purposes EMP is emphasised by McBeath (1999) as an existing branch within ESP. From his past experience as an expatriate military personnel, he indicates the difficulty in characterising EMP. This is due, as he points out, to the nature of the constitutions of the military. For example, in some countries the military includes three main parts: the army, navy and air force; and it could include paramilitary forces

like National Guards or Coastguards. Such a set-up will lead to each service having its own requirements, and within any army, different regiments are likely to handle different equipment.

> The language needs of personnel in the Military Police, Medical Services, Signal Support, Supply Depot or Military Engineers may be closer to comparable civilian jobs than to the needs of an Armoured Regiments, Artillery Battalion, Infantry Unit or Paratroopers. (McBeath 1999: 9)

McBeath (1999:10) asserts the specificity of EMP in lexis structure and genre in order to a serve a more useful purpose in the teaching process. However, he points out that a problem with military English is caused by "polysemy" whereby "lexical items have a superficial familiarity, but take on new meaning when used in specifically military situations." Although this is a very common problem in any sub-tech-lexical area, it becomes serious when using general dictionaries for military terms, he argues. For example, the term "section" in military parlance refers to a unit of approximately 8 men; it is not identified as such in Collins. McBeath (1999) suggests that such a problem can be avoided by using a bilingual military dictionary such as Kayyali (1991).

The use of supposed specific structure in a military setting is marked, as McBeath (1999:11) explains, by the nature of the way military forces are arranged. They are organised in a "direct and visible hierarchy" allowing an equal directness of approach. McBeath cites Thomas (1995) to provide an example, showing how "pragmatic face-saving devices are neither required nor expected": "You are to stand to attention in the centre of your room every time the door is opened. You are to obey all orders given to you by any member of the remand staff at all times".

It is obvious that an order structure with the strong presence of "are to" gives the impression of a military setting. McBeath cites another example by Leech and Svartik (1975) in which they emphasise that the use of the passive suggests a higher authority, as is the case in military environments. The presence of such structures, as McBeath suggests, leads to the argument of a generic feature of military writing.

McBeath assumes that in military writing, unlike academic writing, conciseness is valued, and it has little time for "hedging or offering alternative points of view." It

remains a skill which can be learnt. In a place like Sandhurst, McBeath points out, the writing conventions appropriate to official, semi-official and demi-official letters are part of officer cadets' training. This can be seen as a 'genre issue' in the military context. A clear example of a genre is radio communication, which has to follow a certain procedure or order, from the time of establishing the communication until it is concluded. Genre and genre analysis can be useful in relation to such a military technique, in order to set it in steps or a clear structure, to serve a communicative teaching purpose.

In King Khalid Military Academy, the target institution of this research, the situation is one of EMP or TEMP. First, efforts are made by officials and teachers in the Academy to choose content related to the cadets' military interests and needs. Secondly, the setting and environment itself could suggest such a focus. In other words, the cadets learn English in order to benefit from it while working in the Saudi National Guard.

1.3.1.1 Saudi National Guard and King Khalid Military Academy KKMA

The Saudi National Guard is one of the military sectors of the Kingdom and operates as an internal defence force, such as by controlling and subduing violent demonstrations, as well as operating as an army sector, as it did in the Gulf War in 1991. The leadership of The National Guard, chaired by Crown Prince Abdullah, has been endeavouring since its establishment to develop this sector aiming not just to contribute to the military field but also to be a social part of the development of the Kingdom. King Khalid Military Academy, KKMA, is one of the Saudi National Guard sections that has an important role in developments in both military and civilian sectors.

The Military section in the National Guard went through certain phases of improvement until the establishment of KKMA. In 1965 the "Candidates Brigade" was responsible for recruiting, qualifying and graduating officers in the National Guard; the first group graduated in 1969. The aims of this brigade, according to the KKMA Guidebook (1999), were to:

- Provide military training in National Guard schools in different military subjects as well as teaching Islamic culture and other useful non-military subjects

- Send officers abroad to gain skill and modern experience
- Join National Guard groups to participate in military responsibilities
- Return to national Guard Schools to discuss obtained experience and look for possible developments of officers' missions.

In 1972-3 the Brigade was expanded, then replaced by the Military Schools. Only secondary school graduates were eligible to be admitted. The KKMA Guidebook (1999:15) states that members of the National Guard need to be given the highest possible quality of education and training to contribute to the development of the Kingdom as well as to keep pace with modern warfare, which requires its participants to have the best and recent knowledge of science and technology. It is for that reason that the KKMA was established in 1980 as one of the military Academies in the Kingdom under the Military Academies rule issued by the Council of Ministers in 1977.

KKMA is a higher educational and military establishment, aiming to teach admitted cadets, train and prepare them to serve as qualified military officers in the Saudi National Guard (KKMA Guidebook: 20). The graduate cadet is expected to:

- Have the ability of operational leadership and the skill of "manage, (directing) men" in different circumstances
- Be able to participate positively in joint missions
- Be capable of scientific research
- Contribute in serving society.

The Cadets join the Academy after secondary school. Enrolment is very competitive. From over 3000 applicants, only around 350-400 are accepted, depending first on availability and then on the qualifications of the candidates, e.g. their grades in secondary school, and more importantly, passing medical and fitness tests. They graduate after completing three years training. Future job opportunities are guaranteed; graduates are recruited into different sectors of the National Guard according to the demand of each sector, and further specialised fields are available for officers after they have spent a certain time a junior officer. Further specialisation includes high training sessions in the Kingdom and abroad as well as higher education.

1.3.1.1.1 Academy Curriculum

The curriculum in the Academy is divided into two types: a. military and b. academic. The military curriculum consists of twenty-five different subjects selected for their relevance to the responsibilities of an officer in the National Guard. These subjects are taught by officers in the Academy and include some practical trainings and projects. On the other hand, the academic curriculum covers fifteen Science and Humanities subjects aiming to expand the cadets' intellectual duties and help them put this to work in a military society or civilian environment (Ibid: 38).

In an interview with Aljazirah Newspaper in Saudi Arabia issue number 10477 on the 5th of June 2001, the Deputy Commander of the Academy emphasised the use of the two curricula in the Academy. The academic one includes both scientific interests such as Physics, Mathematics, Biology and Chemistry and Humanities such as Islamic Culture, Holy Quran, Geography and English; the aim is to qualify the National Guard officers with the best knowledge in science and humanities, including Islamic culture, to prepare them to work effectively and beneficially and demonstrate leadership in social and humanitarian efforts in the interests of the Kingdom within the National Guard sectors.

1.3.1.1.1.1 English Curriculum

In the last fifteen years there have been changes in the English courses in the Academy. A general English course book called *Discovering English* had been in use until 1991. Then, there was a change initiated by the director of the English section's decision to introduce more military terminology and the *American Language Course* was imported. Two years later, *Command English* was presented to support ALC and give more attention to military terms. In 1996, the director of the section was changed; the new director stopped using ALC and replaced it completely with *Command English*.

The process of change continued. In 1999 the English teaching staff in the Academy, led by the director of the English Section, designed a new syllabus to be used in the Academy. This new syllabus is called *Practical English* and it includes some of the

activities that cadets encounter or will encounter within the Academy environment. The director suggests that he and his colleagues are aiming to introduce an ESP course in the Academy, as this is more useful for the cadets.

Review of Course Books

Command English

Command English was introduced initially along with ALC, to provide more focus on military language. Then, ALC ceased to be used and *Command English* was the only course book until *Practical English* was established. The textbook's title, *Command English: a Course in Military English*, emphasises the aim of the book.

In the teacher's book for the course, it is explained that it is designed for students who need to learn English in their military training. More specifically, it is for those who are studying English in their own country and who are at an early stage of their army career, with intermediate English at best. The authors also explain that the course aims to provide students with a core of military vocabulary and to develop language skills appropriate to the service environment.

The course consists of twenty units which are all military-related topics. Reflecting on the situation in King Khalid Military Academy, it can be said that the course book was chosen for its military based topics. However, these topics are not related to the cadets' military life.

For example, as shown in Appendix A.1.1, the first unit introduces cadets to the military uniform. The cadets in the Academy and after graduation wear totally different uniforms. Therefore, this is not a very relevant topic for the cadets. Another example of irrelevance, unit nine, included in the appendix, provides cadets with a topic about the tank. In fact, tanks are not used in the Saudi National Guard's activities. So, this is another off-topic lesson for the cadets, who are supposed to have an ESP course which is relevant to their military life. From all twenty units, there are only two topics that can be said have some relevance to cadets' military life. These are 'Weapon Handling' and 'Fit to Fight' which can be seen as general military topics.

Therefore, although *Command English* was chosen by the Academy staff and officials to be a military course that suits cadets' military needs, ESP, it did not practically reflect their actual military needs, based on the activities of their military discourse community. This is an example of how an ESP course can turn out to be a false-ESP rather than a real-ESP one.

Practical English

The *Practical English* course was designed by the Academy English teaching staff. It was a response to the demands of both the teaching staff and the Officers in the Academy to provide a relevant English military course for the cadets.

From the material included in the Appendix A.1.2, it can be seen that the designers were aiming to achieve a degree of relevance and to include topics that touch cadets' lives. For example, the first lesson that cadets are introduced to is titled 'The First Day at the Academy'. With some black and white pictures of the cadets when they first joined the Academy, the lesson illustrates some aspects of the life that cadets are expected to have in their early days in the Academy. The second unit of *Practical English* is a topic on Preparing Cadets Militarily. It is another activity that cadets engage in their Academy life. The cadets usually have what are called 'Projects' where they go out on a military activity for about twenty four hours training. The topic of Unit Two has some of these activities, such as weapon handling, survival and camouflage.

Without questioning the amount of comprehension required for such topics, the coherence of the text or the grammatical exercises, it can be said that these topics have some degree of relevance to the cadets' military lives. Also, these topics use English in activities that cadets have already performed or will perform in the Academy. Therefore, there are indications an ESP content-based teaching was intended.

However, the problem with *Practical English* is that it relates only to the current military life of the cadets, not to what cadets will actually do after graduation.

Therefore, a significant part of military discourse in English could be missing when cadets undertake their military jobs within the Saudi National Guard.

1.4 Previous Research

This section will briefly review some studies which a have certain relevance to this research. These are mainly studies that involve investigating the specific needs, attitudes or motivation of ESP learners. The purpose here is to point out the relevance of these studies to our research and indicate what can be developed in this study. To begin with, Al-Gorashi (1988) investigated the English communication needs of military cadets in Saudi Arabia as perceived by junior officers in the Saudi Army and Air defence. The setting of his investigation was King Abdulaziz Military Academy, KAMA, and he used the graduated officers from the Academy as his subjects, using a questionnaire, and interviews with the teaching staff as the data collection methods. In his study, Al-Gorashi was trying to answer the questions:

- What role does a knowledge of English play in the future military careers of KAMA's cadets?
- What skills in the English language are needed for the future careers of KAMA's cadets, and for performing what kind of military activities?
- Are KAMA's cadets adequately prepared in English to meet their future military needs?

He concluded that English plays a very important role in cadets' future career, and there are certain activities that need English. However, he claimed that cadets are not adequately prepared in English to tackle their military needs

In a similar study, Al-Otaibi (1994) tried to identify the English communication needs of Kuwaiti soldier students at the Military Language Institute (MLI) in Kuwait. In using the questionnaire technique, he sampled 325 Kuwaiti officers. The findings of Al-Otaibi's study indicated that there is a need for an orderly change in the MLI programme to meet the future needs of its students. His study also recommended certain key activities which were observed to be relevant to the students and which he advised to be included as a the basis for course changes and design; demonstrating the need for

"a purposeful integration of the four skills". Al-Otaibi's objective is to offer guidelines and suggestions for a relevant course at MLI in Kuwait. He considered that the essential need was the identification of the immediate and future needs of the learners of the MLI, so that the syllabus could be revised in order to meet these needs more effectively.

Both Al-Gorashi's and Al-Otaibi's studies were based mainly on a communicative need perspective, with some consideration of the four skills. They both described the method as a sociolinguistic approach, which emphasises that teaching language is related to the communicative needs of students and is stated in terms of communicative functions, tasks, and skills rather than formal linguistics features.

Cheng (1995) investigated the role of motivation, attitudes and achievement in English learning of cadets in a Taiwanese Military Academy. She intended to determine what kind of motivation, instrumental and/or integrative, cadets have in their learning of English; and its effects on their English achievement. Cheng found that most cadets in the Chinese Military Academy were motivated to learn English instrumentally, but there were no significant differences among instrumentally motivated, integratively motivated or balanced ones. A significant relationship is found between the cadets' English achievement and motivational intensity and attitude relative to their educational backgrounds. The study also showed that attitude towards English was the best predictor of English achievement for that group of learners.

Obviously, the emphasis of Cheng's study was limited to the types of motivation, instrumental or integrative, and the influence of social background, e.g. parents, on cadets' motivation to learn English and their achievement. The attitudes and motivation were not investigated against their current situation of being ESP learners or perceiving their specific needs, or being related to the content of courses.

Al-Busairi (1990) investigated the role of needs, attitudes and motivation in developing achievement in English as a foreign language for specific purposes in one of the universities in Kuwait. He considered that aptitude and intelligence are important cognitive factors for language learning other than attitudes and motivation. He pointed out that his subjects' present motivation was to study English mainly to pass their final exams. In order to modify or change this type of motivation, "a great deal has to be

done towards an improved awareness of external motivation and the achievement of a more powerful motivation by providing for the students' particular needs and by increasing awareness of those needs". He also focused on the analysis of the target language situation's communicative needs, and argued that the learner's motivation will be a function of learners' needs.

Osman (1996) discussed the solution of ESP's students' underachievement in Kuwait. He investigated the students of the Public Authority for Applied Education and Training (PAAET), including factors influencing underachievement, level of motivation, problems in learning, and teacher quality and training. Using both questionnaire and interview techniques, his sample included 563 students and 25 teachers. The results of Osman's study suggest that previous schooling, poor motivation, more important priorities in their studies, too many pressures on time outside college, lack of interest in learning English; and lack of self-confidence, were the reasons behind students' underachievement.

In a second focus of his study, he attempted to identify learners' needs as a possible solution to the problem of underachievement, based on views of teachers, students and institution's directors. This investigation indicated that teachers require more specific training courses, should use syllabuses that consider students' spoken and written skills, and need improved course materials supported by the use of educational aids. In his study, Osman also discussed the effect of the social context in undertaking these needs and the appropriate syllabus for the PAAET context.

In a more recent study, Baird (2000) investigated the effect of course content on motivational behaviour in an EFL classroom, using a specialised Bible-based syllabus BBS. She indicated the difficulty of investigating the issues of motivation and special content in a classroom; because of this, she opted to use more than one method of data collection: questionnaires, interviews and diaries. Her findings indicated that the relevance of the course content, as perceived by students, and its presentation could have both positive and negative effects on learners' motivational behaviour. She explained that relevance of the content is related to learner's goals, needs and interests and presentation linked with the teacher's position as mediator. The results of Baird's study also supported previous research findings that attitudes towards a language affect

motivational behaviour, determined by the reasons for learning, previous learning experience and cultural beliefs. It is revealed that "students' attitudes towards how languages are learned affect their receptivity to course content"; if the course content does not match their prior expectations, then they could see it as irrelevant or inadequate, and if different methods are used, they are seen as inappropriate.

In contrast to these studies, our aim is to investigate the possible link between ESP, the perception of specific needs and attitudes towards BANA culture and learning. In doing this, we also want to extend our study beyond thinking simply about ESP as a way to teach students the language they need and ask: whether ESP motivates learning because it relates students' learning to the discourse community they will enter. In short, ESP may give military people an interest in language learning by fostering their sense of belonging to a military discourse community.

This will raise an important issue within ESP, content-based instruction CBI. As 'Authenticy' is in the heart of ESP courses, the CBI, according to Richards and Renandya (2002: 93), focuses on real-world content and consider understanding and communication of information through language as the key to second language learning and teaching. Brinton *et al* (1989:6) point out that language for specific purposes LSP is "the best known and most documented of the content-based language models". Stoller (2002) explains that CBI has gained an increased attention within language teaching and learning research since the 1990s. She indicates that CBI uses content rather than task as the medium for developing language skills. She also explains that the focus on content not only offers valuable real-world knowledge, but also provides the basis for meaning-based pedagogy going beyond the focus on studying language detached from the context of its use. Jordan (1997: 61) describes the content-based syllabus as an approach that focuses on teaching the language, skills and academic conventions associated with a particular subject and its content.

The very close associating of CBI and ESP can be seen from Brinton *et al's* (1989:2) outline of the characteristics of content-based instruction:

> In a content based approach, the activities of the language are specific to the subject matter being taught, and are geared to stimulate students to think and learn through the use of the target language...In this approach

students are exposed to study skills and learn a variety of language skills which prepare them for the range of academic tasks they will encounter.

Thus, the assumption, in a sense, is that ESP based courses integrate the real-world language requirements of a certain discourse community into a teachable curriculum for the prospective dwellers of that discourse community. The objective is apparently inspiring these learners to better learning. This is one of the main goals that ESP course designers have been intending to achieve.

This chapter reviewed the factors that contributed to the rise of ESP as a distinctive and recognised approach within ELT. It also discussed, from a historical perspective, language theories and approaches to course design that ESP has benefited from. The chapter also highlighted the recent ongoing developments within the field of ESP, asserting the importance of the discourse community in the ESP world. Finally, it considered the different types of ESP and how military English is situated within the field.

Through these discussions we form the theoretical as well as the practical essentials that underpin ESP settings, introducing broader and narrower types of ESP. In the next chapter, the other related issues in this study are discussed: needs, attitudes and motivation. While needs are understandably closely related to ESP, attitudes and motivation are concepts that are rarely linked to ESP. Chapter two will consider the theoretical background of these issues as well as their status within ESP.

Chapter Two

Needs, Motivation and Attitude

The chapter is divided into three parts. The first one addresses the concept of needs and needs analysis in general and within English for Specific Purposes (ESP), in theory and practice. The other two parts look at two closely related areas of research, motivation and attitudes. These two concepts are primarily branches of psychology. The development in examining motivation and attitude in relation to language and language learning is mainly attributed to expanding research in educational psychology. Therefore, they will be seen from three perspectives: psychology, educational psychology and, more importantly, language learning. Finally, they will be discussed within the ESP and the issue how far meeting needs is motivating will be discussed.

2.1. Needs

There is no question of the importance of needs in ESP courses; indeed, ESP is considered by many as a needs-focused syllabus, although it is not only ESP that exploits its outcomes (Robinson 1991). Mackay (1978:21) explains that learners of English as an auxiliary to academic or professional skills are generally more aware of what they want to use English for. Widdowson (1983), however, suggests that there may be a case for concentrating on all learners' needs in the first place, in order to delimit initially the language to be included in a course. There is always, therefore, a probability that the activity of needs always will extend to the General English teaching area.

Needs analysis is associated with ESP and the possible success or failure of ESP courses could depend on the way it is conducted (Khuwaileh 1992). Hutchinson and Waters (1987:53) remark that what distinguishes ESP from General English is not the existence of needs but, more importantly, the awareness of needs.

Dudley-Evans and St John (1998:122) emphasise the important role of needs in ESP and LSP:

Needs analysis is neither unique to language teaching – needs assessment, for example, is the basis of training programmes and aids development programmes- nor, within language training, it is unique to LSP and thus to ESP. However, needs analysis is the corner stone of ESP and leads to a very focused course.

2.1.1 Origins

The first possible appearance of the term needs is linked with Michael West's *Introduction in India* in 1920 (West 1994), providing two separate concepts of needs in relation to learning. The first concept relates to what learners will be required to do with the foreign language in the target situation; the second one is how learners might master the target situation during the period of training.

West (1994) argues that there was no real occurrence of *needs* after Michael West's project in India for almost forty years. The term returned to popularity accompanying the rise of ESP in the early sixties. Consequently, it has become the centre of ESP and the key instrument in course design.

Berwick (1989:49) relates the origins of a needs orientation in language to the general planning of educational systems, in which the purposes and sources of curricula are usually discussed. Berwick (1989) cites Tyler (1949) as one of the clearest and most influential sources of systematic curriculum planning, though not the earliest. Tyler provides questions outlining the bases of school curricula related to planning any educational programme and thus having application to language planning:

1. What educational purposes should the teaching establishment seek to attain?
2. What educational experiences can be provided that are likely to attain these purposes?
3. How can these educational experiences be effectively organised?
4. How can we determine whether these purposes are being attained?

Observing these questions, one can argue that they are the definite bases for needs in language learning, which probably in many cases does not exceed them. In that sense, Berwick identifies six orientations associated with these questions that form the subjective bases and educational values underlying language programme planning,

though not the only ones. Among these six orientations, Berwick (1989:50) includes *designs that are based on needs and interests of the learner*, as an obvious example of courses based on learners' needs. Examples of works based on this orientation are Stevick (1971) and Munby (1978).

2.1.2. Definition and Types of Needs

There has been no absolute agreement on a definition of needs. Richterich (1983:2) points out: "The very concept of needs has never been clearly defined and remains at best ambiguous". Widdowson (1983) clarifies that the absence of a distinction between aims and objectives leads to an ambiguity in the expression of learners' needs. On one hand, it can refer to what the learner has to do with the language once he has learned; it, in this sense, has to do with aims. On the other hand, it can refer to what the learner has to do *in order to learn:* in this sense it relates to pedagogic objectives.

This "indefiniteness" was not found in the early stages of needs. West (1994:71) argues that ambiguity of needs stems from the needs themselves, because, he suggests, needs includes various contradictory concepts such as: *necessities* or *demands* (also called *objective, product-oriented* or *perceived need*), learners' *wants* (*subjective,* or *felt* needs), and the methods of bridging the gap between these two (*process-oriented* needs).

Robinson (1991) provides a possible close explanation of needs by describing them as: "a matter for agreement and judgement, not discovery." Hence, need already exists with the learners, but is required to be brought into light. That can be related to Richterich and Chancerel's (1987) idea of needs and what information they can offer:

> Needs are not fully-developed facts... they are built up by individuals or group of individuals from an actual example of experience. They are in consequence, variable, multiform and intangible. To identify them would require gathering certain amounts of information concerning this experience, becoming aware of certain facts and translating them into a more or less precise expression.   (Richterich and Chancerel 1987:9)

Holec (1980) observes that defining objectives is very important to needs identification. He considers that the definition of an objective either as content-centred or learner-

centred is based on several factors. First, there is a core of knowledge that is essential for all learners and has been predefined by linguistic analysis. This may differ in some respect from the specific knowledge of the language which a given group of learners might wish to acquire. The second factor is that the minimal level of competence is defined based on criteria that are independent of the learner (usually taking the native speaker as a model). The third one is that the whole process of defining needs is to set up a teaching system and to develop teaching materials which are efficient or cost-effective.

Trim (1980) suggests that the identification of objectives embraces the whole cluster of techniques that leads to an understanding of the parameters of the learning situation:

> Fellow learners, teacher/s, administrators, course-writers, producers, social agencies, career expectations and job satisfaction, social-dynamics, leaner-type and resources analysis, etc., are relevant factors in addition to the original predicted communicative behaviour. Since none of these is constant, analysis becomes a central aspect of course management and a most important aspect of the long climb to that self-reliance and autonomy which, we hope, with eventually allow the learner to take charge of his own learning.   (Trim 1980: 63)

He explains that needs cannot be fixed in advance but must be a matter of negotiation as part of the actual educational process. This involves shifting the centre of attention from the teacher to the learner as the agent of the change, and from the requirements of groups defined by their occupational and academic roles (secretaries, engineers, physicists) to the claims of individual experience and the development of self-knowledge. If this shift goes too far, of course, one arrives at `pure` education and its associated permissive pedagogy of non-intervention.

An important issue in needs, as Robinson (1991), Trim (1980) and Richterich and Chancerel (1987) suggest, is that needs are not constant or fixed facts but changing according to the learners' judgments and experience, and considering other parties such as teachers and institutions. Nevertheless, there are key words linked with needs, such as: *objectives, lacks, wants* and *requirements*.

Defining the term 'needs' itself is problematic. However, on reflection, the nature of needs may vary according to who is discussing them. Therefore, it is essential to have a working definition.

2.1.2.1 Objective or Subjective

Brindely (1989:65) introduces two different, and possibly contrasting types of needs: *objective* and *subjective*. Robinson (1991) explains that *objective* needs are the needs which can be derived from different kinds of factual information about learners, their use of language in real-life communicative situations, current language proficiency, and language difficulties. On the other hand, *subjective* needs are related to the cognitive and affective needs of the learner in the learning situation, derived from affective and cognitive factors: personality, confidence, attitudes, learners' wants and expectations with regard to the learning of English. These terms are addressing broader conceptions within needs, probably, also not only linguistic but also meta-linguistic and non-linguistic factors.

2.1.2.2 Real or Ideal

De Escorcia (1985) categorises needs differently. He argues that there are two types of needs in relation to ESP or especially EAP, *real* needs and *ideal* needs. He describes real or immediate needs as those which are realised in most cases towards the end of learners' careers "when more specialized up-to-date reading material has been handled". Students do not feel a real immediate need for 'specialised English' at the time they are offered their ESP courses. In contrast, the *ideal* need, as the term indicates, refers to the 'ideal' situation the learner or student is expected or supposed to be in. De Escorcia (1985) better describes it:

> Every student in a Colombian university is aware, in an abstract general way, of the necessity of studying English. He knows that a great deal of the literature in Science and Technology is mainly available in English. He also knows that an ambitious professional who wants to do graduate work will often have to find his way to a university in the USA. (De Escorcia, 1985: 229)

What De Escorcia describes is the ideal need of that student, whereas the real need is, as De Escorcia explains, the minimum knowledge that the student must have in order to finish his/her study successfully and easily, which is the real or most primary need.

2.1.2.3 Target Situation, and Present Situation Needs

Target situation analysis (TSA) and present situation analysis (PSA) are the main and very common approaches to needs analysis and as a base for designing courses. Hutchinson and Waters (1987) explain that needs relate to "the ability to comprehend or produce the linguistic features of the target situation" but there are two different needs. *Target* needs are what a learner needs to do in the target situation. Robinson (1991) describes target situation analysis as the kind of analysis that focuses on students' needs at the end of a language course. It also defines the stage at which "good enough" competence for the job is reached, as distinct from learner needs, which are what a learner needs to do in order to learn. Hutchinson and Waters (1987:55) consider target needs to be of different stages:

- **Necessities**: the demands of the target situation; what the learner needs to know to function effectively in the target situation.

- **Lacks**: after deciding what he knows, it is up to the learner to decide what are the necessities he lacks or does not know.

- **Wants:** the learner's views of what their own need is, which could be different from or contradict the view of course designers, teachers and sponsors.

In order to bridge the gaps or overcome the limitations of target situation analysis (TSA), another type analysis was used, present situation analysis (PSA). This sort of analysis, as Robinson (1991) points out, aims to establish what students are like at the start of their language course, investigating their strength and weaknesses. There are three basic sources of information:

- Students themselves
- Language teaching establishment
- User-institution, e.g. students' place of work

The assumed difference between the two analyses, according to Robinson, is that the PSA represents constraints on TSA which will have been conducted first. PSA also involves 'fundamental variables' that must be considered before TSA. Needs analysis in general is seen as a combination of both. Therefore, it can be suggested that the two types, TSA and PSA, complement each other.

2.1.2.4 Re-grouping Needs

Dudley-Evans and St John (1998: 123-4) argue that the different terms and types used within needs "represent a different philosophy or educational value, and merit careful thought". Therefore, in order to 'unite' these terms, they explain that *objective* and *perceived* needs relate to what are derived by outsiders from facts and from "what can be verified". On the other hand, subjective or felt needs are those obtained by insiders and are related to cognitive and affective factors. Likewise, product-oriented needs stem from the goal or target situation and process-oriented needs derive from the learning situation. The latter two terms are seen to correspond to target situation analysis (TSA), learning situation analysis (LSA), and present situation analysis (PSA) ,which relates to what learners already know in order to be able to infer what they lack.

Dudley-Evans and St John (1998:124-5) conclude that in this sense and to 'regroup' needs, TSA includes objective, perceived and product-oriented needs; LSA includes subjective, felt and process-oriented needs; and PSA estimates strengths and weaknesses in language, skills, and learning experiences. They present a figure to represent the current concept of needs analysis in ESP:

Figure 2.1 Needs Analysis in ESP (Dudley-Evans and St John, 1998)

According to this figure, Dudley-Evans and St John (1998) point out, needs analysis in ESP entails determining:

  a. Professional information about the learners: the tasks and activities learners are/will be using English for- *target situation analysis* and *objective analysis*;

  b. Personal information about the learners: factors which may affect the way they learn, such as previous learning experiences, cultural information, reasons for attending the course and expectations of it, attitude to English – *wants, means, subjective needs;*

  c. English language learning about the learners: what their current skills and language use are- *present situation analysis*- which allows us to assess (d)

  d. The learners' lacks: the gap between (c) and (a)- *lacks;*

  e. Language learning information: effective ways of learning the skills and language in (d)- learning needs;

  f. Professional communication information about (a): knowing how language and skill are used in the target situation- *linguistic analysis, discourse analysis, genre analysis*;

  g. What is wanted from the course;

  h. Information about the environment in which the course will be run – *means analysis.*

Thus, a deficient conception of needs could handicap analysis, or possibly render the outcomes insufficient and unable to be applied. For example, overlooking affective learning factors, such as motivation, attitudes towards the target language and the personal differences of learners would limit needs as merely linguistic. Thus, needs can be regarded as an umbrella term to cover several conceptions, such as those mentioned above (Richterich, 1983; Porcher, 1983; Hutchinson and Waters, 1987). This approach could reflect interesting differences in viewpoints and help the undertaking of different forms of needs (West, 1994).

Then, needs analysis is a vital process for gathering information about learners' needs and their situation. No matter what method is used in gathering information, it is clear that identifying needs in ESP has always been a crucial and central issue; every method aims to measure what the learner needs, because needs are determining factors in course

design. Nevertheless, generally needs are not only about the requirements of linguistic features of a target situation, but also of communicative preparation and association with the target community, and needs analysis is very much dependent on how these needs are perceived.

2.1.3 Needs Investigation

Von der Handt (1983) observes that analysing the needs of students attending courses for further education is the necessary first step towards the construction of a curriculum; but before proceeding with the needs analysis, one must first clearly determine the target group. One can question the individual student who has decided on a course, but it is not so easy to question those who have not yet been to a course and are unfamiliar with course provisions. Determining the target situation is one of the steps that an analyst must build on in gathering needs information.

The process of gathering information itself is variable. Before discussing the different procedures used in gathering information, we have to discuss how the ways that needs are considered more or less decides the use of these procedures. In other words, a needs analysis has an underlying theory that could determine its accomplishment.

The broad theoretical basis of needs, according to West (1994), is curriculum development. Since the early 60s, as Holec (1985) states, there have been three main tendencies: improving teaching methods, adapting the teaching to the type of learning public, and training the learner in how to learn. Needs analysis is more rooted in the second of these tendencies and, more recently, the third (West 1994).

Coffey (1984) considers needs analysis in relation to the theory of the nature of the language. According to him, the selection of language categories constitutes the first step of the six-step model:

1. *selection of the language theory* = nature of language principles of restriction, e.g. communicative function

2. ***needs analysis***   = matching of vocational needs with the   categories established

3. ***language realisation***   = transforming the functions, skills previously identified into language   items

4. ***course design***   = the ordering of the language items, by their relative importance and their sequencing

5. ***course construction***   = the devising of strategies and techniques

6. ***classroom teaching***

However, there are two different models that have been established in relation to needs. These are Munby's (1978) *Communicative Syllabus Design* and Richterich and Chancerel's model (1977 and 1983).

Richterich (1977) analysed language needs in terms of language situations and language operations. The language situation component consists of three types of information:

a. Information about the agents (all the people involved in the communication process such as the learner, the teacher and the employer), information is needed from those agents with regard to their identity, numbers, and their social and psychological roles.

b. Information about the time when the act of communication takes place, such as its duration and frequency.

c. Information about the place where the act of communication takes place, such as its geographical and physical characteristics.

On the other hand, the other component "language operating" consists of three types of information:

1. Information about the functions or purposes which the act of communication has to fulfil, e.g. expression, description, argumentation, etc.

2. Information about the objects to which the act of communication will relate, e.g. whether the object of communication will relate to conveying a neutral message, showing the affective state maintaining or breaking social ties, etc.

3. Information about the means to produce that act, such as the language skills needed, whether the communication is spontaneous or controlled, direct or indirect and

whether the communication is effected either partly or wholly by means of non-verbal signs.

In a later work, Richterich and Chancerel (1983) present a broader understanding in defining needs within their model. It includes requirements, desires motivation, and methodology as expressed not only by the learner but also by all parties involved such as language teachers, subject teachers, employers etc. Although Richterich's is an extensive work, it is not without some difficulties. Al-Gorashi (1988) summarises three main problem areas:

1. Some of the categories in part two of the model are not important. While researchers did not specify them, one can easily recognise that information such as the learner's marital status, number of children, address, religion, number of brother and sisters, or occupation of father and mother, which are listed under "learner identity" may not be of a high level of importance to course designers.

2. In terms of time and human resources, a large number of people is needed to provide skilled and unskilled help and a long time is needed to complete this stage. It is doubtful whether people directly concerned with running language courses have either the time or the ability themselves to carry out the procedures dictated by the model.

3. Too many techniques are listed by the model for use, not all of which could be followed. Some of the techniques such as intelligence or personality tests are considered redundant and require specialists to design them.

The Munby's model has emerged from Richterich's. McDonough (1984) explains that the procedures in Munby's model are very detailed, representing as they do an attempt to be both explicit and comprehensive. They stand out as a major landmark in the development of ESP. West (1994) points out that the theoretical bases of Munby's model's were the contemporary views on the nature of communicative competence derived from Hymes (1971). According to McDonough (1984), although the work is heavily based on theoretical assumptions, the techniques proposed in Munby's model have been extensively used, modified and unmodified, in many parts of the world to set up language-teaching programmes.

In an evaluation of Munby's model, Hawkey (1980) explains that the model presupposes a language-training situation with reasonably specific occupational or educational objectives involving a reasonably homogenous learner group. This enables the course designer to achieve two things:

1. Produce a detailed profile of what the learn needs to be able to do in English in the occupation or studies for which he is being trained;

2. Produce a specification of the language skills, functions and forms required to carry out the communication described in the needs profile.

This entails answering such questions as: What are the learners? Which study or occupational area will they need English for? Where and when will they need English for? With whom? Handling which media and modes? Handling which dialect of English? At what level? To participate in which communicative activities? and in what tone?

Data collected in answer to such questions forms a communicative needs profile (CNP), which is a pre-requisite of the next stage, that of specifying the language skills required by learners for their target communication. Hawkey reviews the categories of Munby's model. Questions to which the course designers have to find answers in order to build up their learners' communication needs profile and the parameter labels include:

1. Participant: questions on learner's age, sex, first language, target language, etc.

2. Purposive domain: questions to establish the purposes for which English will be needed: occupational or educational, specific job or study.

3. Setting: the place, time and the psycho-social nature of the setting in which English will have to be used, e.g. whether learners are trained for communication in English in classrooms, lectures rooms, orientation, etc. They have to become accustomed to frequent, regular, and intensive use of the language in a setting which may be characterised in psycho-social terms as: intellectual; aesthetic, professional, educationally fairly developed; demanding; hurried, variously fairly formal and fairly informal; fairly hierarchical.

4. Interaction: information on the required role of the learner in the communication for which he is being trained and his relationship with them, involving communication

within such social relationship as: subordinate-superior, learner-instructor, native-non-native.

5. Instrumentality: information on medium: spoken/written, receptive/productive; mode: monologue/dialogue, etc., channel: face-to-face, telephone, etc., of communication for which learners need to be trained.

6. Dialect.

7. Target level: to assign values to various characteristics: e.g. size, range, delicacy, speed, flexibility, of the communication in English that learners will have to cope with, both receptively and productively. These values provide a general idea of the dimensions of the learners' target communication.

8. Communicative event: here the course designer has to identify what the learner will have to do in English productively and receptively. This is described in terms of communicative events which are then subdivided into communicative activities. For example: a main event: engineering students studying reference materials, standard textbooks, supplementary books, manuals, professional papers and articles in the English library, private study classes, lab etc. The communicative activities in this are, for example, reading intensively for all information in a text, reading for specific information to carry out an assignment, reading to find the main information in English, reading to find out the writer's position on a particular issue. It is at this stage of the needs profile that the designer is expanded to specify the topic areas or referential vocabulary categories that are the most likely to be required to handle such activities.

9. Communicative key: considering the tone manner and spirit in which an act is done

Moreover, what characterises Munby's model, according to McDonough (1984), is the use of CNP as the heart of the model; information about the learner, which he called the 'participant', his/her age, nationality, sex, mother tongue, and so on, is fed into the CNP, which consists of a number of categories. Hawkey (1980) adds that this is in a two-sector model which may be represented in a diagram. The variables in sector one in the diagram reflect the socio-cultural orientation of the model involved in the 'communicative processor', identified by Richterich as objective needs which are foreseeable and generalisable. The headings under which information is collected in the first sector of the model are logically sequenced rather than random. Munby's model excludes psycho-pedagogic and methodological variables, because, as he explains, he is

concerned with the dimension of course design which is subsequent to syllabus specification. In addition, there is a difficulty in linking a functional specification of language and the actual language use.

Probably the main defects of Munby have appeared immediately after his project. Hawkey (1980) views Munby's needs analysis model as a tool predominantly for the course designer, which overlooks the heart of the matter, the learner. West (1994) observes that Munby's model is essentially performance related, with his categories of communicative activity and communicative event, which are categories of real-world language use rather than elements of a construct of communicative competence. Munby adopts a 'performance repertoire', which has been frequently questioned by others, e.g. Hutchinson and Waters (1980, 1987). Al-Gorashi (1988) also points out that Munby does not attempt to specify procedures for actual collection of relevant data. In other words, his model only provides a useful set of headings under which data needs to be collected and, in some cases, lists inventories of information from which selections should be made; the method to be followed is left to the user. This eventually results, as Hawkey (1983) argues, in gathering a massive volume of detailed information required for application of the model, which is difficult to obtain without a practical knowledge of the target environment. This target environment is not always accessible and, in any case, the data gathering will be time consuming while the method of analysis is unsure.

In general, although it is a landmark in ESP in highlighting the relationship between needs and syllabuses, Munby's work fails because it does not properly address how the needs data is to be collected. Also, it does not consider the learner or how learning is culturally framed.

To conclude this discussion, needs are variable and can be reshaped by the way they are analysed. As mentioned above, deciding the target situation plays an important role in needs. Not only that, there is also the question of how the framework of needs will construct the syllabus. For example, Chalauisaeng's (forthcoming) study attempts to use an innovative instrument of analysis for learners-based needs analysis in order to enhance a learner centred approach, and moving learners to more self-directed approach in their learning. With some positive findings and improvements of her sample, her study was an example of more involvement of the relevant content as a source of a

learner-based needs analysis. Moreover, the requirements of linguistic competence for communication are important, but not enough. As noted earlier, the link should exist in ESP course design between needs and the target situation community or subculture. Holme (1997) suggests that "needs are not about the description of a hypothetical future but the student's relationship to the community with which they want to integrate", which may not have the student's L2 as its dominant language.

Thus, looking at needs from this angle, Holme (1997) recommends that needs analysis 'proceeds' from a course's conception of itself as an interaction of students and teachers with each other in a context handed down by a target situation. This suggests the 'on going' aspect of needs analysis which is based on the understanding of what the target situation is. Consequently, needs analysis in this sense, according to Holme, has two aspects:

1. a continuous self-evaluative course, that can relocate itself according to its goals and which finds methods that reflect this outlook;
2. an understanding of a target situation as a subculture or social group that the student is looking to join.

Holme interprets this from a practical assumption that the ESP course will have more than just tasks; language practice is developed out of the target situation. These tasks are, also, developed from the activities of the target situation community, and activating its discourse clarify to students what they have to learn in order to "become full participants or members" (Holme 1997).

2.1.4 Framework of Needs Analysis

Robinson (1991) states that it is generally agreed that needs analysis (NA) should be completed before any course starts; and it might be repeated during a course, because PSA may change. Robinson recounts two stages necessary to undertake a needs analysis:

- Reveal the complexity and dynamic of the organisation, the teaching institution.

- Attention to the specific needs of the organisation's constituent units.

In very short courses or those established at short notice, "a prior needs analysis may not be possible". In spite of the fact that in such a situation the first-day analysis is contributing to both overt and covert information, the conclusion could not have been identified before the start of the course, which is why students can consider their own needs.

However, Dudley-Evans and St John (1998:126) clarify that the way in which needs analysis is approached and conducted differs according to the situation: "Needs analysis and courses are not mounted in a vacuum and must be developed around available human and material resources." They present the process of undertaking needs analysis in "a course cline", as illustrated in Figure 2.3:

Long, extensive, repeated

Long, extensive, one-off

Short, intensive, repeated

Short, intensive, one-off

Figure 2.3. Analysis of course needs
(Dudley-Evans and St John (1998)

On the other hand, Jordan (1997: 23) represents the process of undertaking a needs analysis in EAP, English for Academic Purposes, but also applicable to ESP in ten steps, as seen in Figure 2.4:

<div align="right">

10.Evaluate procedures and results

9. Implement decisions (i.e. decide upon

syllabus, content, materials, methods, etc.)

8. Determine objectives

7. Analyse and interpret results

6. Collecting data

5. Select methods of collecting data

4. Acknowledge constraints/limitations

3. Decide upon approaches

2. Delimit student sample

</div>

1. Purpose of the analysis

Figure 2.4 Steps of Needs (Jordan 1997)

Thus, while the importance of needs and needs analysis in ESP cannot be ignored, the way or the framework in which it is undertaken has almost an equal significance. As it has been discussed above, needs and needs analysis could be in different forms, and equally they are important for learners. In this study we are concerned with the language learning needs according the current learners' perception. These are not treated as an actual course needs analysis, but as an investigation of the attitudinal perception of the specific needs of ESP learners.

2.2 Motivation

The importance of motivation in performing or fulfilling a certain activity cannot be ignored. Moreover, in some cases it can affect the accomplishment of that task or activity. Learning a foreign language is one of many areas where motivation can play an important role in affecting the outcome of the whole learning process. However, prior to discussing motivation in language learning, it is important to review briefly motivation from its basis, and that is within psychology. That will introduce some of the basis for the concept of motivation within language learning and language teaching.

2.2.1 Motivation in Psychology

The term 'motivation' has been described and identified differently by different researchers in psychology. The difference most of the time is ascribed to the developments in the field. In every description or definition of motivation, it is likely that the previous will be discarded; moreover, every definition could result in some problems. For example, in a historical perspective, Locke and Latham (1994) specify that there were three approaches to the study of human motivation which were dominant in the 1960s:

1. *Drive Theory*: Hull (1952) and others asserted that motivation stemmed from physiological need deprivation which "drove" organisms to engage in random activity until, by chance, the need was satisfied and the drive was thus reduced. The main problems with the theory are:

- not all motivation stems from physiological needs, e.g. curiosity, self-efficacy;

- not all need deprivation leads to an increase in drive, e.g. certain vitamin deficiencies;

- partial need satisfaction sometimes leads to increased drive, as when the appetite is "whetted";

- organisms, including people, often are motivated to engage in activities that increase rather than decrease tension, e.g. many purposeful human activities.

McDonough (1981) clarifies that the study of motivation was long dominated by the concept of drive. For psychologists such as Hull and Thorndike this was "energy directed toward a given goal"; this energy was regarded to arise from the difference between "the body's actual internal state and a state of physical equilibrium or 'homeostatic". However, McDonough discards the drive theory, in particular, in relation with the behaviourist reinforcement, for two reasons. Firstly, the drive to act (in language to learn) is reduced if the reward is reduced. Therefore, reward reduces learning instead of increasing it; as such, the theory is not particularly useful in analysing complex human problems because "needs reduction does not necessarily take place". The second reason for rejecting the needs-based drive theory is its mechanistic nature. Drive was held to result automatically from the development of a need, without reference to any more sophisticated set of values (McDonough 1981).

2. *Reinforcement Theory*. This is a behaviourist approach to motivation. It was led by Skinner's (1953) argument on motivation and was similar to *drive* theory except that the concept of an internal drive state was eliminated. Skinner asserted the role of reinforcement of behaviour, making subsequent, similar responses more likely to occur in similar situations. Reinforcement was defined solely in term of its effects.

3. *Subconscious Motives*. David McClelland (1961) introduced an alternative approach to motivation. He acknowledged the role of consciousness in human action- but emphasised the subconscious part of consciousness in his own work. He also argued that human action was guided, in part by subconscious motives (such as the achievement motive) that regulate human action over the long term. People with a strong achievement motive, for example, were said to choose activities in which they can control the outcome through their own efforts. They believe the risks are moderate, they can obtain clear feedback concerning their progress, and they can experience the successful attainment of standards of excellence.

However, Locke and Latham (1994) argue that there is a practical problem with this approach. They explain that every occupation presumably has a different motivational pattern. Thus, a very large set of motives would have to be studied in order to make predictions of action in specific situations. Furthermore, this approach takes virtually no account of the individual's conscious convictions, despite the

introspectively verifiable fact that such convictions regulate our actions on a daily basis.

Nevertheless, there have been more theories of motivation that either support or discredit the above ones. In another recent consideration of the term motivation, Ball (1977) points out that psychologists usually define motivation as the processes involved in arousing, directing, and sustaining behaviour. However, he explains that this definition is not without some problems:

- We must recognise that motivation is a hypothetical construct. That is, we cannot directly observe a person's motivation- all we can observe is a person's behaviour and environment in which a person is active. Motivation for the person's behaviour is something we infer. It is something within the individual, interacting with the environment, that we suppose arouses, directs, and sustain behaviour. This something is not measurable, given our current knowledge.

- We tend to overuse motivation as an explanatory concept. We cannot explain why people behave in certain ways. We can only describe people and their behaviour as they interact with their environment.

- Motivation is but one set of elements in the web of factors determining behaviour.

- Motivation involves many processes.

To add to the general consideration of motivation, and from a behavioural psychological perspective, Brown (1987) indicates that motivation is commonly thought of as an inner drive, impulse, emotion, or desire that moves one to a particular action. He also explains that motivation is seen as the fulfilment of needs. His view is closely connected to behaviourist reinforcement theory. When certain needs are being satisfactorily met within a particular context, reinforcement then occurs. If, for example, learning to speak a foreign language enhances one's ego, the ego enhancement is in itself an internal reinforcer of the desired behaviour.

Moving away from a behavioural orientation, Locke and Latham (1994) identify goals as a powerful motivator. They explain that the simplest reason why some people

perform better than others in controlling ability and knowledge, is that these specific people have different performance goals. The best performance is generated by assignment or adoption of challenging but achievable goals.

In a slightly different and rather general cultural account of motivation, Hawkings (1994) and Rueda and Moll (1994) address how the characteristics of individuals are based on social and cultural context and such experiences help to determine people's ability to profit from learning. Hawkings suggests that a main cultural influence is something "Confucian" in both its traditional and modern expressions. Rueda and Moll (1994) offer a sociocultural approach to motivation, suggesting that it is socially negotiated, socially attributed, and context specific. What a person finds motivating may depend on the culture in which the individual develops and the situation in which he or she acts.

Moreover, Graham (1994) reviews another strong and recent theory of motivation related in one way or another to culture. Its main argument is that motivation is seen in the context of 'attribution theory'. According to this theory, people attribute reasons to their performance, and such reasons determine subsequent performance. This social cognitive approach to motivation is concerned with an individual's representation of his or her environment as a determinant of how he or she strives for achievement. McDonough (1981) explains that the attribution theory attempts to describe motivational behaviour in terms of the cause to which the individuals attribute, or ascribe, their own and other people's performance: their own ability, effort and intention, or others' ability, effort, or intention, luck and so on. In doing so, it represents an attempt to elaborate the three components theory and include perceptions, motives and ideas which learners think influence their own performance- which may loosely be called 'cognitions'

The cognition aspect of motivation has been extensively considered. For example, Ames and Ames (1984) point out that motivation is to be looked at from a cognitive perspective. That is, motivation is primarily viewed as a function of a person's thoughts, rather than some instinct, need, drive, or state of arousal. They clarify that in the early conceptions of motivation, a need or drive was viewed as the inciter or "spring action", but in a cognitive approach, information encoded and transformed into beliefs are the

focus of study. They add that it is this focus on thoughts (and specific thoughts related to action in particular), which led to the great increase in knowledge-based efforts at motivation in education at both basic and applied levels. Current cognitive views focus on a variety of thoughts and determinants of action including attributions, information-seeking, metacognitive and cognitive strategies, emotional states, and self-evaluation. For example, error analysis studies indicate that a language learner through phases of development of learning reaches a stage that he or she can correct his or her language.

O'Neil and Drillings (1994) state that motivational variables, such as effort, anxiety, and curiosity play a significant role in performance at all stages. Such variables, O'Neil and Drillings suggest, influence the rate and ease with which individuals acquire new competencies, the quality of inference that can be made from testing trainee achievement, the likelihood the individual will actually use trained skills in the target context, and the resistance of knowledge and skills to degradation under conditions of stress and other unanticipated changes in situation.

To conclude the description and definition of motivation in psychology, it can be assumed that although there are varied descriptions and definitions of motivation, what it consists of and its constructs, there is some general agreement among researchers. For example, Murray (1964) suggests, on a possible general statement of motivation.

> …a motive is an internal factor that arouses, directs and integrates a person's behaviour. It is not observed directly, but inferred from his behaviour or simply assumed to exist in order to explain his behaviour (Murray, 1964: 7)

Hunter (1967:4) also gives a general account of motivation as:

> A state of need or desire that activates the person to do something that will satisfy his needs or desire.

Therefore, although the concept of motivation has been described differently within psychology, there is an agreed upon statement that would give an explanation of the term 'motivation'; and it is said to be important and influential in many human activities and behaviours, including language learning.

2.2.2 Motivation in Language Learning

To try to separate motivation in psychology from that in language would probably lead to distortion. On the contrary, the two are closely linked. Language learning and second language acquisition provide a fertile field for researchers in studying and investigating motivation.

Learning a language can be, arguably, a specialism on its own. Gardner and Lambert (1972) argue that "some people have a knack for language, others do not", but also acknowledge that when the social setting demands it, people master a second language no matter what their aptitude might be. They cite Carroll (1962) to point out that second language achievement varies according to three learner characteristics: aptitude, general intelligence and motivation; and two instructional variables: the opportunity students have for learning, and presentation of the material to be learnt; which are conducted upon adult classroom learners. However, from a cognitive point of view, motivation can be enhanced. The concept of aptitude importance in learning a language had dominated the early research in the field. Without eliminating its importance, more studies have emerged indicating a stronger influence of motivation in language learning.

In a more recent view of motivation, Gardner and Lysynchuk (1990:197) explain that 'motivational components' are the best predictor of subsequent achievement. Jakobovits (1970) has showed such an argument is convincing. The results of his study, which used college students as subjects, indicated that 33% of achievement in learning English is due to aptitude, 33% to motivation, 20% to intelligence and 14% to other factors. It was concluded that motivation in learning a language could be of equal importance to aptitude, which had been thought for a long time to be the strongest factor affecting learning a language.

Carroll (1990), Gardner (1959), and Jakobovits (1970) observe that aptitude and motivation are the most important predictors of successful learning. In addition, Jamieson (1992), in explaining the difference between motivation and aptitude, points out that motivation and attitude, the latter will be discussed separately in section 2.3, are 'predisposition' factors related to second language learning (SLL). On the other hand, aptitude is an unchanged factor, like age, gender etc. Aptitude generally refers to one's

natural ability and endowment by birth or background with an ascribed characteristic in obtaining or acquiring certain tasks. It is generally identified as the natural ability to learn a language combining various abilities to identify linguistic and communicative features of a language, and not including other factors such as intelligence, motivation and interest. It is another important area of research in language, which is beyond the scope of this study; the aim here is simply to show its relationship to motivation.

McDonough (1981) explains that motivation is certainly important for any learning operation; it is important to find some acceptable answers to the question of its relative contributions. McDonough also asserts that the sociological factors affecting language-learning situations, which Schumann (1978) refers to as creating social distance, play an important role here. He exemplifies this as the language learner who finds himself caught between hostile cultures, or cast as the representative of a resented or resisted culture, has immense problems in coping with these intangible pressures.

Thus, the importance of motivation in language learning explains some of the arguments against course designers for neglecting or not taking into consideration the issue of motivation of the learners, as an affective factor, which consequently resulted in less successful achievement of the targeted learners. Therefore, considering motivation as a main part of a language learning operation is a crucial matter.

Ball (1977) explains that a teacher sees a student as motivated if the student wants to do, and does, those things the teacher thinks the student should do. Similarly, a student is seen by the teacher as unmotivated if the student will not do, or has to be made to do, those things that a teacher thinks the student should do. He comments that two messages can be derived from such a situation. Firstly, motivation or lack of it is a subjective matter. Secondly, motivation is a central concept in any theory of education, and when a failure occurs in an education system, poor motivation, due to home background, bad teaching etc, is often blamed.

However, McDonough (1981) sees that there are some dangers inherent in the blanket term 'motivation'. For example, some inexperienced teachers may confuse the generating of enthusiasm, undoubtedly an important motivation element, with the whole task of motivating students to undertake and persevere with work. McDonough also

adds that there is a pedagogic problem and a problem of extrapolation, because the finding in psychology on motivation will often be difficult to extrapolate justifiably to the pedagogic situation, unless the resemblance of the experimental situation to the teaching one is very close. He illustrates that one should distinguish at least between:

a) energy
b) willingness to learn
c) perseverance
d) interest
e) enjoyment of the lessons
f) incentives
g) benefits of knowing the language

McDonough explains the more detailed distinctions that could be drawn. The origin of any of these variables for any particular learner may well be different from that of the other learners. The classroom treatment they are given also may differ. Willingness to learn may be related to parental encouragement (not necessarily positively) or to happy learning experiences in other subjects, or to some temperamental trait. Interest is often regarded as being a major element in the teacher's store of motivational tactics: if the pupil's interest is aroused, perseverance and so on, may be increased. Rewards, incentives, and a variety of classroom activity are further tactics available to the teacher. Nevertheless, their effects on success will depend on their quality, and on the pupils' own scale of values, which -in turn may have been partly formed by the effectiveness of other motivational tactics- in a sense, by the success of the teacher's advertising of the benefits of learning! The complexities arising in the discussions of motivation are thus evident:

1. the word generally refers to a collection of possibility distinct concepts
2. the sources of motivation may or may not be present in the classroom
3. only a few types of motivation are under the instructor's control
4. some types seem to be more closely related to the product of learning (qualifications, proficiency); others to the process (success or incentives for particular tasks, choice of language variety)
5. the effectiveness of any technique is determined by the students' own scale of values. (McDonough, 1981).

2.2.2.1 Types of motivation

The developments in research in both motivation and language learning/teaching have identified different types, if they may be so called, of motivation within language learning. Here are three types of motivation especially those that are relevant to our research:

Achievement/goal

Gardner and Tremblay (1994) explain there are three components of motivation in language learning: the desire to learn (cognitive component), the attitude toward learning (affective component) and the effort to learn (behavioural component). The type of motivation answers the question of why the individual is studying the language, referring to the goal. Many reasons could be listed: to be able to speak with the members of that language community, such as to get a job, to improve one's education, to be able to travel, to please one's parents, to satisfy a language requirement, to gain social power, etc. However, the reason has to reflect some goal associated with language learning. If a student is asked, 'Why are you learning French?' and the student replies: 'Because I have to', it does not show any kind of motivation for language learning.

One of the most common ways to distinguish motivation within language learning is by relating it to *achievement*. It is argued that gaining better achievement in language is the ultimate goal of the learning process. In other words, when a learner obtains better achievement in a language he or she can be seen as a 'motivated learner'. Thus, it is considered as a very distinguished method of identifying motivation in language learning.

The theory of *achievement* in motivation is also related to *achievement goals*. For example, Archer (1994:430) states: " an emerging theory of motivation focuses on the achievement goal or goals that a person holds. Midgely *et al* (1998:113) also explain that achievement goal theory has emerged as a major new direction in motivational research. Pintrich (2000) describes *achievement goals* as "the purposes or reasons an individual is pursuing an achievement task." This is as a rising area in motivation

research. Archer explains that the construct in achievement theory emerged from several quarters; "the goals have been variously labelled but share similar theoretical distinctions." hence *Goals*, according to Ames (1992) define "integrated patterns of beliefs, attributions, and affect that produce the intention of behaviour...represented by different ways of approaching, engaging in, and responding to achievement-type activities."

McDonough (1981) views another approach to motivation in relation to *Needs for Achievement (nAch)*. He explains that the learner's estimation of the value of the task to him (either in the long term or the short term), and the chances of succeeding, are clearly vital components of the motivation. The strength of nAch was considered by Atkinson (1964) to be the net result of two tendencies, motivation toward success and motivation toward avoidance of failure... e.g. individuals may have the same net nAch, but they could be different in character, that is, have different mixtures of drive to go and get success or to avoid failure. Their actual performance might well be different. The origins of these two aspects of nAch could be in different experiences in early childhood, and parental attitudes. Both of these tendencies were conceived of as being composed of three factors:

1. The person's expectations of success (or failure)
2. The value of the task as an incentive
3. The orientation toward success or toward avoidance of failure

However, McDonough (1981) says that we do not all behave or think identically. He comments that all teachers know that some of their students will cope easily with the learning material and activities and some will not; some will succeed and others will not. Thus, individual characteristics of learners may be directly or indirectly related to achievement in foreign language learning. For example, motivation may be directly and positively related, as the higher the degree of motivation, the harder the learner will work and the longer he or she will persist.

In an early account of motivation, Gardner (1985) relates it to language *achievement*, stating that in that sense, the concept of motivation is concerned with the question 'why does an organism behave as it does?' When we state that an individual is motivated, we

infer this on the basis of two classes of observations: first, that the individual displays some goal-directed activity, and second, that the person expends some effort. Moreover, questioning the person would show a desire or 'want' for the goal in question and favourable attitudes toward the activity in question in this case, learning the language. In short, Gardner sees motivation as involving four aspects: a goal: effortful behaviour; a desire to attain the goal; and favourable attitudes toward the activity in question. These four aspects are not unidimensional, and they in turn group themselves into two conceptually distinct categories.

Therefore, although a goal is a factor involved in motivation, it is not a measurable component of motivation. That is, although the goal is a stimulus which gives rise to motivation, individual differences in motivation itself are reflected in the latter three aspects listed above, effort expended to achieve the goal, desire to achieve the goal and attitudes toward the activity involved in achieving the goal. In assessing motivation to learn French, these three components are reflected in measures of motivational intensity, desire to learn French and attitudes toward learning French respectively. The goal, as we shall see next, is reflected in the individual's orientation to language study (Gardner 1985).

Archer (1994) points out that two types of *goals* in achievement have been proposed, the performance goal and the mastery goal. The performance goal is also described as an ego incentive or ego-involved; and those with this type of goal are primarily concerned in with demonstrating their ability to outperform others, that is to have more success, presumably with less effort. On the other hand, those with a mastery goal aim to develop their competence in a task or "increase their understanding of a subject and anticipate that this end will be achieved by hard work." Orientations towards goals are also a related research subject and seen as linked one (Archer 1994; Anderman and Anderman 1999; Midgely et al, 1998).

Self-efficacy

The recent continuing research in motivation has introduced other different types. For example, Zimmerman (2000) describes *self-efficacy* as "a personal judgement of one's capabilities to organize and execute courses of action to attain designed goals." Pajares

and Graham (1999) cite Bandura's (1986) social cognitive theory to explain how self-efficacy predicts students' subsequent capability to accomplish academic tasks or activities. They define self-efficacy as the students' judgments of confidence to perform such tasks or succeed in such activities.

Intrinsic-Extrinsic/ Integrative-Instrumental

In another description of motivation constructs or types, Ryan and Deci (2000) discuss two different types of motivation, *intrinsic* and *extrinsic* motivation. They simply refer to the former, *intrinsic*, as "doing something because it is inherently interesting or enjoyable"; whereas *extrinsic* motivation refers to doing something because it leads to a separable outcome." They derive that distinction from Self-Determination Theory (Deci and Ryan 1985), to distinguish between different types of motivation based on different reasons or goals that give rise to an action. The research in this area has suggested that *intrinsic* motivation leads to high quality learning and creativity. On the other hand, *extrinsic* motivation is seen as "pale and impoverished" by comparison, although still influential (Deci and Ryan 2000:55).

These two types, *intrinsic* and *extrinsic* motivations, are believed to be linked to an other two distinguished types of motivation in language learning originally introduced by Gardner and Lambert (1972), *integrative* and *instrumental* motivation. Though these terms in motivation have been challenged, the research in the area is considered to be valid and justifiable.

Brown (1987) states that motivation is examined as a factor of a number of different kinds of attitudes. Two different groups of attitudes result in two basic types of motivation: *instrumental* and *integrative* motivation, a distinction based on Gardner and Lambert (1972). *Instrumental* motivation refers to motivation to acquire a language as means for attaining instrumental goals: furthering a career, reading technical material, translation, and so forth, similar to *extrinsic* motivation above. An integrative motive is employed when learners wish to integrate within the culture of the second language group, to identify themselves with and become a part of the society, which may be related to *intrinsic* motivation.

Gardner and McIntyre (1993:58) state that the distinction between integrative and instrumental orientations is a common one in this field of research. They explain that an integrative orientation reflects an interest in learning another language because of a sincere and personal interest in the people and culture by the other language group". On the other hand, an instrumental orientation emphasises "the practical value and advantages of learning a new language". It has been shown repeatedly that it is not so much the orientation that promote achievement but rather motivation. If an integrative or instrumental orientation is not linked with heightened motivation to learn the second language, it is difficult to see how either could promote proficiency. Some of the related research in the field has found that integrative motivation generally accompanied higher scores on proficiency tests in a foreign language (Brown, 1987). The conclusion from these studies was that integrative motivation might indeed be an important requirement for successful language learning. Moreover, some teachers and researchers have even gone so far as to claim that integrative motivation is essential for successful second language learning. However, definitions of the two terms have never been precise and have undergone certain changes in the last twenty years.

However, some studies have shown differences in investigating these terms. Yasmeen and Lukmani (1972) demonstrated that among Marathi-speaking Indian students learning English in India, those with higher instrumental motivation scored higher in tests for English proficiency. The more recent findings are not necessarily contradictory to Gardner and Lambert's. They indicate that once again that there is no single means of learning a second language: some learners in some contexts are more successful in learning a language if they are integratively oriented, and others in different contexts benefit from an instrumental orientation. The findings also suggest that the two types of motivation are not necessarily mutually exclusive. Second language learning is rarely motivated by attitudes that are exclusively instrumental or exclusively integrative. Most situations involve a mixture of each type of motivation. Arabic speakers learning English in the United States for academic purposes may be relatively balanced in their desire to learn English for both academic (instrumental) purposes and to understand and become somewhat integrated with the culture, in a broad sense, and people of the United States.

In an expansion of the integrative motivation, Graham (1984) claims that integrative motivation has been too broadly defined in previous research. He makes a distinction between integrative and *assimilative motivation*. Integrative motivation is the desire on the part of a language learner to learn the second language in order to communicate with, or find out about, members of the second language culture, and does not necessarily imply direct contact with the second language culture. Assimilative motivation is a characteristic of persons who, perhaps at a very young age, learn a second language and second culture in order to identify almost exclusively with that second culture. Seen in this light, integrative motivation takes on less of a pervading affective character and becomes more of a simple contrast to instrumental motivation. One can be integratively oriented without a desire to "lose oneself" in the target culture.

Gardner and Lambert (1972) have performed a long series of correlational studies measuring the extent to which achievement in the second language is related either to a desire to use the language in the context of the student's own community, for business, or promotion, or simply to possess a prestigious qualification; or to a desire to become accepted by, or even become a member of, the community that speaks the other language 'instrumental' and 'integrative'. They have found that in places like Montreal, where English and French speaking Canadians live side by side, higher achievement in the other language is usually associated with the integrative orientation.

According to the study, McDonough (1981) points out that an instrumental orientation is deduced from agreement with the following statements:
The study of {French} can be important to me because:

1. I need it to finish high school
2. One needs a good knowledge of at least one foreign language to merit social recognition
3. I think it will some day be useful in getting a good job
4. I feel that no one is really educated unless he is fluent in (French)
5. (these refer to indications of success of various kinds within the learner's own community)

In contrast, an integrative orientation to language learning is diagnosed from agreement with the following statements:

The study of French is important to me because:

1. It will enable me to gain good friends more easily among French speaking people

2. It will help me understand better the French speaking people and way of life

3. It will allow me to meet and converse with more and various people

4. It should enable me to think and behave as do the French speaking people

5. 5, 6 and 7 a general desire for wider social contact among speakers of the language in the same city...

Nevertheless, probably the main research in this area is the work done by Gardner and Lambert, who have undertaken some longitudinal studies, e.g. (1959) and (1972). For example, in a recent work, Gardner and McIntyre (1993) point out that integrative motivation is defined in terms of a median split on scores obtained on subtests from the Attitude/Motivation Test Battery, while instrumental motivation is situationally determined in terms of monetary reward for doing well. The results demonstrated that both integrative and instrumental motivation facilitated learning; other results indicated that instrumentally motivated students studied longer than non-instrumentally motivated students did when there was an opportunity to profit from learning, but this distinction disappeared when the incentive was removed. Both integratively and instrumentally motivated students spent more time thinking about the correct answer than those not so motivated, suggesting that both elements have an energising effect.

A basic view of the "socioeducational model" is that integrative motivation simplifies second language acquisition because it reflects an active involvement in language study (Gardner and McIntyre 1993). This active component has been demonstrated in studies which show that, in addition to being more successful in learning a second language, integratively motivated students are more active in language class. They are also more likely to participate in excursions to the other cultural community when given the opportunity and to interact with members of that community when there, and less likely to drop out of language study in subsequent years. To date, by contrast with integrative motivation, little research has been done on instrumental motivation, apart from instrumental orientation (Gardner and McIntyre 1993). Gardner and Trembaly (1994) put more emphasis on integrativeness of motivation, asserting that motivation is supported by integrativeness and attitude, rather than instrumentality.

2.2.2.2 Motivation and intensity

Gardner (1985), citing Dunkel (1948), distinguishes between the kind of motivation and motivation intensity, as the former refers to the goal sought by the individual while the latter refers to the degree of effort the individual expends to achieve that goal. The concept of intensity of motivation is, according to Dunkel (1948), emphasises the nature of the 'approaching-the-goal' behaviour. That is, given the same goal, two individuals could differ in their effort to achieve this goal. Studies indicate that subjects who selected integrative reasons over instrumental ones as indicative of themselves exhibit higher levels of motivational intensity.

In the area of second language acquisition, motivational intensity has been assessed by determining the amount of effort the individual expends, or is willing to expend (Gardner, 1985), usually based on an assessment of self-report. Gardner and Lambert (1959; 1972) and Gardner and Smythe (1975) indicate that such research tends to focus on questions dealing with amount of effort spent on homework, willingness to take on a special assignments, activity spent on improving level of knowledge, and intentions about using available opportunities to improve language (French) knowledge.

However, Gardner (1985) clarifies that focusing only on intensity does not completely describe the concept of motivated behaviour. He exemplifies that two individuals may express comparable levels of motivational intensity yet differ considerably in the nature of the affect associated with their behaviour. One may have a stronger desire to learn a language (such as French in Gardner example), as well as having more positive attitudes toward learning it. These two emotional aspects of motivated behaviour must be included for a complete representation of motivation. It seems highly likely that individual differences in desire to learn French would correlate with differences in attitudes toward learning French and motivational intensity; in fact they do (Gardner and Smythe 1975; 1977). Motivational intensity might be high among a class of students because of impending examination or a strict teacher, but there may not be correspondingly high levels of desire to learn French, or attitudes toward learning French.

Gardner (1985) differentiates between orientation and motivation, explaining that the former refers to a class of reasons for learning a second language, while motivation refers to a complex of three characteristics which may or may not be related to any particular orientation. These characteristics are attitudes toward learning the language, desire to learn the language and motivational intensity. The distinction can be clarified by considering differences between integrative orientation and integrative motive. An integrative orientation refers to that class of reasons that suggest that the individual is learning a second language in order to learn about, interact with, or become closer to, the second language community. This could reflect an interest in forming a closer liaison with the other language community. The concept of the integrative motive includes not only the orientation but also the motivation (attitudes toward learning the language plus desire and motivational intensity) and a number of other attitude variables involving the other language community, out-groups in general and the language learning context. Integratively oriented individuals may tend to be more highly motivated than those with more instrumental orientations, but this association is not guaranteed a priori. It seems very possible that some individuals may reflect an integrative orientation but not be strongly motivated to learn the second language, or vice versa. Consequently, the distinction between orientation and motivation should be kept clear when reading the research literature.

Therefore, one distinction that can be made between orientation and motivation from previous researches, is that an integrative orientation reflects a goal to learn a second language because of a favourable interest in the other language community. Only if this orientation is linked with effort expended to achieve this goal, a desire to learn the language, and favourable reactions to the language, the community and the language learning context can one meaningfully speak of an integrative motive. Although it is true that some studies have shown that integratively individuals are more highly motivated than instrumentally orientated ones (Gardner and Lambert 1959), this is not necessary always the case, and it is even possible that instrumentally orientated individuals will demonstrate high levels of motivation. It is suggested that attitudes and motivation are important because they determine the extent to which individuals will actively involve themselves in learning the language (Gardner and Lambert, 1972; Gardner, 1985).

To conclude, motivation in general is a major factor affecting language learning, and ignoring it in the process of learning would make the picture of learning rather incomplete. The vast research within language learning and educational psychology have produced some useful outcomes in identifying certain areas for language teachers and course designers to benefit from in the process of learning and teaching. Such studies have also provided some wide range of areas within motivation itself that have brought diversity and variety to the research areas in applying them to varied language learning situations. ESP is one of the situations that have benefited from the research in educational psychology, such as identifying some applicable concepts of motivation in learning a language, such as *instrumental* motivation.

2.2.2.3 ESP and Motivation

The relationship of motivation to ESP has several facets. First, there is an assumption that because teaching content is oriented to learners needs, they will feel more motivated by it, knowing that it is relevant and important to their lives. Dudley-Evans and St John (1998) suggest that in ESP courses there are more obvious advantages because the courses are based on students' specific needs. They cite Strevens (1988) who summarises these advantages of ESP in language learning:

- focused on the learners' needs, and it wastes no time;
- relevant to the learner;
- successful in imparting learning;
- more cost-effective than 'General English'.

These points do imply that 'ESP teaching' is more motivating than General English. Dudley-Evans and St John (1998:10) point out, however, that in general terms this is the case, because " the focused nature of the teaching, its relevance and cost-effectiveness" ensure that aims of such courses are widely accepted by learners. Some studies have been conducted, especially in Africa, which support these assumptions, such as Mprarutsa et al, (1991). These studies suggest that introducing students to a more

specific and subject-related course is more successful in motivating them and meeting their needs.

The second point in discussing ESP and motivation is that most of researchers observe that learners in ESP are instrumentally motivated. This is explained in terms of learners being mainly adults, whom are conscious of their interests and purpose, and want to learn English to get qualified because the language is needed for a job, such as teaching (Macky and Mountford 1978; Robinson 1980, 1991; Kennedy and Bolithio 1984 and Hutchinson and Waters, 1987).

For example, Kennedy (1984:15) cites Roe's (1977) conception of three levels of instrumental motivation in learning English:

1. Where English is required to obtain a degree or a desirable job or to get promotion.
2. To improve examination grades or improve career prospects.
3. Where English could increase the student's status, to be used abroad, or to widen his knowledge and interests.

However, instrumental motivation is not the only motivation ESP learners have, although it is in theory more likely to be found. Integrative motivation or other types cannot be excluded. In other words, learners are individuals and humans, not machines; therefore, differences are expected in certain situations. Hutchinson and Waters (1987:48) state that although the relevance of specialised content in ESP course is useful and can be motivating, ESP learners are people, not machines. Therefore, they suggest that such specialised content would be more useful if some enjoyment, fun, creativity and a sense of achievement were included. They add that in ESP as in any good subject teaching students needs to be '*intrinsically* motivated'.

Hutchinson and Waters' (1987) suggestion is a valid point. ESP should not only be seen from a motivational perspective as solely *instrumental*. The conception of researching motivation in ESP should be widened to include other types of motivation in order to reach better-motivated learners. Thus, researching motivation in ESP learners' situations is an important factor, as in any other learning case. However, because of its special content and adult learners, ESP can be an even more important and fertile field

in language learning and teaching in the investigation of motivation than other fields. Nevertheless, researching motivation of ESP learners has not received much attention and few studies have been produced in that area.

2.3 Attitudes

2.3.1 Definition

The very early definitions of attitude, in the 1930s, do agree on what attitude is. Allport (1954) cites three statements describing the nature of attitudes:

> Attitude: The specific mental disposition toward an incoming (or arising) experience, whereby that experience is modified; or, a condition of readiness for a certain type of activity.
> (Warren, Dictionary of Psychology, 1934)
>
> An attitude is a set of mental dispositions of the human individual to act for or against a definite object. (Droba, 1930)
>
> An attitude is a mental and neural state of readiness, organised through experience, exerting a directive or dynamic influence upon the individual's response to all objects and situations with which it is related
> (Allport 1937)

In the foregoing definitions of attitudes, the emphasis is on the mental process of attitudes in acting, behaving or perceiving certain objects. With more research and in the course of time, additional definitions of attitude were introduced, most if not all of which stress that attitudes are general and enduring positive or negative feelings about an object, person or issue (Petty and Cacioppo, 1981:189).

There was a general agreement in describing the 'attitude' of a person toward some objects as 'constituting a predisposition on his/her part to respond to the object in a consistently favourable manner' (Allport 1937, cited by Ajzen and Fishbein 1973:41). It was not until 1950s that attitudes started to be perceived as a multi-component concept (Haque 1989). In a later observation of attitudes, Edward (1972) describes attitudes as consisting of three components:

a   Feelings (affective component), good or bad

b   Thoughts or ideas or a set of reasons for feelings and acting that way (cognitive component)

c   Predispositions to act in predictable ways (conative or behavioural component)

The Figure 2.5 below illustrates a schematic presentation of attitude:

```
                        ┌──────────────┐
              ┌─────────│   Attitude   │──────────┐
              │         └──────┬───────┘          │
              ▼                ▼                   ▼
      ┌──────────────┐ ┌──────────────┐   ┌──────────────┐
      │  Affective   │ │  Cognitive   │   │   Conative   │
      └──────────────┘ └──────────────┘   └──────────────┘
```

Figure 2.5 Attitude schematic presentation (Edward 1972)

Edward (1972) argues that there is a consistent relation between the affective component and the conative behavioural one. For example, an English language learner might have a negative affective component of attitude towards the English language but at the same time know that he or she cannot get along without English, and so having a positive behavioural component. Another point raised by Edward is that there is an overlapping or confusion between attitude and belief, because the latter is known to be included as a component of attitude.

These arguments, the different configuration of attitudes, have been considered for a lengthy period of time. In addition to that, the component that receives most attention in research is the 'affective' one, with related interest to the psychology of a language, language learning and motivation to learn a language. This however, does not entail that other components are regarded as irrelevant to the psychology of language learning.

2.3.2 Functions of Attitudes

Different attitudes can exert an influence on the performance of the beneficiaries in their social life and learning. Petty and Cacioppo (1981: 189-90) identify four important main functions of an individual's personality:

1. *The utilitarian or instrumental function*, people adjusting to their environment and utilising it to obtain some social rewards within that environment.

2. *The ego-defensive function*, in which people defend their ego and improve their self-esteem, by avoiding unlikeable truth about themselves or about others.

3. *The value expressive function*, making people express their fundamental values, by obtaining satisfaction from expressing a compatible position with personal values and self-concept.

4. *The knowledge function* which helps people understanding the events and other people around them by organising and simplifying a very complex input from their environment.

These are not the only functions of attitudes; although they could serve other less obvious purposes or function in people's lives. These functions of attitudes are described in accordance with people's social life behaviours, beliefs and actions; more specifically these functions can also be expressed in language learning situations. In this case, they do not have an auxiliary function, but a more specific one. This is also one of the strong arguments of and Gardner and Lambert's categorisation of attitudes into educational and social types.

2.3.3 Types of Attitudes

Gardner (1985) argues that before relating attitudes to language achievement, first we should consider what attitudes are and why they take the form they do. He explains that there are two different types of attitudes, attitudes towards learning the language, and the attitudes toward the other-language community. In relating these two to language achievement, analysis reveals that the first set of attitudes is consistently related to achievement, while the second shows a more variable set of relationships. He also states that research in the area of relating attitudes to achievement in a second language takes two forms:

- Focusing on only a few attitude measures, emphasising primarily the correlations of these measures with some aspects of achievement.

- Considering a series of such measures and emphasising multivariate procedure.

The term attitudes can refer generally to two things. The first are educationally relevant factors, such as attitudes toward the teacher or the language itself or to such socially

relevant factors as the group that speaks the language. The second concerns more general attitudinal dispositions such as ethnocentrism, authoritarianism, or anomie (dissatisfaction with ones role in society) (Gardner 1985).

Gardner (1985) classifies attitudes according to how they can be reflected in the relationship between attitude measures and indices of achievement in a second language. Attitudes can be classified in two dimensions of specificity and generality. For example, attitude toward learning French is relatively specific in that the attitude object (e.g. learning French) is fairly clearly circumscribed and definite. On the other hand, interest in foreign languages is more general, because the attitude object is 'foreign languages' which is a more general construct than only one language. In addition, there is no particular activity associated with the languages. In the case of attitudes toward French, a specific activity is described. Interest in foreign languages could involve many activities, such as learning them, speaking them, and hearing them.
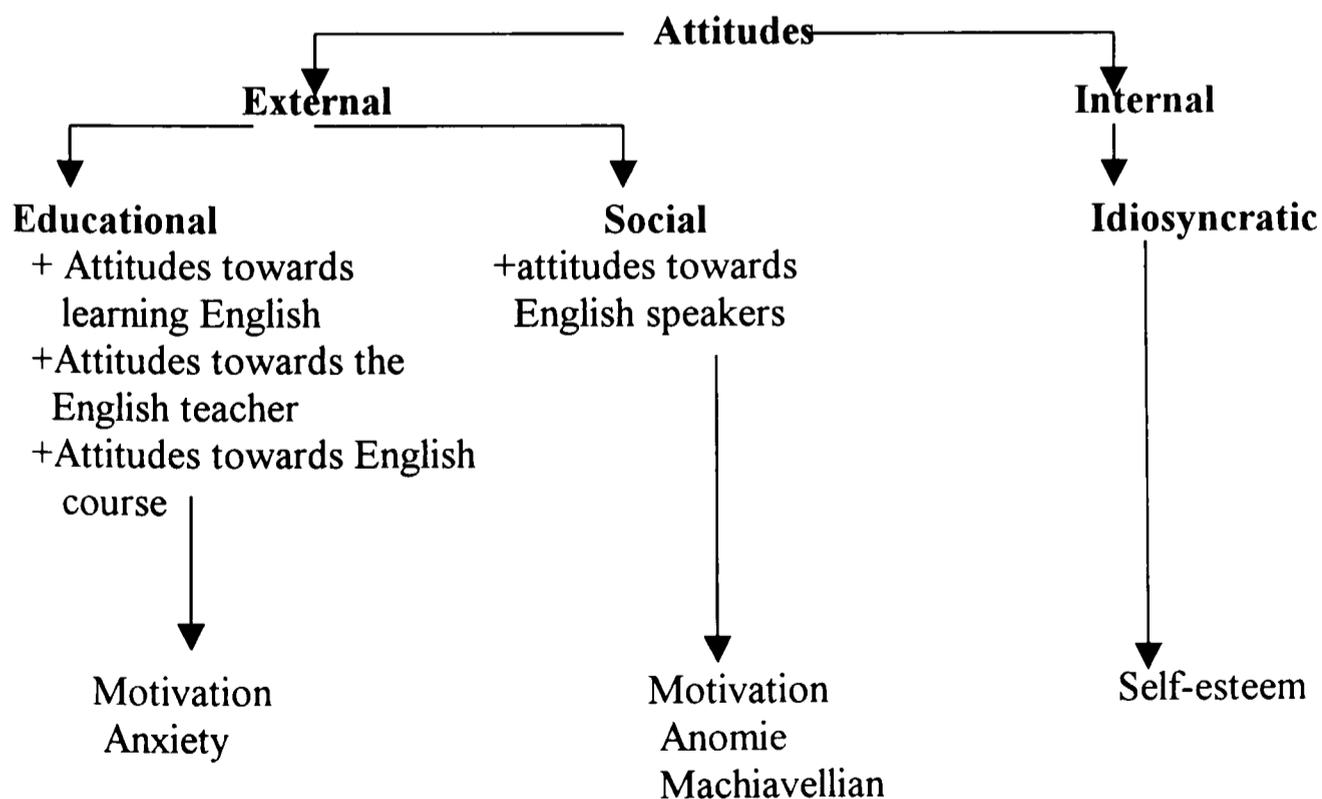
Attitudes also can be classified in terms of their relevance to second language achievement. Some attitudes are more relevant to the task of learning a second language than others. These differences are expected to be reflected in correlations of the various attitude measures with indices of achievement in the language. Obviously, relevance can be defined simply in terms of correlation between the attitude and achievement variables (Gardner and Lambert, 1972; and Gardner, 1985).

In Gardner's study, he points out that there are a few reasons why one would anticipate a relationship between attitudes toward French Canadians and French achievement. One might expect that those with favourable attitudes would be more attentive, serious, rewarding and the like, than those of with negative attitudes, but even so, attitudes might not be related to achievement. An individual could hold positive attitudes but prefer not to study the language in school because of a feeling that such a context is not appropriate, or because of a dislike of the teacher, for example. Then it would be less probable that attitudes toward French Canadians would relate to indices of achievement, and that if such relationships exist, they are more interesting in some respects because they are less expected.

The relationship attitudes and achievement may vary in relation and strength according to which attitude is being measured. For example, studies involving attitudes toward learning the language generally obtain higher relationships with achievement than studies of attitudes toward the second language community, and the patterns appear more consistent. From this, it is concluded that relevance, defined as above, is not the only factor influencing such relationships (Gardner 1985).

Another type of attitudinal variable, Gardner (1985) argues, is a socio-educational one. Such attitudes are towards the teacher, the course, learning the language, etc. Purely, social attitudes, on the other hand, involve attitudes that focus on the cultural implications of second language acquisition.

Heyde (1979) expands the subject even further. He categorises attitudes into two types: (a) external and (b) internal. As it can be seen in Figure. 2.6, external attitudes are the assessments, estimations and evaluations that the learner direct towards factors outside him/herself, such as the purpose of the second language or the second language culture. In contrast, internal attitudes refer to the evaluations or assessments that the learner directs towards factors within himself, such as self-competence, ability, self-worth, self-esteem, etc.

Attitudes

External   **Internal**

Educational   **Social**   **Idiosyncratic**
+ Attitudes towards   +attitudes towards
  learning English   English speakers
+Attitudes towards the
  English teacher
+Attitudes towards English
  course

Motivation   Motivation   Self-esteem
Anxiety   Anomie
                         Machiavellian

Figure 2.6 Classification of Attitudes (Heyde, 1979)

This classification of attitudes is more obvious when the attitudes of certain learners are measured. For example, in investigating attitudes, a researcher would categorise attitudes statement or questions more likely within the frame of this classification, such as questions or statements on attitudes towards the native speakers of the target language (external-social); others about attitudes towards learning the language, and related factors such as teachers and the specific courses (external-educational); and statements or questions about the learner's personal confidence and opinion in related matters of learning (internal).

Attitude and motivation has been historically closely linked. Early research in the area of motivation has paired motivation and attitude as one cluster or an affective factor, especially by Gardner and Lambert (1959, 1972). In this study, attitudes are used as indicators and registers of motivation. Motivation itself is used as a bigger umbrella that covers achievement and attitudes.

In conclusion, this chapter looked at three main issues that are related to this study. These are: needs, motivation and attitudes. Through discussing their importance in language learning and teaching, the chapter also reflected on the more considerable role that these issues play within the world of ESP. In addition, the ever developing world of ESP, the importance of considering its discourse community and investigating the relevance of perception of specific needs to learners' attitudes and motivation could reveal significant results in relation to the larger issue of achievement and learning within ESP. The following chapter will review the research methods of these issues, in particular the design of the researching methods instruments in relation to the target settings of this study, KKMA, and its cadets.

Chapter Three

Research Methods

Introduction

This chapter accounts for the research methods used in this study to collect data KKMA cadets' achievement, perception of needs, attitudes and motivation. It provides, first, a general review of the researching method, qualitative and quantitative, and then more specifically the instruments of investigation that are used in this study. Also, this chapter looks at the method of analysis of the collected data in order to serve the hypotheses and the research questions.

As mentioned earlier, in the introduction, there are four main research questions to be addressed in this study:

1. Do ESP learners have a positive understanding and perception of the military discourse community and its specific language needs?
2. Do achievement and perception of specific needs of learners relate to attitudes towards culture, people, and learning the target language?
3. Does the perception of the prospective ESP discourse community's specific needs engender better learners and achievers of the ESP language learning?
4. Does the positive perception of using English within the discourse community result in an integrative type of motivation in the process of learning, and have learners' willingness to be integrated with the sub-culture discourse community?

Moreover, the study investigates whether students with a higher level of English possess a greater understanding of the future role of English in their lives. An understanding of ESP needs may thus develop out of positive experiences of learning. Such experiences

and engendered change in attitudes to learning would then be an important pre-requisite for implementing successful ESP.

Therefore, this question will ask whether we can think about using ESP to persuade students that they are learning English to join a culture of a military discourse community. Thus, the agenda of language learning is integration into the discourse community.

Accordingly, this study aims to consider the following:
1. Cadets' perception of specific needs.
2. Their attitudes to British, Australian and North America (BANA) culture.
3. Their attitudes and motivation towards English Language learning.

This investigation will support a larger aim by allowing us to look for points of relationships between:
   a. The perception of specific needs and accredited achievement in English.
   b. Attitudes towards BANA cultures and peoples on one hand and English language achievement on the other.
   c. Attitudes towards BANA culture and the degree of specificity of language learning content.

In order to achieve these objectives, two research approaches were used, qualitative and quantitative. A quantitative approach was used to collect a large volume of readily analysable and comparable data in a short time, with few resources. This was complemented by a qualitative method for more in-depth exploration and to provide richer insight into learners' motivation and attitudes.

This chapter will describe and explain the rationale of the methods used in the light of methodological literature and previous language research. The development and piloting of the research instruments will be described, as will their application. Sampling will also be considered. The chapter ends with a discussion of the ethical issues raised by this research.

3.1 Research Design

The role of any kind of investigation or research is a way of seeking certain results. Breakwell (1995) explains that we conduct research to find out what has happened, how it happened and, if possible, why it happened. Thus, research is not inevitably tied to formal theory building or theory testing.

As Mertens (1998) states, research is different from other ways of gaining knowledge such as insight, divination, inspiration and acceptance of authoritative dictates, in that it is a process of systematic inquiry that is designed to collect, analyse, interpret and use data to understand, describe, predict or control a phenomenon. Nunan (1992:2) defines research as "a systematic process of inquiry consisting of three elements or components: (1) a question, problem or hypothesis; (2) data; (3) analysis or interpretation of data.

According to Blaxter et al, (1996), research can be conceptualised on three levels: research families, research approaches and research techniques. Research families are qualitative or quantitative, and deskwork or fieldwork. The research approaches are action research, case studies, experiments and surveys, while research techniques include documents, interviews, observation, and questionnaires.

Some would argue that there are two main types of research. For example, Robson (1993) identifies two different models of the research process. One model is to collect all the data before starting to analyse it; another one has data collection and analysis intertwined. The first one is variously labelled as positivist, natural, science based, hypothetical, deductive, quantitative or even simply 'scientific'; whereas the second one is seen as interpretive, ethnographic or qualitative. Thus, it can be generalised that possibly the main distinction between research methods is whether they are mainly seen as quantitative or qualitative.

3.2.1 Scientific or Quantitative Research

Research and experimentation in the sciences have benefited strongly from research methods, particularly those with systematic and linear ways of investigation. Thus,

research using such methods is often labelled as scientific. More specifically, Robson (1993) describes the scientific approach as a method of research that starts with theory. A theory is a general statement that summarises and organises knowledge by proposing a general relationship between events, and predicts events that have not yet occurred or been observed. Robson (1993) mentions that theory and previous research similarly put scientific researchers into a position of knowing what they are looking for; they have a specific hypothesis to be tested.

Rudestam and Newton (1992) describes positivism or quantitative research as maintaining that all knowledge is derived from direct observation and logical inferences based on direct observation. They also clarify that statistical methods are especially useful for looking at relationships and patterns and expressing these patterns in numbers.

Delamont (1992) explains that quantitative research consists of studies in which the data concerned can be analysed in terms of numbers; and based more directly on its original plans while its results are more readily analysed and interpreted.

Hence, the characteristics and special features of quantitative research that have been reviewed above indicate the purpose of using such type of research. These characteristics reveal the difference of the quantitative research in comparison to other types of research, mainly qualitative, which will be reviewed in the following discussion. In this study a quantitative approach –questionnaire- is used to serve our research purposes.

First under consideration is the availability of a quantitative method to test hypothesis. Secondly, is its application on larger-scale of subjects in a short time, and including different items in the survey. A quantitative technique, such as a questionnaire, provides the researcher with the possibility of more statistical analysis of responses, such as correlation and t-test etc, in order to look for significant responses and relations between variables.

3.2.2 Interpretive or Qualitative Research

Qualitative research contrasts with quantitative research, in philosophy and nature. The term 'interpretative' is often used as a synonym of qualitative, and sometimes it used to describe or identify qualitative research. For example, Banister et al, (1994: 2) describes qualitative research: "the interpretive study of a specified issue or a problem in which the researcher is central to the sense it is made". This definition singles out two distinguished characteristics of qualitative research in comparison to the quantitative. Firstly, it is interpretive and descriptive; secondly, the researcher has a significant role in this description or interpretation, as he or she is the 'inferer' or the interpreter. Robson (1993) describes qualitative research, as an interpretive ethnographic type of research. Silverman (1993) distinguishes the qualitative research as an interpretive and more concerned with observation, description and hypothesis generation.

As Robson (1993) explains, the 'major' differences in the interpretive approach compared to positivist, scientific or quantitative research, is that theories and concepts tend to arise from the inquiry, and they come after data collection rather than before it. For this reason it is often referred as 'hypothesis generating' (as against hypothesis testing) research. Also, in the interpretive approach, data collection and analysis are not rigidly separated. Robson (1993), citing Spradley (1980), adds that in the interpretive or qualitative research the beginning is much more general, and the researcher explores gathering information, going first in one direction, then perhaps retracing that route, then starting out in a new direction. That assumes we would signify the flexibility of this type of research either in its theory building, as mentioned above, or in its way of gathering information and, more importantly, data collection.

Silverman (1993:25-26) points out that the main emphasis in qualitative research is on the 'naturally occurring data'. According to him, the search for an appropriate definition has gone through different phases, he highlights four versions, with slight differences between them, citing Hammersley's (1992:182) version:

1. Field research should be theoretically driven rather than determined by technical considerations (what can be measured, what can be sampled)...

2. Following both Cicourel and Hammersley and Atkinson, members of society routinely employ theories about social orders. This involves a methodological step which encourages us to examine social phenomena as procedural affairs, replacing the questions 'why do people do X in the first place? ' and 'what keeps people doing X' with 'what do people have to do to be (routinely, unremarkably, but recognisably and readily so) doing X'.

3. Field research should attempt to make problematic the common-sense reasoning used in definitions of variables (for instance, what constitutes 'suicide' or an 'organisation') and in establishment of basic research problems (e.g. the identification of 'family' with the 'household'). Ultimately, this means we must attend to common-sense assumptions about what constitutes 'the field'

4. While the attempt to erect a polarity between 'natural' and 'artificial' settings is spurious, it does give rise to a legitimate methodological preference. Field researchers need to be convinced that non-naturally-occurring data should be turned to in the first instance (interactionisim) or at all (ethnomethodology). Following Kirk and Miller (1986:9), 'qualitative research is a particular tradition in social sciences that fundamentally depends on watching people in their own territory'.

Although these phases of qualitative research versions have been seen as different developments in the research itself in different periods as it is implied by Silverman, they also can be regarded as complementary stages or features of qualitative research. For example, the first version refers to the less technical nature of qualitative research and to the need for more openness in determining what to examine and how. In addition to that, it explains one of the basics of the qualitative research. The following the version deals with the social members as a part of the theory-building in examining social phenomena. Then, developments reached a stage where more emphasis is based on the natural settings in researching, such as ethnographic method.

Silverman (1993:28) explains his view that there are three main features of the qualitative field research:

1. Field research can provide a broader version of theory than simply a relationship between variables: 'a theory must include reference to the mechanisms or processes by which the relationship among the variables identified is generated'.

2. The flexibility of field research 'allows theory development to be pursued in a highly effective and economical manner'.

3. Such studies do not regard theorising as restricted to social sciences; this point lies at the heart of field research.

Thus, the strengths of the qualitative research are mainly in *natural* settings of the investigation and the collected data, and in the *interpretive* method of analysis and not restricted to numbers. It is for these characteristics that a qualitative method, semi-structured interview has been used to complement the quantitative one. For example, the natural interaction with cadets in the Academy would give more in-depth and detailed explanations from their points of views about their English course, and more importantly about their motivations and attitudes. Also, at the same time, it provided the researcher with more interpretative and inducting information. On the other hand, using a quantitative method might not allow interaction and inference, but it would offer the researcher the means to research larger issues, using a bigger sample, with the appropriate statistical analysis.

To conclude, it is worth noting that both types -quantitative and qualitative- are commonly used in the research within the social sciences. Each type has different features and characteristics that differentiate it from the other type. The main difference between these types is the nature or the philosophy behind it; and, more obviously, the specific researching instruments used to collect certain data, and consequently the methods of analysis of these data. Therefore, the following section of discussion will be devoted to a review of how and why these were applied to the different areas of investigation.

3.3 Instruments of Investigation

Describing a research method as qualitative or quantitative depends on how they are designed and used. For example, interviews are seen as a qualitative method if used in unstructured manner, but more quantitative when highly structured.

At first glance, there are various techniques, quantitative and qualitative, for gathering information on *needs, attitudes* and *motivation*. The main distinction probably is ascribed to the focus or the use of one technique rather than another. For instance, the preferred techniques that are widely used amongst the qualitative research are interviews and observations; on the other hand, quantitative research mostly favours questionnaires. We will discuss in this part briefly the techniques or researching instruments, then indicate in detail the instruments of research that are used in this study to collect the required data, as well as the rationale for opting for these techniques.

3.3.1 Observation and Case Study

Observation is one of the common research instruments that are used in psychology and language learning. Banister et al, (1994: 17) describes it as "the most basic and oldest method in the whole of psychology", and it is in one way or another part of human nature. In identifying language needs, observation and case studies are widely used and have produced some useful research. The most distinguished research that used observation and case studies is Richterich and Chancerel.

Observation technique is usually associated with case study. Robinson (1991) describes observation as a technique aiming to students' behaviour "target", and present performance, involving non-linguistic communication; and case study as a kind of observation, in which an individual is "shadowed" over a period of time. It probably will identify difficult linguistic features, and provide information to support a process oriented definition of needs.

In general terms, the case study approach is a technique for observing one learner or a small group of learners over a period of time. The early example of this method is Evans and Pastor (1972) who used this method and produced twelve case studies of the foreign-language needs of Swedish social staff workers in four African countries. Their objective was to find out what language skills are needed for successful performance of tasks in the commercial field.

The *case study* method can also be applied on one learner. An example of that is Schmidt (1981). He observed a single learner and studied his needs in lecture comprehension as a case of an advanced ESL student studying business administration in an American university. Schmidt (1981) suggests that the case study approach is a thorough method for investigating a learner's communicative needs. The method not only identifies what the learner needs to learn, in content, but also the means of learning and language abilities the learner must have in order to gain a knowledge of the field.

The most known general disadvantage of such researching methods is the problem of producing generalisable statistical data. Tuckman (1972) notifies that observations have a highly subjective quality. They often represent what is in the eye of the beholder rather than what actually exists. And Banister et al (1994: 30-31) point out that information based on observation might end up being very subjective, and the technique itself is very time consuming and labour intensive. Thus, the general disadvantages of the observation technique are the 'generalisability' of the data, the subjectivity of the observer as the possibility of bias in observation is high, and it is time consuming and an effort demanding technique.

It is for these disadvantages that observation and case study techniques are not used in this study to collect data. One of the main difficulties of using observation or case study in this investigation is mainly its being a time consuming technique. In settings such as KKMA, a military environment which is very systematic, organised and disciplined, it would be "asking too much" to be permitted to observe cadets for longer periods. In addition, observation and case study, in my view, would be useful to identify cadets learning needs, but not to examine the attitudes and motivation. Because attitudes usually are expressed and disclosed and require a scale of measurement, they cannot be

directly observed and identified. Motivation is also another phenomenon that is mostly measured or identified by expressed and released information rather than observed.

3.3.2 Interviews

Using interviews is a very familiar technique in research and collecting data, especially in social sciences in general. Besides, it can be said that it is one of the special research methods, especially if used as unstructured or semi-structured design, enabling a researcher to investigate certain information that is very difficult to obtain in using quantitative methods. In general, Breakwell (1995) describes the research interview as a very systematic approach to data collection, which can be done at any stage of the research, and is flexible in the sense that it may encompass other research techniques such as the self-completion questionnaire or observation.

Moreover, Cohen and Manion (1994) define the research interview as 'a two-person conversation initiated by the interviewer for the specific purpose of obtaining research-relevant information, and focused by him on content specified by research objectives of systematic description, prediction, or explanation'; also as a unique data gathering method depending on verbal interaction and marked by its flexibility.

In addition, Silverman (1993) points out that interviews are commonly used in both approaches, qualitative and quantitative. Quantitative researchers administer interviews or questionnaires to random samples of the population (survey research); fixed choice questions (yes/no) are usually preferred because the answers they produce lend themselves to simple tabulation, unlike open-ended questions which produce answers that requiring coding. On the other hand, 'authenticity' rather than reliability is often the issue in qualitative research. The aim is, as Silverman mentions, usually to gather an authentic understanding of people's experiences and it is believed that open-ended questions are the most effective route towards this end. Qualitative interviews are often conducted with small samples.

3.3.2.1 Types of Interviews

Robson (1993) views the distinction between interviews as based on the degree of structure or formality of the interview. Blaxter *et al* (1996) state that "at one extreme, an interview may be tightly structured, with a set of questions requiring specific answers, or it may be a very open-ended, taking the form of discussion; in the latter case the purpose of the interviewer may be simply to facilitate the subject talking at length. Semi-structured interviews lie between these two positions". While unstructured and semi-structured interviews are more likely to be used by qualitative researchers, structured interviews, which are similar to questionnaires, will be favoured by quantitative ones.

Structured Interview

First, we will discuss the structured interview as one of the types of data collection in looking at needs and attitudes. Robson (1993) describes the structured interview as:

> 'a *fully structured interview* with predetermined set questions asked, and the responses recorded on a standardized schedule (effectively a questionnaire where the interviewer fills in the response)...
> (Robson 1993: 230-31)

Breakwell (1995) identifies the structured interviews as:

> involve a fixed set of questions with the researcher asks in a fixed order. Commonly, respondents are asked to choose an answer from a fixed series of options given by the researcher. The options may include rating scales. This type of interview structure yields information which is easily quantified, ensures comparatively of questions across respondents and makes certain that the necessary topics are included.
> (Breakwell 1995: 231)

Both Robson (1994) and Breakwell (1995) summarise the characteristics of the structured interview. The questions in this type of interview are fixed and closed with certain choices, and asked by the interviewer in a certain order, and sometimes include a rating scale. From this perspective, some would consider the structured interview as a

very similar technique to using a questionnaire, and hence be analysed in a quantitative manner.

This method, when used to investigate the learner's needs, enables the researcher to evoke what the subject considers his/her language needs are, by guiding the interviewee's responses without distorting them. One of the requirements of that, as Shroder (1981) suggests, is to be aware of the subject matter and the psychological situation of the interviewees. Mackay (1981) is an example of using structured interviews in order to design an English language course for undergraduates in a faculty of Veterinary Medicine at the National Autonomous University of Mexico.

The structured interview, as indicated above, is usually designed with a set of questions in a certain order and some closed choices. It is also analysed quantitatively. It is mostly used as a self-completion questionnaire, with the interviewer present. In spite of some advantages of this technique in research, it is not appropriate to this study for several reasons. First, it is not as flexible as the unstructured or semi-structured interviews, and hence loses the advantage of exploiting or exploring a certain response by the interviewee. In addition, it is not very suitable to be used to investigate an issue or concept that could need more detailed responses from the interviewee, such as why he is not happy with learning English (motivation or attitudes). Besides, this technique requires the difficulty of a questionnaire in design and the interview in implementation. Thus, it has the disadvantages of both worlds. Moreover, if this technique had been used as the sole medium of investigation in this study it would be very difficult to cover a reasonable proportion of the population. Either only a few could be covered, or a very long time to would be needed to include a large number of cadets. Therefore, the structured interview was rejected in our study, because of these disadvantages.

Unstructured Interview

The unstructured interview is the opposite type of interviews to the one mentioned above. The unstructured interview technique, as its name reflects, is not restricted to questions and is mostly based on a general topic. According Robson (1993):

...the interviewer has a general area of interest and concern, but lets the conversation develop within this area'. (Robson 1993: 230-31)

The main concept of this type of interview is its openness, allowing the general area or interest to be developed through the course of the conversation. Silverman (1993) describes it as an interactive approach, where interviewees are viewed as experiencing subjects who actively construct their social worlds; the primary issue is to generate data which give an authentic insight into people's experiences.

As Robson (1993) notes, this is a flexible and adaptable way of finding things out, as the interviewer may modify the wording or sequence of his or her questions. Silverman (1993) quotes Denzin (1970) to point out why most interactionists reject pre-schedule a standardised interviews and prefer open-ended interviews. Three reasons for this preference are:

1. It allows respondents to use their 'unique ways of defining the world'
2. It assumes that no fixed sequence of questions is suitable to all respondents.
3. It allows respondents to 'raise important issues not contained in the schedule'

Although these are, indeed valuable characteristics, they also bring disadvantages could stem from these characteristics too.

For example, Silverman (1993) cites Selltiz et al, (1964) who are rather suspicious of unstructured interviews, because of the lack of comparability of one interview with another. Also, their analysis is more difficult and time-consuming than that of standardised interviews. In addition to these disadvantages, there is the inevitable room for 'bias' during the interview by the interviewer, who could be driven to guide or give hints to the interviewee. Also, the interviewee might answer in the way he or she thinks will satisfy the interviewer (Cohen and Manion, 1994; Robson, 1993; and Breakwell, 1995).

These are some of the reasons for not using unstructured interviews in this study. The room for bias is very strong in this type of interview. More importantly, the 'incomparability' and inconsistent outcomes of the interviews from one interviewee into another are a major disadvantage which would make the responses very difficult to

compare and analyse. This difficulty in analysis is the main reason for deciding not to choose this type of interview to collect the required data for this study.

Semi-structured Interview

This type of interview technique is a compromise between the two previous ones. Robson (1993) outlines the features of such a type of interview:

> ...the interviewer has worked out a set of questions in advance, but free to modify their order based upon his/her perception of what seems most appropriate in the context of the 'conversation', can change the way they are worded, give explanations, leave out particular questions which seem inappropriate with a particular interviewee or include additional ones,... (Robson 1993: 230-31)

It is more flexible than a structured interview due to the freedom of adjustment, and reordering the questions, depending on the situation and what it might demand. It is normally analysed qualitatively, unlike the structured interview which is a quantitatively method of analysis. On the other hand, it is more advantageous than the unstructured interview on the basis that the semi-structured interview has pre-set questions to organise the progress of the interview, which would make the responses of the interview comparable and hence less difficult to analyse.

Therefore, the semi-structured interview is the technique that was chosen to be used in this study as a qualitative method of gathering some information about the cadets' situation in KKMA, finding out their attitudes towards BANA people and culture, and exploring their motivation in learning English. It is seen as a natural method in generating hypotheses about the investigated issue. For example, Silverman (1993) points out that qualitative research involves:

1. A preference for qualitative data - use of words rather than numbers.

2. A preference for naturally occurring data - observation rather than experiment, unstructured versus structured interviews.

3. A preference for meaning rather than behaviour -attempting 'to document the world from the point of view of the people studied'

4. A rejection of natural science as a model.

5. A preference for inductive, hypothesis-generating research rather than hypothesis-testing.

3.3.2.2 Why the Interview is Used

In general, as some researchers argue that some research areas are particularly suitable to be investigated using interviews. Cohen and Manion (1994) cite Tuckman (1972) to suggest that the interview:

> may be used as the principle means of gathering information having direct bearing on the research objectives. As Tuckman describes it, 'By providing access to what is "inside a person's head", [it] makes it possible to measure what a person knows (knowledge or information) what a person likes or dislikes (values and preferences), and what a person thinks (attitudes and beliefs). Cohen and Manion (1994:255)

In relation to the same point of what an interview can be used for, Rubin and Rubin (1995) distinguish what they call a 'qualitative interview' as a tool of research different from ordinary conversations. They state that: 'qualitative interviews are a tool of research, an intentional way of learning about people's feelings, thought and experiences.' They also add that qualitative interviewing is more than a set of skills, it is also a philosophy, an approach to learning; one of its elements is that 'understanding is achieved by encouraging people to describe their worlds in their own terms'. They state that:

> Qualitative interviews also explore specific topics, events, or happenings. Interviewers can solicit personal histories to examine social and political and phenomena. How were people changed by war? What motivates a person to become a rebel or a whistle-blower? (Rubin and Rubin 1995: 3)

Thus, one of the advantages of using interviews, as Cohen and Manion (1994) and Rubin and Rubin (1995) explain, is that they can gather information that would normally be difficult to be disclosed in conventionally structured research methods. The types information are primarily those that are 'inside a person's head', such as values, beliefs and attitudes. A possible justification for preferring the use of interview for this category of information is that these issues require more exploring by the interviewer, bearing in mind that some interviewees would find it difficult to express such information without being asked frequently, or rephrasing some questions.

Moreover, Banister et al, (1994) see things more systematically in relation to 'why interviews are used?' They mention that one of the reasons for choosing the interview technique, is that it can allow the researcher to examine issues which may be too complex to investigate through quantitative means:

> ...if you wanted to explore roles, relationships and ethics with a particular professional group, or even to compare perceptions of a service between service providers and recipients, it is unlikely that you gain a sufficiently sensitive and incisive grasp of your participants' concern by administering a questionnaire with rating scale strategies... because the views of the participants cannot be readily representable within that form...Hence another advantage of using a less structured approach is that you can tailor your questions to the positions and comments of your interviewee. (Banister et al 1994: 50)

In conclusion, from the views mentioned above, it can be suggested that *motivation* might be investigated better by a *qualitative semi-structured interview* rather than a structured interview or a questionnaire. The in-depth, flexibility of the interview and the freedom of the interviewee to infer, explain or add to his own insight thinking or behaving, would facilitate examining the motivation of KKMA cadets.

By means of an interview, it would be possible to probe an interviewee's response to gain certain information in relation to his learning position. For example, when a cadet is asked what he thinks of the English course that is used in the Academy, if the response is that he does not like it, or it does not suit the cadets in the Academy, then a follow up question can explore further: Does that have any influence on your learning English? This would continue to examine how an interviewee perceiving learning English as whole and specifically within the Academy. Such detailed of responses could make investigating motivation more accessible. This is because, as mentioned in the last chapter, motivation is a complex phenomenon very difficult to measure or investigate, encompassing behaviour, psychological behaviour, and concepts inside the subjects' mind.

The interview is also used to have more insight into issues that are also examined in the questionnaire, such as cadets' general status in the Academy, their perception of needs

for learning English and their attitudes towards the English language BANA people and culture and learning English. It can complement the questionnaire by providing in cadets' own words, additional information about their daily routine within the Academy and its effect on their learning English. In addition, using two different techniques qualitative and quantitative would be complementary to each other, more reinforcement of the researching methods, as well as avoiding the disadvantages of each technique.

3.3.2.3 Constructing the Interview

As we are mainly concerned here with designing a semi-structured interview, we are going to look at some of the general points in interview structure. Rubin and Rubin (1995) emphasise that one of the main differences between qualitative interviewing and survey interviewing is that in surveys the attempt is to generalise relatively simple information, whereas the qualitative interviewing tries to learn about complex phenomena. This implies difference in interview technique. They explain that qualitative interviews do not simplify, instead they try to capture the 'richness and complexity of their subject matter and explain it in a comprehensible way'; they add that this richness has to be built into the design of questions ensuring the goals of the outcomes of an interview are 'deep, detailed, vivid, and nuanced'.

They detail these aspects of an interview construction and how they can be achieved. Rubin and Rubin (1995:76) state that *depth* "means getting a thoughtful answer based on considerable evidences as well as getting full consideration of a topic from diverse points of view". They explain that the requirement depth can be met if certain procedures are applied. For example, the wording of the questions in interviews could suggest the thoughtfulness or depth a researcher is seeking for in the answers. Besides, they add, people are more willing to talk in depth if they think that the interviewer is familiar with and sympathetic to their world. A third way of getting more depth in an interview, as Rubin and Rubin (1995) suggest, is by using follow-up questions, and asking for more elaboration or clarification of an answer.

The second aspect of a qualitative interview is, according to Rubin and Rubin, getting detailed answers. In order to achieve that. Rubin and Rubin (1995) recommend that the

interviewer ask for particulars. Having a technical knowledge of the field makes it easier to ask questions that will elicit detailed answers.

Thus, in undertaking the interview in this study, the researcher ensured interviewees that he is making these interviews in order to help them to find out how to improve their learning of English. In this context, as Rubin and Rubin (1995) explain, the interviewee will feel that the interviewer is sympathetic and on their side so they can express and disclose some in-depth responses. Also, within the interview the follow-up questions are used, especially to get more elaborated responses form cadets.

In addition to that, in constructing the interview guide, I took account of Breakwell's (1995) advice that questions should not:

- be double-barrelled,
- introduce an assumption before going on to pose the question,
- include complex jargon words,
- be leading,
- include double negatives,
- act as catch-alls;

Mertens (1998) suggests eight ideas that could help the interviewer in planning and preparing the interviews. Some of these ideas are:

1. Hold an introductory meeting to share the purpose, discuss confidentiality issues, and get assurance that the person does want to participate.

2. Make an interview schedule as best as you can at the beginning of the study, including names, positions, numbers of people to interview, interviewing some people before others, etc.

3. Make an interview guide, either in general, like (these are the types of issues that I think I should ask about), or very specific (I want to ask the types of issues that I think I should ask about).

4. avoiding structuring the interview guide around yes-or-no questions, since this, as Mertens (1998) advises, would defeat the purpose of having the person there to converse with, focus instead on asking open-ended questions.

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5. Plan to conclude with an open-ended question. For example (is there anything else that you wanted to tell me that hasn't come up so far?)

6. Definitely pre-test your interview procedures.

In applying these ideas in our design of the interview in this study, it can be said that they have been mostly fulfilled with the exception of number six. For example, in inviting the interviewee to the interview venue; they were still told of the purpose of the interview and the confidentiality of it and asked would they be willing to go ahead with it. In applying number two, it was not been the case in our interview, because we were looking to obtain a random sample of interviewees; every one had a chance to be chosen, rather than pre-assigned individuals.

In the interview the researcher avoided yes-no questions, and if a question resulted in a yes-no answer, then interviewees were asked to elaborate their response. For example, the third question in the interview asks about a cadet situation in the academy (how does he feel in the Academy?); some of the interviewees did not know how, so the interviewer reworded the question as (Are you satisfied and feeling comfortable in the academy or not?); if the response was yes or no then the interviewee was asked to go into detail about why he was happy or why he was not.

Also, every effort was made to allow interviewees to express their ideas in their own words and not trying to put words in their mouths, such as by asking a leading question or a suggestive one. In addition, there was always the final word left to the interviewee, such as 'is there anything you would like to add, say or explain', giving the interviewee chance to say anything that he had previously forgotten to say or that had not been covered in previous questions, and at the same time providing the researcher with more information and minimising the chance of overlooking any relevant information, leaving more room for open-ended questions. The reason for pre-testing the interview was for the time and availability of the interviewees as well as the permission of the Academy officials.

Thus, these points, ideas or guidelines mentioned above by Rubin and Rubin (1995), Breakwell (1995) and Mertens (1998) are useful and may be important when choosing

an interview technique to research or investigate a situation or a problem. They were taken into the account in the interview.

3.3.2.3.1 Questions of the Interview

There are eleven entries in the interview that can be considered as questions. A sample of one of the interviews is included in the Appendix A.2. The questions were grouped and ordered in according to four main areas: personal information and the general status in the Academy including, learning settings as well as general information and background to learning English; needs for learning English in the Academy; attitudes towards the English people, culture and the language; the motivation for learning the English language and future plans for learning English.

Questions one and two

The first two questions asked cadets to identify their level of study, e.g. first year, third year, etc, as well as the mark achieved in English in the previous term. The purpose of these introductory questions was to gain basic information on the current year of study and cadets' attainment in English according to their marks. This would enable the researcher to see if responses related to motivation and attitudes differ among cadets of higher and lower proficiency in English.

Questions three and four

These questions enquired about the general situation of the cadets within the Academy, whether they are satisfied or not, and what they hoped to achieve by joining the Academy. These issues were explored because they might affect cadets' learning in the Academy. These questions were also expected to shed light on information about the Academy as a specialised military setting, which would provide insight into the characteristics of their environment. For example, the strict daily disciplinary routine of getting up in the morning, getting in line, running, going to classes, etc, could influence their study and learning. The fourth question was an attempt to discover the goals and aims of cadets in joining the Academy. This would allow the researcher to find the effect that they could have on their way of learning.

Question five

This entry required that the interviewee express his view on the English language in three stages, or phases: his experience in learning English in secondary school; his view on learning English in the Academy, and future plans in learning English, whether general or specific. These stages would give more information on interviewees' experiences and their attitudes towards the English language, whether this changed during the Academy period, and how these affected his learning of English.

Question six

It asks about the attitude of the interviewee towards the BANA people and culture. Information about the attitudes of the interviewees towards the BANA people and culture, negative, positive or uncertain, was important as this could have some influence on the learning of English itself. It will also tells something about the core issue of this study which concerns the extent to which ESP can provide an altered and more motivating cultural context for language learning. This question was designed to support the questionnaire in investigating this issue, but in greater depth as the interviewees were asked to express what they liked and disliked about the BANA people and culture, rather than pre-selected responses options.

Motivation

The following set of questions was designed to investigate if the cadets were motivated to learn English and whether they were influenced positively or negatively by some of the factors in their learning settings, such as the course in the Academy, teachers, exams system etc. Cadets were asked to express how these issues could be improved to better the cadets learning in English.

Question seven

Textbook

An important factor is the textbook used in the Academy. Under this issue there were several possible follow-up questions, such as what the current textbook was; how they found it (useful or not); its suitability for their your situation in the Academy; is the content specialised or not; what specific content needs to be included if any; how does this help or not help in learning English in the Academy? This set of questions and

follow-ups would help to identify the cadets' own evaluation of the current textbook and the possible suggestions they might make about its relevance to their needs. It would reveal more about the cadets' view of the specific and very specific versus general content. The objective will be to show whether their view of the value of specific content-oriented materials co-related either negatively or positively with their attitude to learning English.

Question eight

Specific or General

This question about cadets' expectations for continuing or abandoning English after graduating from the academy. Those who intend to cease all study of English may be considered as having negative attitudes and less desire to learn English, and thus might be less motivated to learn during their Academy course. On the contrary, those with future plans to continue their English study are considered as having positive attitudes and a better desire to learn English, and hence may be better motivated to learn in their Academy study. Cadets who express interest in continuing with English will be asked what area of English they are especially interested in, whether specialised military English or general English. This is related to the main issue of the study, since positive attitudes towards specialised use of English may provide a strong motivation and give rise to more positive attitudes towards learning English.

Question nine

Timetable, Studying hours

This examined cadets' views on the current timetable of the English language as well as the time that they allocated to studying and revising English. Information about these factors tells the researcher more about the cadets' motivation and attitudes towards learning English. For example, those who consider that there are too many hours in the timetable for English may be less motivated and have negative attitudes towards learning English that could reflect their dislike of English, and vice-versa. One must also allow for those who feel they already have sufficient grasp of the language and thus find the classes demotivating. In addition, hours of study are another factor that can reflect cadets' motivation to learn, for instance those who are studying more are better

motivated and have more desire to learn and make some effort, but not those with less effort and less studying hours. Yet again, one must allow for those who feel strongly enough about the subject not to devote too much to it.

Question ten

Teachers

Cadets' comment on how they feel influenced by their teachers' attitudes and approach is interesting, because cadets are rarely, if ever, been asked to comment on their teachers. Teachers sometimes may ask them: what they think about a certain topic, a way of introducing a lesson, etc, but not about teachers themselves. If the cadets evaluate their teachers then that will offer more information to the researcher about how the teacher factor influences their learning of English. For example the like or dislike of the teacher's personality or his presentation could affect their motivation to learn.

Question eleven

Exams and marking system

Exams are a topic of considerable interest among the academy leadership and teaching staff. Backwash is notorious for how it affects attitudes and approaches to learning. Therefore, it can be useful to have the cadets' views in this issue, as there was no previous inclusion of their views in the past. That could provide some suggestions of their own to improve exams and the way they are marked. This entry could also examine if the current marking system has any negative influence on the cadets' way of learning or studying English.

3.3.2.5 Conducting the Interview

Prior to commencing the interview procedures, the researcher had to try to find a very suitable and comfortable place to conduct the interviews. It is an attempt to minimise and reduce any chance of interference or uncomfortableness in the interviewee. In reflecting on this point, I would like to consider the situation in our target institution, the Academy. As it is understood, the setting and the environment of the Academy is a military one. Hence, when interviewing, I sought to create a relaxed and friendly

atmosphere, while at the same time talking about some serious and useful issues for them, their future, or the perceptions cadets in relation to learning and teaching English in the Academy. However, I also maintained some of the formality appropriate to a military situation.

On the part of starting and conducting the interview, Mertens (1998) mentions eleven steps that might assist and facilitate undertaking the interview itself. Some of these steps are:

♦ Start by establishing a rapport. Briefly review the purpose of the interview, your credentials, and the information needed. Provide assurances of confidentiality.

♦ Focus your attention on what the person is saying. Use your 'extra mind' to evaluate what they are saying, in order to formulate a possible hypothesis, testing your hypothesis, asking for clarification.

♦ Sequence the questions from general to specific, summarise what you hear, then ask about specific.

♦ When asking for criticisms of a programme, be sure to use a constructive framework to structure the questions. For example, (are there any special factors about this problem that I should understand?)

♦ Put your answers in perspective: ask for specific examples. Ask what opinions others might hold, administrators, officials etc.

♦ Ask only one question at a time.

♦ Avoid asking "why" questions. Some people view these as threatening. To avoid a possible defensive reaction, try wording the questions in one of these ways:

What was it that attracted you to the programme?

What other people played a role in your preparation?.

♦ Record the interview if possible and always take notes if possible in case of a technological failure with the recording equipment. (Mertens1998)

These points guided my conduct of the interviews. In an endeavour to achieve the relaxed atmosphere of privacy and confidentiality, the venue had to be selected very carefully. Interviews took place within the Academy, in the language laboratory. It was a suitable place, first because it was close to the classrooms, so little time was wasted between calling an interviewee and his reaching the language lab. Second, as a language

lab it had sound insulation, which decreased the interference of background noise. Third, the internal setting of the room was also ideal, as it had a big office desk and chairs at the front of the room to make the interview more natural while reducing the feeling of a teacher and student meeting or interview. Finally, the cadets were familiar with the setting and the room, thus it did not worry them with its strangeness or formality. The conduct of the interview indicates that the location was successful and all the interviews went on in a very friendly and relaxed atmosphere.

The sequencing of questions in the interview was, as Mertens (1998) advises, from general to specific. For example, the interview begins with asking the interviewee his general situation in the Academy, and then it develops to ask about more specific questions on learning and teaching English. Mertens' dictum about not asking more than one question at a time, to avoid confusing interviewees was also taken into account. "Why" questions were kept to the minimum requirement, in order to avoid being threatening. For example, one interviewee stated that he did not feel very interested in English, instead of asking why, the researcher chosen to ask: what do you think the reason for that is? and in some cases: could you elaborate on that? Finally, the tape recording was used to provide a reference for future analysis, and keep a permanent record of the interviews.

To ensure that the interviews went smoothly without much difficultly there was some preliminary chat the interviewees about how they are feeling, etc. When entering the lab and prior to starting the interview, the researcher introduced himself and stated the purpose of the interview, explaining it would be recorded. After that, the interviewees were assured more than once of the confidentiality of the information and reassured that such information would be used for the purpose of research, and that anonymity would be guaranteed. The interviewees were informed, as well, about the presence of the recorder during the interview. If an interviewee agreed to continue, then the interview started and he was thanked in advance. The recording also went without any problems. It is believed that interviewees were confident that the information they offered would not be released, so that they felt free to criticise teachers, officers or senior post-holders within the Academy, which is probably not very common within a military environment either in Saudi Arabia or anywhere else in the world.

3.3.3 Questionnaire

As said, semi-instructured interviews are a way of deeper understanding of attitudes and motivation but there is room of influence by the subject interference of the analyser, and do not provide a strong, objective data. I, therefore, used another instrument of investigation to offer a different dimension in researching the stated issues.

Questionnaires are one of the very common techniques used not only in social sciences but also in many other fields that require data to be collected and statistically analysed, such as in epidemiology or business. Within the social sciences, they are, as Blaxter et al. (1996) describe, one of the most widely used research techniques. Quantitative questionnaire can be easily coded to provide a data set about people's attitudes to a topic. So, through it the researcher is probably attempting to overcome some of the limitations or shortcomings of qualitative methods, or supposes that the topic or situation investigated is more appropriate to be researched by a quantitative method.

Fife-Schaw (1995) points out that the principal advantages of questionnaires are their apparent simplicity, their versatility and their low cost as methods of data collection; and for research topics. They 'provide data which are of a good enough quality to both test hypotheses and to make real-world policy suggestions'. Fife-Shaw (1995) observes:

> Questionnaires can be used to gather a variety of types of information. You can ask about people's background and other factual, demographic information. You can ask their behaviours or their attitudes or beliefs, knowledge or their intentions and aspirations. Each sort of information is associated with particular difficulties...(Fife-Shaw 1995:182-183)

However, the design of the questionnaire probably determines its description as either quantitative or qualitative, because some types of questionnaires are analysed qualitatively.

Although the use questionnaires as a medium of investigation is widespread and very common in social sciences, there are some researched issues, such as attitudes and motivation, where using such an instrument of investigation could be difficult. The problem is reflected in the complexity of such issues rather than a deficiency of the

medium in investigation. Attitudes and motivation are related to the psychology of a human being; thus using a list of items to investigate them is only part of it. Most research in psychology applies more longitudinal and experimental research. However, in this study the use of questionnaires to investigate attitudes and motivation was undertaken as the most feasible method for these subjects, but the interview method was also used as a supporting technique to investigate these complex issues.

3.3.3.1 Open-answers vs. Closed-answers Questionnaires

Questions within a questionnaire may be constructed in various ways resulting in an open or a closed-ended response. Breakwell (1995) points out that in the open-ended design the subjects are asked to write down the response to a question in any terms that he or she sees fit, whereas in the closed-ended types, the researcher must have a reasonable idea of the likely responses to the items in advance.

In general terms, within closed-answers questionnaires, the response to a certain question is a list of items have been included on the basis of previous experience of the researcher to the investigated issue as well as the related research to that issue. It is a quantitative way of analysis that yields more comparable responses, and so is easier to quantify and analyse in a statistical way. On the other hand, open answers, as the name indicates, require the respondent to put an answer to a question of their choice. In contrast to the closed-answer questionnaire it is often analysed in a qualitative way. Although it gives the freedom for the respondents to answer questions, there could be less comparison and grouping of responses.

Although there are some criticisms of closed questions in the sense that they force people to choose from a list of alternatives instead of answering their in their own words, they are more specific than open questions, and therefore more likely to "communicate the same frame of preference to all respondents" (Converse and Presser, 1986:34). Schuman and Presser (1981) and Bradburn and Sudman (1979) indicate that in certain investigations one type surpasses the other (ibid). Converse and Presser (1986) distinguish between open and closed questions stating that:

> There are other special purposes for which open questions are better suited
> than closed items (to measure salience, for example, or to capture modes
> of expression). But in most instances, a carefully pre-tested closed forms
> is to be preferred for its greater specificity.
> (Converse and Presser 1986: 35)

Robson (1993) also indicates that closed questions are usually preferable to open ones, explaining that the problem with open questions is in their interpretation. He adds that they are more difficult to code and analyse. Breakwell (1995) finds advantages and disadvantages in both types. He clarifies that the advantages of closed questions are that they reduce the possibility of vague or ambiguous answers through the alternative responses given to the respondent. In contrast, open-ended questions often "prompt people into providing multiple responses even the same responses are substantively the same". In addition, Breakwell (1995) indicates that despite their supposed limitations, closed-ended questions continue to be popular because it is very difficult to analyse and code open-ended questions.

Therefore, the closed-ended questions are preferable if quantitative and statistical analysis is the aim. Also, the close-ended questionnaire provides researchers with versatility in attempting to cover a large amount of questions and items. Moreover, the closed-ended question offers more opportunity for the researcher to rate a response on a scale pertaining to frequency or strength of opinion. For example, (do you enjoy learning English? *Always often sometimes rarely never*). This can be a more useful form of analysis, such as comparing a scale of a response to another.

For these advantages, closed-ended questions were used in the questionnaire in this study. Another reason, is that if open-ended questions were used, they would be similar to the interview, but without the interview's advantage of following up and exploring certain responses. Also, as said, closed-ended questions enabled a statistical quantitative analysis to complement the qualitative dimension of the interview analysis. However, to minimise the disadvantages of close-ended questions, in every question or statement in the questionnaire, the item, "anything to add/ any further comment" was included, to give respondents freedom to mention anything important to them that was not included in the list. If these responses were found valid and quantifiable then they were included as another variable in the questionnaire.

3.3.3.2 Rating Scale

Rating scales are commonly used in questionnaires when yes/no answers are not suitable responses. That will, according Nachmias and Nachmias (1996), exemplify the "intensity" of a specific judgment in some responses. Breakwell (1995) mentions that rating is commonly used to measure people's attitudes and opinions. These intensifiers, or ratings can be represented in different ways.

For example, Munn and Drever (1995) indicate that using scale responses allows the researcher to investigate large numbers expressing certain views. They also assert that this way is necessary in attitude measurement. In addition to that, Foddy (1993) explains that working with non-dichotomous variables leads to more precision allowing the formulation and testing of more complex hypotheses using statistical procedures. So, scaling is used with issues in questionnaires not only because of the nature of these issues as multi-faceted, but also to give, as much as possible, closer accuracy in measuring these issues, as well as create convenience for the researcher in coding and statistical analysis.

Oppenheim (1992) suggests that scaling is used more with "non-factual" questions:

> ...there are serious objections to the use of single questions to measure such non-factual topics as awareness, precepts, social representations, brand images, opinions, beliefs, attitudes values and stereotypes. Such issues are more complex than questions of fact; they have to do with states of mind, rather than with behaviour or with events in the outside world, and therefore difficult to measure and to validate; they are generally multi-faceted and have to be approached from several directions; above all, single questions dealing with such sensitive topics are much more open to bias and unreliability due to wording, question format and contextual effects. (Oppenheim 1992: 150)

Thus, it is more useful to use scaling for a response in a questionnaire, especially with issues such as those investigated in our study, perceptions of needs and attitudes. As Oppenheim explains above, it gives these types of issues more reliability of measurement and less biased questions and choices of responses, because multi-faceted and multi-directional nature of such issues.

Scaling in general is widely used in questionnaires but it is even more demanded in attitude-type questionnaire. The scaling is usually used with attitude measurements more than any other surveyed issues. Oppenheim states:

> Attitudes scales are relatively overt measuring instruments designed to be sued surveys, and we must not expect much of them...Their chief function is to divide people roughly into a number of broad groups with respect to a particular attitude, and allow us to study the ways in which such and attitude relates to other variables in our survey...(Oppenheim 1992:187)

One of the main aims in using a rating scale is to divide people broadly according to an attitude measurement, and then look for a correlation to other variable(s) in a research. Therefore, for the above reasons using scaling of responses in attitude sections was considered suitable and useful in investigating that issue. As for needs perception, again, a scale was used for similar reasons.

Hence, scaling was used in the questionnaire of this study to give more validity and dimensionality to the answers. A five-point scale is commonly used in questionnaires. In this study, such scales were used, labelled in two ways: always-never, in needs section and agree-disagree in the attitude section. For example in the needs section, the intensity or frequency of an item was looked for. In this questionnaire this introduced in terms of *regularity* or *frequency* of any kind of a situation. These items are introduced as follows: always; often; sometimes; rarely; and never. So, the *always* and *often* refer to the most frequent of doing an action, *always* indicating more regularity of an action than *often*. *Often* is used here rather than *usually,* because the former might suggest more regularity in an action than the latter. The next two categories of rating in the questionnaire are representing the "least" of regularity of action. For example, *sometimes* may represent a percentage, I assume, less than 50%; whereas *rarely* refers to the lowest frequency or regularity and it is slightly more than *never.*

In the attitude section we investigate cadets' views by asking them whether they agree or disagree with certain statements and what degree. Therefore, in simple words it can be explained that in the perception of needs we are looking for the 'quantity' of an item or an activity, whereas in the attitudes we aim to look for the 'quality' of a statement whether it is good or bad.

In some previous similar research studies both these two ways were used. In Diab's (1990) study the (always-never) scale was used to look for the intensity or frequency of items in investigating the needs of dictionary use among Arab nurses, in another part it used an (agree-disagree) scale of five in considering opinions, and attitudes to the questionnaire. Another example is Khuwaileh's (1992) study of the needs of learners at a technology college in Jordan, which used a five-point scale (always-never). In attitude and motivation studies, Galalah (1992) and Cheng (1995) used a five-point agree-disagree scale to measure the attitudes and motivation of some learners. However, these are only a few examples; there is no fixed pattern, although the above ways of scaling in which such issues appear preferable. In many cases, a five-point (agree-disagree), Likert scale is used more than always-never. Besides, in this questionnaire it can be suggested that the Likert scale is applicable to all types of questions in the questionnaire; again it is a matter of more suitability.

In every item of the questionnaire (for the researcher's use only) a space on the margin was supplied for coding to facilitate data input in the computer. Thus, the data analyst will only look vertically down the line for the coded answers instead of looking horizontally at every answer through the whole form.

3.3.3.3 Length and wording

One of the most important points in questionnaire is *wording* of the questions which can possibly affect the response of a subject. The wording aims to clarify a question. Oppenheim (1992) suggests that rules of question wording includes:

- *Length*: a question should not be more than twenty words, long sentences can be confusing and complicated.
- *Simplicity*: avoid acronyms abbreviation, jargons and overly technical terms, and idiomatic or opaque and ambiguous meaning
- avoid *double-barrelled* items and *double negatives*
- beware of *leading questions*
- do not overtax the respondents' memories by asking questions too far in the past.

Blaxter et al, (1996) add it is better to avoid questions which are imprecise, or need specialist knowledge from the respondent; besides, hypothetical questions, beyond the

experience of the respondent, are unlikely to produce a less accurate response. Robson (1993) recommends that specific questions are better than general ones, because the former provide more "standardization", while with the latter there is a possibility of a wider range of interpretations by the respondents.

The wording and the length of the questionnaire in this study were taking into consideration. First, the questionnaire the questionnaire was sketched and drafted in English. Then, when the final form was reached, it was translated into the Arabic language. Consideration was given to the wording of the questionnaire, in the English version, such as using simple, uncomplicated words, using short sentences and statements, and avoiding double negative, double-barrelled, proverbs or leading questions. Then, the translated form was reviewed by an Arabic language professor in KKMA to check the simplicity of the wording and grammatical correctness. The pilot sample, as it will be discussed below, introduced some changes in the wordings of a few questions and clarified some instructions. After that had been approved, the final form was distributed.

The length of the questionnaire was also considered when designing it. The aim was to cover different and wide topics entailing a lot of questions, which are related to our investigation, while at the same time trying to keep the questionnaire to a reasonable length. The length was reduced from too wide a range of questions in the initial design, to a set of questions more clearly related to the main issues investigated. Again, as a result of the pilot application, the length was slightly reduced again, cutting short some questions without affecting the main purpose of the study.

3.3.3.4 Layout

The general appearance of a questionnaire can be important, encouraging respondents to cooperate and participate. According to Robson (1993) a questionnaire must look easy and attractive, a compressed layout is encouraging; a larger questionnaire with plenty of space for questions and answers is more inviting to respondents. Robson also adds that using colours in questionnaires, such as coloured pages or different colours for instruction, can help respondents. Besides, putting ticks in boxes for answering is more

familiar than circling or other techniques. Also sub-lettering questions (e.g. Q9 (a) (b)…) is a useful technique for grouping together questions to do with a specific issue.

In relation to layout and appearance of the questionnaire in this study, the colouring of pages or instructions, as Robson (1993) suggests, was not used because of the technical difficulty as well as the cost for producing it for a large sample, because initially about 600 copies were printed before distribution. The use of shading and white space alternate questions was introduced, in the layout of the questionnaire, to avoid mixing or confusing responses. Ticking the boxes was how responses were made. It is faster to tick a box than circling or writing a number. Finally, the sub-lettering of questions was used to maintain the link between sub- and questions, e.g. Q 9: a b c etc. while allowing more convenient statistical analysis.

3.3.3.5 Distributing Questionnaires

There are various ways of distributing a questionnaire to the targeted sample, which could result a different type of questionnaire. For example, Oppenheim (1992) identifies or distinguishes types of questionnaire. He argues that some practitioners use the term questionnaire exclusively for self-administered and postal questionnaires, while some others may consider interview schedules, face-to-face or by telephone, as questionnaires. Oppenheim himself states that he treats the questionnaire in a fairly loose sense to include postal questionnaire, group- or self-administered questionnaire and structured interview schedules (including telephone interviews). Robson (1993) also explains that one type of questionnaire 'self-completed' is very efficient, considering the researcher's time and effort, because it can be distributed to about 1,000 subjects or more in different sectors, for example school pupils, or workers in a firm, completed and returned, in the same amount of time needed to complete a single interview. However, the main problem of this type is the low return rate.

Another method of administration, described by Blaxter et al, (1996), is the *postal questionnaire* in which the researcher distributes the questionnaire through the post. In this kind questionnaire the coverage may be large but the response rate is often low, and

there is a possibility of poorer answers because of the absence of the researcher to clarify queries or ambiguities. The same authors also discuss a telephone and face-to-face administration. This type of questionnaire, as Blaxter et al (1996) explain, is more like a highly structured interview, and the response rate is better than the others, but the time needed is larger, or the sample has to be smaller. Robson (1993) emphasises that, in general, if the questionnaire is well built, the time required for analysis and coding may be short, especially when the available computer analysis and coding are used.

In this study, the questionnaire applied was self-completed and self-administered. In other words, the respondents had to complete the questionnaire themselves (self-completed); at the same time, the researcher was present at the time of the completion to answer any enquiries or questions in relation to the questionnaire (self-administered). This would give the respondents the freedom to answer and have the ability to ask or enquire about anything vague or ambiguous, and so minimises the randomness or arbitrariness of the responses.

3.3.3.6 Questions in the Questionnaire

The two versions of the questionnaire, Arabic and English, are included in the Appendix A.3.1 and A.3.2. Main research points and research questions of this study are used as a basic for the set of the questions in the questionnaire. Previous studies, e.g. Al-Gorashi (1988), Al-Otaibi (1996) and *King Khalid Military Guidebook* (1999) in the needs section, Haque (1989), Galalah (1993), Hassan (1994) and Chen (1995) in attitudes and motivation section, have also contributed to the designing of the questions in the questionnaire.

The questionnaire itself is divided into three areas:

1. **Background and general related information**
2. **Needs**
3. **Attitudes**

The background part is just a routine introduction to the questionnaire. It also includes some questions that could provide useful data to correlate with other questions in the study.

The first six questions of the questionnaire are designed to establish the background of the cadets. While the age (3) and nationality (4) questions are not very significant in our investigation, the question of the achieved mark in English, question (2) is an important one, because it will be correlated with other factors or (questions) especially in the attitude part; for example, cadets who have lower grades in English could have more negative attitudes towards English or learning English. Questions (1) Year in the Academy, (5) city, town or village, and (6) the secondary school are also useful as these provide data that may be correlated with such variables as the greater urban use of English. The cadets who graduated from the general secondary school could have a better basis in English than those from Commercial and Islamic secondary schools, because the general secondary schools are more intensive in their curriculum and have high standards of English.

Question no. (7) asks reasons for joining the Academy. It lists four different choices. The first one (a) is job-oriented, that is, to join the Academy because the graduates officers have secure jobs and are better paid than civilians. The second and third (b) and (c) address the issue of personal interest in the military and military life with the related issue of the prestigious status of an officer in Saudi society. The fourth listed reason is slightly different. It asks if there is a family instruction or goal behind joining the Academy, which could result in less interest or motivation throughout the study. It is fairly common feature of Saudi society for a certain family member to choose military life without great regard for the individual's real interest. That is explained by the fact that the family influence in the society is very strong, and respecting the family's interests is central in motivating individual actions.

Question no. (8) refers further back to the attitudes towards learning English during secondary school. It asks whether studying English was enjoyable or not on the frequency scale (always--never). This is to examine the attitude of the cadets towards learning English during secondary school and compare it to their current attitude in the Academy. It asks whether school background has a negative or positive influence by looking for correlations between school attitudes.

The following question no. (9) examines the situation of the use of English by the cadets outside the Academy. It is filtered with a (yes/no) category, directing those who

did not use English at all to question (11). Those whose answers are (yes) have to respond to question (10), which lists the different situations in which English may have been used. The aim of this question is to find out if the ones who used English in other contexts have better proficiency in English, and a better attitude and motivation in learning English.

Question (11) is a very general one asking if a cadet knew he had to study English before he joined the Academy. This can again be related to attitudes towards learning English, because those who did not know they would have to do could have less interest in learning English, as this was not part of a curriculum which they elected to do.

Questions (12) and (13) aim to find what the current level of the cadets is according to their own judgment, from general in Q 12 to the four skills in Q 13. These two questions will be related to question no. (2) which asks about the achieved mark in English. In comparing or relating these together we may find that in some cases their judgments either verify or contradict their official achieved marks as assessed by the Academy system. This would raise questions about the textbooks, their contents and their suitability to the cadets' learning situation.

Question (14) lists certain criteria to be used in rating or judging the ability of English. It includes the ones commonly used in the Academy, tasks and exams, as well as native speaker feedback, teachers' feedback, and coping in English language situations. From these criteria, we might be able to figure out the criteria that cadets base their judgments on and where the contradiction lies, for example, being better at coping with a situation, but performing badly in exams and tasks.

Question 15 asks: What is the title of the course book?. This entry is an evaluative one. It aims to correlate the course book with other variables, such as the achieved mark. The purpose is to examine which students are better achievers according to their course book, and whether the change of the course book in the Academy have improved achievement. Question 16 asks if the book they use helps them in mastering their general English skill; with the aim to form a general evaluation of the course book from the cadets' points of view.

Needs Section

The section begins with two similar questions about the English course used in the Academy. Although they might be labelled as attitude questions, they also relate to needs. Question **17** investigates whether the cadets prefer topics related to the military field. It examines the current attitudinal status of a textbook structured round military topics. Question **18**, as a consequence, looks at the possible effects on cadets asking if the topics are mostly related to the military field. It considers three main consequences. The objective is to find out if the specialised content engenders positive, neutral or negative attitudes.

Question **19** introduces the topic of general military English needs as the cadets perceive these to exist in their possible future target situation. It includes six different situations in which cadets can find themselves. The first one (a) is a reading oriented need. It involves mainly reading manuals and instructions for military equipment used by the Saudi National Guard and imported either from English speaking countries, mostly the UK or USA, or other countries such as France and Sweden. The second one (b) is a writing skill need related to the function of a Saudi National Guard officer. It implies writing to other foreign military agencies and officers. Naturally, correspondence also entails reading, though the writing skill will be more challenging in this one. On the other hand, (c) considers speaking and listening. Again, it does not look for general practice of these skills, but asks about specific military uses. The other three items look, generally, beyond the four skills including, (d) studying military matters in English in Saudi Arabia; (e) overseas military courses or (f) using English in international battlefield communication.

After introducing some general English situations within the military field in question **19**, question **(20)** presents detailed military activities, for which English might be use. This question includes twenty-three activities, mainly military related or battlefield, e.g.:

(a) parachuting

(b) combat support

(c) combat

and

(r) transport and tending wounded

(t) supervising personnel,

and others related to the Saudi National Guard's responsibilities, such as:

(d) intelligence

(e) navigation

(f) map use and interpretation

and

(h) operating tele-communications

(i) operating armoured vehicles

(j) using weapons and ammunition

The aim is to find out the cadets' perceptions of the areas in which they will need English. This perception of some specific needs or activities which may require English is to identify perceptions of specific needs in an ESP course, which can then be correlated with attitudes towards learning the English Language. However, this correlation examine specifically the effect of the perception of specific needs of cadets in KKMA on their learning of English. In other words, it addresses the question of whether meeting military needs motivates learning.

Attitudes Section

The third section is devoted to the investigation of attitudes. It is divided into three parts:

1. attitudes towards English people
2. attitudes towards English culture
3. attitudes towards learning English

The section begins by asking cadets who they think of as an English speaking nation. Question **21.A** specifies three main nations: (1) America (2) Britain (3) Australia and New Zealand. The main purpose of such a question is primarily to indicate rather indirectly that these communities are the prime nations that use English as a native language. Another interest is in identifying the country which is most associated with the learning English by cadets.

Question **21** consists of common characteristics, positive and negative, as these are normally ascribed to people. The positive characteristics which are included are (a) light-hearted, (b) hospitable, (d) trustworthy, (f) broadminded, (g) sociable, (l) scientifically minded. These characteristics are ordered randomly with positive and negative being mixed together. This is so that respondents focus on the characteristic itself. The intention is that they should not be influenced towards a positive or negative mindset by a string of related pleasant or unpleasant attributions.

The reason for studying attitudes towards people is first to identify the status of cadets' attitudes towards the English people, then to correlate that with two variables: their achieved mark, and their perception of specific needs. This objective is to look for possible correlations between these areas. The first potential correlation is to investigate how positive or negative attitudes towards the English people can impact on the cadets' achievement in language. The second one is to address the main purpose in the research which is to expose the relationship between the perception of specific needs and attitudes towards culture. A negative correlation would hence infer that focusing on specific based content may improve motivation by distracting students from negative cultural perceptions.

The second part of this section inspects a different attitude, that is, towards the culture question. **22.** These questions look comprehensively at attitudes towards the English culture. They cover not only some of the characteristics of the people of this culture but also some aspects of their life as these are perceived by the cadets. For example, items such as:

(a) ethnocentric

(d) look down on others

illustrate some of the characteristics of these people as they are influenced positively or negatively within their culture. Other statements reflect either the culture as a civilization and a way of life:

(e) *life of this culture is ideal*

(i) loose family ties

(j) based on materialism.

Statements such as:

l) *it is easy for foreigners to adapt to this culture*

n) *I would like to mix with English speaking people*

can be seen as indicating an *integrative* motivation if answered positively. On the other hand items, u) *English language is an important key to modern life,* v) *studying English is important because other people respect the person who speaks it,* can be related to an *instrumental* motivation. They are also, seen as more related to attitudes to the language of the culture. Like the first part, this part covers both negative and positive attitudes towards the English culture.

The last four statements address the language of that culture, i.e. English. Yet again, this part is to search for the possible relationship between achievement and attitudes towards the target culture, as well as perception of specific needs.

The questionnaire moves to the third part of this section, that is, attitudes towards the English language itself. It begins with question **23** which looks at not only cadets' current motivation and attitude towards learning English but also in the future, indicating the importance of English for the working life. The next question, **24**, reflects the current set-up for learning English in the Academy and how cadets respond to it. One question asks whether more time should be allocated to English, and another question enquire about the time devoted to revising and studying the subject. An influence here could be that those who are ready to devote more time may have a higher motivation. As with most of the questions, although the phrasing of the statement is positive, the cadet has the choice of showing degrees of agreement or disagreement.

Questions **25-.29** are general attitude statements on English and learning English in relation to their situation in the Academy. The purpose of these statements is to examine cadets' attitudes towards English from different aspects and the relationship of these attitudes with achievement and specific needs perception.

Question **30** considers the importance of learning English for the cadets with more relation to their future environment. For example, (a) the importance of English is only associated with the cadets passing the exams in the Academy. The answers to this will show whether the motivation is a shallow end, instrumental one of needing the language

for exams. On the other hand, (**b**) would also indicate a positive response to a more professional and longsighted motivation one, for future job. The third one, (**c**). is looking at the importance of English for more general requirement within the military environment. A positive response might indicate integrative motivation with its interest in moving among the special discourse community.

Question .**31** investigates the attitude of cadets to learning English if it were not compulsory. Question **32** elicits observations about the larger questions of learning English at all. The questionnaire concludes with question .**33**. This has five factors that might exert positive or negative influence on the cadets' attitudes towards learning English. These factors are:

        a. The teacher,

        b. The content of the course,

        c. The interest in the English language,

        d. The need for English,

        e. The interest in lessons' presentation and explanation.

Assessments of attitudes towards the English language and learning were made so that they could be correlated with the achieved mark as well as with the perception of specific needs for English. This will enable us to infer how far positive or negative attitudes towards the English and learning can affect. In addition, question **33** looks for the possible differences, if any, among attitudes towards the people, the culture and the language itself while trying to determine which one of attitudes exerts the largest effect on cadets learning and achievement. Our main reason for investigating attitudes and perception of specific needs is to see the possible correlative link between these two issues and the implication that the ESP learning situation is more motivating to all and even more so for those who perceives specific needs positively.

3.3.3.7 Validity

A research instrument is seen as a valid one investigating what it is actually stated. Zeller (1988: 322) states

A measure is valid if it does what it is intended to do. Alternatively stated, an indicator of some abstract concept is valid to the extent that it measures what it purports to measure.

One of the most common ways of measuring content validity is referring the instrument to a group of experts in the field. Therefore, the questionnaire in this study was referred to a group of teaching staff from different Saudi Universities: Prof. Al-Abdan, one of the leading Applied Linguistics teaching staff at King Saud University; Dr. Al-Zahrani, head of the Psychology Department in Imam University; Dr. Al-Ghamdi, associate professor of English in King Khalid Military Academy and head of the English section; and Dr. Al-Shalfan, associate professor in Business and Management in King Khalid Military Academy, so that they could assess 'whether the questionnaire investigated the issues, perception of specific needs and attitudes and motivation'. After they reviewed the questionnaire, they approved its validity.

The questionnaire was translated into Arabic using the researcher's own ability in Arabic as his first language, in preparation for piloting and distribution. Prior to the pilot study, Dr. A. Abdulkader, associate Professor in Arabic language and literature and one of the teaching staff in KKMA, examined the Arabic version of the questionnaire. He was looking not only for grammatical correctness but also for the simplicity of the Standard Arabic used in the questionnaire, its wording as well as its suitability for the cadets, avoiding any ambiguity or linguistic difficulty. He suggested some changes, especially in some of the wording of the questions, making a few grammatical corrections, and even simplifying some questions. His suggestions were accepted by the researcher as they did not interfere with any of the main purposes of questions. His contribution was appreciated.

3.3.3.8 Reliability

The reliability issue is also another important aspect of any research instrument for collecting data. Reliability means that an instrument is reliable and consistent in results if it was re-applied. Baily (1987:73) points out that reliability of an instrument:

...is simply its consistency. A measure is reliable if the measurement does not change when the concept being measured remains constant in value.

The most common method of measuring reliability is through test-retest. It means that a research instrument has to be re-tested within a considerable gap of time on the same sample or part of it. Then, the results of the test-re-test are to be correlated to measure the significance between the two results. Du Vaus (1986:46) states "basically the test-retest method is the only way to check on the reliability of a single question".

Therefore, in this study the test-retest of the questionnaire was used to measure reliability of the questions. One class of 34 in the second year in the Academy was used for a retest. There was a three-week interval between the two applications. Then, the correlation between the two results of that class was calculated. The result of the correlation was significant in all parts of the questionnaire: 0.94, 0.78 and 0.81 of background, needs and attitudes respectively, at .01 probability level. Thus, according to this result, the questionnaire was considered as a reliable research instrument in this study.

3.3.3.9 Pilot

When all procedures were completed, in design and construction, official formal permission had to be sought in order to distribute the questionnaire. A pilot distribution was then undertaken in order to obtain feedback on any limitations or difficulties with questions from the cadets themselves. The pilot was applied to a small group, a class of thirty-three cadets in the third year. It was conducted in a class led by Dr. Al-Shalfan, on economy and management. Along with the pilot study version, a feedback sheet was included in order to have some written inquiries about unclear questions. The sheet was as follows:

	Yes	No
Is the aim of the questionnaire clear?	☐	☐
Are the instructions of the questionnaire clear?	☐	☐
Is the way of answering question clear for you?	☐	☐

If you have identified any ambiguous questions please write their numbers below:

Please write down any other comments or suggestions. Thank you for your response and cooperation.

There was plenty of space for cadets to comment. Some cadets were stimulated by the exercise into offering detailed comments on the whole situation in the Academy.

The response of the group to the pilot study was very good. The received number of the completed copies was twenty-seven, three cadets were absent and the other three were incomplete. The pilot study was useful, because both written, as in the above sheet, and oral questioning were reinforced. The time spent answering the questionnaire was between 20-30 minutes, more than the expected 15-20. This was taken on board for the administration of the final form.

The pilot distribution indicated that a few changes needed to be made. For example, the name category was omitted despite its optionality. This was to avoid confusion as some cadets initially wrote their names then crossed them out. Also, more instructions were introduced, especially in relation to answering all items and ticking the right box next to an item. Some cadets only chose one item from a question after treating them as alternatives. Questions no.13 and 18 were reworded in order to make them clearer. The results of the written comments were as follows:

- 44% of the cadets indicated that the aim of the questionnaire, instructions, length and way of answering was clear to them.

- 26% explained that the length of the questions was long.

- 9% answered negatively that questionnaire is very long and difficult to find answers.

Generally, the outcome of the pilot was satisfactory, but in response to queries about length the questionnaire was slightly reduced. In terms of layout, the marginal box (for research only) was separated more clearly from the answers. The shading and un-shading of items was introduced to enable cadets to answer in the right box for a given item.

3.3.3.10 Final Application

Official permission to implement the final study was requested and was slow in being processed. Also, several tiers of responsibilities both within and outside the institution had to be negotiated as before. After some meetings with officials in which I tried to emphasise the importance of the outcomes of such research, not only for the near future but also for the long-term perspective for the whole Academy in teaching English, the officials agreed to permit distribution of the questionnaire during their classes and allow them to be collected at the end of the cadets' completion. One of the alternatives, the officials suggested, was to hand questionnaires to cadets so they would take them to their dorms, and then return them completed on the next day. I could not agree with this suggestion because I thought that my presence was very important to deal with any inquiries or misunderstandings, and to make sure they completed them. Furthermore, the nature of military and Saudi culture meant there could be a strong possibility of collusion in respect of how to answer and hence a distortion of the need to obtain individual responses.

The grades of the cadets in English of the previous term were an important factor for the research. The Examination committee in the Academy were kind enough to supply me with all grades of the cadets in the English language course for the previous term. After the appropriate assumptions of confidentiality had been given to the institution and the cadets themselves, I emphasised the grades were very important to the study and those who did not remember their grades or who were doubtful, should ask me.

Finally, official permission was secured. The pilot distribution was accomplished first. Then, there was a delay of two weeks because of concern over the spread of a German measles outbreak. The date of the final distribution was towards the end of the second term, (the academic year in the Academy is two terms). The distribution took place over about four weeks. It was a suitable time of the year, especially for the teaching staff, because it was towards the end of the term when most of them were concluding their syllabuses or allowing revision. Most of the staff were therefore happy to allow the distribution of the questionnaire during their classes. Some classes were dedicated totally to the experiment as the lecturer waived regular classes, thankfully, for that reason.

Six members of staff agreed to allow their classes to be used to distribute the questionnaire. With these six members and for four weeks we covered 522 cadets during fifteen classes. Those teaching staff members were Dr. Attia with four classes, Mr. Al-Harkan with three classes, Dr. Al-Hakbani with two classes, Professor. Ghanim with two classes, and Dr. Al-Nughamishi with two classes and, Mr. Osman two classes. The first three members were English teaching staff, Dr. Ghanim a Psychology professor, whereas the last two were Geography staff. As mentioned above, the distribution was achieved through a self-administered questionnaire with the researcher present. Some questions and inquiries were raised, which were answered and explained. The researcher also reinforced the written instructions and went through how to write answers re-emphasising the confidentiality in responses, and expressed his great appreciation for cadets' patience and cooperation. The present teaching staff in the class also assisted the researcher in distributing and collecting the forms.

3.4 Population and Sample

The target population of this study were the cadets in King Khalid Military Academy, KKMA. Therefore, a sample was chosen from that population. Borg and Gall (1983) explain the relationship between population and sample, noting that sample involves:

> ...selecting a given number of subjects from a defined population as representative of that population. One type of population distinguished by education researchers is called the target population, also called the universe, by which we mean all the members of a real or hypothetical set of people, events or objects to which we wish to generalize the results of our research. (Borg and Gall, 1983: 240).

Thus, there has to be a population which the chosen sample will represent. Cohen and Manion (1989) explain that sampling, in general, entails choosing a part of a population which as far as possible represents the larger whole. Anderson (1990) clarifies:

> The first challenge in this type of research is to define the universe or group of interest. This is called the target population and it is essential that it is clearly defined and its boundaries understood. The interest in sampling is to generalize to this target population and one cannot pick a suitable sample unless the target population is fully described. (Anderson 1990: 196)

Morrison (1993) mentions three main factors in choosing a sample: a) the representativeness and parameters of the sample; b) the sample size; c) the access to the sample. Thus, my population is straightforwardly the cadets studying in King Khalid Military Academy in all three years (levels) in the academic year 98/99.

3.4.1 Probability and non-probability of choosing the sample

In every social science research project, sampling is either of the probability or non-probability type. The main argument for probability sampling is that every subject in the target population has a probable and equal chance to be chosen. There are five types of the probability sampling according to Cohen and Manion (1994). In brief, these techniques are (a) simple random sampling, (b) systematic sampling; (c) stratified sampling; (d) cluster sampling; and (e) stage sampling.

To begin with, simple random sampling is one of the very common techniques in choosing a sample. Simply, it describes the situation where every subject has an equal

chance of being included in a sample, such as choosing randomly from a list of the population. The second one, systematic sampling, aims to adopt a methodical way sampling rather than random, while keeping at the same time the probability of every choice. An example of that, as Cohen and Manion (1994) explain, is to choose the twentieth person in a population of 2000 looking for a sample of 100.

The third technique of probability sampling is a stratified choice of sample. Cohen and Manion (1994) describe it as way of dividing the population into homogeneous groups, each group including subjects with similar characteristics. The other techniques, cluster and stage sampling, are used in a large and widely dispersed population. Stage sampling can be referred to as an extension of cluster sampling, which involves selecting the sample in stages by taking samples from the sample (Cohen and Manion 1994).

Non-probability samples are common in small-scale surveys, because they are type less complicated to set up, cost less and are adequate if generalisation is not the aim of such research. Again, Cohen and Manion (1994) identify five types or techniques used in such sampling. These techniques are: (a) convenience sampling; (b) quota sampling; (c) purposive sampling; (d) dimensional sampling; and (e) snowball sampling.

Probability sampling is the commonest method in social science research. The sample in this study is considered to be a probable sample. It also represents the target population. The representative nature of the sample in this study in respect of cadets provides it with authority, however, in reference to the larger ESP world it is only inferential.

3.4.1.2 Sample in this Study

First, it is worth indicating the distribution of cadets within the Academy. They are divided into three levels representing their academic year, as it is noted above. In each level there are two companies, and each company is divided into four divisions, classes; the whole is apparently based on a common army division. Such distribution appeared to make it convenient and suitable to use stratified sampling. In the event, however, stratification sampling was not applicable, for reasons explained before.

The total number of the cadets studying at the Academy in the year 98/99 was 908. As mentioned above, there are three years to be completed before a cadet graduates as an officer. The first, second and third years are officially called levels; hence, they will be referred to thereafter as levels. The number of cadets in each level is not the same, for various reasons. The number of cadets accepted at the beginning of each year is not standard; it depends on the capability of the Academy as well as the total number of applicants. Other reasons for disparity in the number at each level are the voluntary withdrawal or dismissal of some cadets.

At the time of collection of the data related to this research, the total numbers of cadets in each level were as follows: 342 in level one, 318 in level two and 248 in level three. The intention was to include at least a sample from every level. After obtaining permission to distribute the questionnaire, it was left to the cooperation and availability of the teaching staff again to have their permission to use all or part of their classes for that purpose. The target was to include 50% of the whole population of the Academy.

Ultimately, the percentage was achieved, as the total number of the sample reached 493 in the final application and 522 including the pilot sample. However, the number used in the analysis was 486, which covered the completed and returned questionnaires, excluding 33 used in the pilot study and 7 uncompleted questionnaires. The distribution among levels was as follows: 159 in the first level 33% of the sample; 276 in the second with 57% and 51 in the third level with 10%.

The interview sampling was random from the three different levels of the Academy. There were sixteen cadets included in the interviews. In spite of that, the prior agreement of teaching staff was required. The need to recall cadets from classes to the interview required the permission of the lecturers of those classes. Systematic sampling was chosen in all levels as the cadet number 15 was selected from his class to be interviewed with prior permission from the lecturer of that class.

3.5 Research Ethics

Every piece of research has to take into account ethical considerations of its subjects. These issues involve avoiding the invasion of privacy and misusing personal details. Others also emphasise that researchers should inform their subjects about why they are being asked or what they are being used for. They should be given the freedom to choose and participate or not (Morrison 1993).

The cadets in our study were well informed of the purpose of the study, and were given repeated assurances of the confidentiality of the data. Also, there was no personal and privacy violation. Respondents were not forced to participate either in the interview or the questionnaire. As an example of that, there was one cadet who opted not to participate in the interview, and there were some uncompleted questionnaires. I made clear that the military culture of 'compulsion' should not influence their attitudes to this study.

3.6 Methods of Analysis

3.6.1 Interview analysis

The first step in the interview analysis was using a tape recorder in order to keep a recorded reference of all of what is said in the interview as a better method than note taking. May (1993:104) suggests that using a tape recorder in interviewing enables the interviewer to have more interpretation and concentration during the interview rather than possibly be distracted by note taking. May also considers that a potential disadvantage of recording is that for some people it can be an object of suspicion or a cause of nervousness, impacting adversely on the richness of the interaction. Also, recording does not include non-verbal gestures or body language, essential features in determining motives in any ethnographic study. Finally, the transcription of the tapes is very time consuming.

In spite of these shortcomings, tape recording was preferred to be used in this study's interviews. This was because, first, it was fairly easy to establish a relaxed and informal atmosphere that puts the machine at the back of the subjects' minds. Second, inhibitions may arise from the act of the interviewing-situation itself. Students are unused to and may be fazed by the presence of a tape-recorder, even though such technologies are part of the language learning experience. As May (1993) attests, once the interview starts, many people forget the tape recording. In relation to non-verbal language, my focus was on a study of the student's responses rather than a concern for their unrevealed motivations and states of awareness. My objective here was to find qualitative data to compliment a quantitative study, not to engage in a full ethnographic analysis.

While the interviews were conducted in Arabic, the native language of the interviewees, the interviews were translated and transcribed into English the language of this study. The transcription task did not include less salient or relevant data such as conversational interjections and greetings (May 1993).

Rubin and Rubin (1995) state:

> The purpose of the data analysis is to organize the interviews to present a narrative that explain what happened or provide a description of the norms and values that underlie cultural bevavior. (Rubin and Rubin 1995: 229)

What is mentioned by Rubin and Rubin is a general statement of purpose in interview analysis. However, procedures to implement this can vary considerably according to the purpose of the research as well as the way in which the interview is constructed. Moreover, in a general respect, Cohen et al (2000:282) suggest several stages in analysing interviews:

- Generating natural units of meaning;

- Classifying, categorizing and ordering these units of meaning;

- Structuring narratives to describe the interview contents;

- Interpreting the interview data.

These stages are general framework for analysis. More specifically, Cohen et al, (2000) cite Miles and Huberman's (1994) thirteen tactics to generate meaning from interview data. These tactics are ordered in a progression leading to rather positivist, quantitative, way of analysis according to Cohen et al, (2000).

The content of the interview and concepts or themes mentioned could be more useful to search for in order to serve the purpose of the research. In semi-structured interviews, of the kind used in this research, is convenient to use themes according to the questions in the interview. Thus, thematic analysis is carried out to analyse and interpret interviews. Banister et al, (1994) state:

> A 'thematic' analysis is a coherent way of organising or reading some interview material in relation to specific research questions. These readings are organized under thematic headings in ways that attempt to do justice both to the elements of the research question and to the preoccupations of the interviewees.   (Banister et al 1994: 57)

Tesch (1990:60) recounts a similar analytical technique, explaining that when a researcher is interested in 'meaning' then the interpretation and the search is for 'themes' which might not be directly expressed in the data but which may emerge from its intensive analysis. Themes, as Rubin and Rubin (1995) indicate, may offer explanations for how or why things happen. Hence, as mentioned above, thematic analysis is found suitable to use especially with the semi-structured interviews.

In analysing some responses of the interview, percentages were used to divide the responses and look for differences. For example, those who have better attitudes towards learning English in the future are more numerous than those who do not. Although the main analysis is based on the content of the interview, the percentages were worked out according to interviewees' conclusive response. Percentages were accomplished in using significant or key words, and also through looking at the whole response of an interviewee to a certain question.

3.6.2 Questionnaire analysis

The questionnaire was analysed in two ways. The first one was simple descriptive percentages and frequencies of answers. This way provides the frequency of responses, such as the responses were greater in using English than those who do not. It is simply a quantity of responses, and the first step in analysis of quantitative data.

The second type of analysing the questionnaire is looking for correlations between variables. Correlation is a statistical process which is used to measure the relationship between two or more variables. We are concerned here with the Bivariate. In itself, correlation has three types, known as Pearson, Kendal and Spearman (Norusis, 2000; Dometrius, 1992). The differences are subtle and the choice depends on the nature of the data. The Pearson correlation measures a linear association between two variables, with values of coeffeciency ranging from 1 to –1. On the other hand, Kendal correlation is a nonparametric measure of association for ordinal or ranked variables that takes ties into account. Spearman is a nonparametric version of the Pearson correlation based on the ranks of the data rather than the actual values. It is appropriate for ordinal data, or for interval data that do not satisfy the normality assumption. The Spearman correlation is mainly used in this study to show association and relationships between variables, because the data are mostly seen as ordinal, in terms of variables, and nonparametric; this type of correlation was used in previous similar studies (Norusis, 2000; Dömetrius, 1992; Einstein and Nocks, 1987)

3.7 Limitations of the Study

There are some limitations of the study in relation to the data collection methods and settings. First, the military environment of the Academy was one of the difficulties that the researcher encountered. Obtaining access to a lot of things within the Academy was not permitted without some effort. Making the Academy my target scene of research, distributing questionnaires, interviewing cadets and disclosing some information about the Academy were not very easy from the officials' points of view.

Another limitation of the study is also related the Academy itself. There was less experience and history of the Academy, cadets, staff and officials with a study being conducted within the Academy. Alhakbani (1990) was the only available research the Academy world had experienced. Thus, the researcher had to deal with and raise the awareness within the Academy's cadets, staff and officials about the nature and importance of conducting a research study.

The cadets were the only available source to collect data from in this study. The original aim was to include the teaching staff of the Academy as well as the officials and officers as another source of information. That could have enriched the data as well as provided a wider image not only about cadets' motivation and learning English but also the whole teaching and working environment of the Academy and the Saudi National Guard. Again there were some attempts by the researcher to do that, but the outcome was that only few members of teaching staff agreed to be included and none of the officers. Therefore, the researcher opted not to include staff and officers.

The final point on limitations is varying the data collecting technique. Although in this study two different research instruments were used, applying another could have been even more useful, such as observation and case study techniques. These could have been very informative sources of the cadets' motivation in learning English in the classroom as well as their daily life in the Academy. However, for the reasons stated above, 3.3.1, it was not possible to carry out such methods.

Chapter Four

Data Analysis

The analysis of the data from interviews and questionnaires is divided into two parts; each part deals with one of the methods. The first part is the qualitative analysis of the interviews. It is a narrative and detailed review of the cadets' responses to the questions in the semi-structured interview. The second part is the quantitative analysis of the questionnaire data. The quantitative analysis itself is divided into two sections, according the purpose of the analysis. The percentages analysis examines the percentile and frequencies of responses to each item or question in the questionnaire. Finally, correlation analysis is used to investigate the relationships between variables.

4.1 Interview Analysis

4.1.1 Sample profile

Prior to beginning the interview, and after assuring every interviewee as to confidentiality, I asked cadets general questions that were not relevant to my work in order to put them at their ease and make the conversation resemble a normal social exchange -insofar as possible. I also discussed their work in the Academy by asking them about their level and the English language mark obtained last term. Although asking about the level might seem redundant, this was a good way to get from a relaxed and general conversation to the subject of my research, which concerned their views of the way they were taught. I assumed that by asking about level and mark along with questions one and two, I could initiate a friendly setting for most interviewees. I then turned the conversation towards a consideration of the students' performance and progress in the Academy. The interviewees in this research had been reassured as to the purpose of the interviews. They were aware that chatting or discussing their marks with me would not bear upon any official outcome, such as an evaluation or placement, etc.

The result of sampling was that the majority of the cadets were from the first year, 44% of the sample. The second year accounted for 37 %, whereas the third year is the least with a percentage of 19%. This is for two reasons. The first year cadets represent the greater number of the whole population of the Academy, followed closely by the second year. Secondly, the teaching staff of both levels one and two were more cooperative about allowing cadets to be called out of their classes.

Because correlations were sought between attitudes, motivation and perceived success in English, I divided my sample according to whether they failed, obtained less than 60 percent) or passed. For example, below 60 in one group, 60-69 in another, etc. This grouping corresponds to the Academy marking system, below 60 is fail, 60-69 pass, 70-79 good, etc.

4.1.2 Achievement

In terms of percentages, the largest concentration of marks, 37.5%, was within the good 70-79 range; then 25% in the 60-69 pass area. The extremes were also found: 12.5% had marks over 90 (excellent), and 6.25% lower than 60 (fail). In the 80-89 very good category, the percentage was 19%. I exploited interviewees' responses on the obtained marks, for example, by asking a low achieving interviewee: how did this happen? What could you do to improve or how could you do better? The interviewees gave various types of explanations. First, in the 70-79 category there was a slight diversity in the comments. Most of them explained that the mark was "just right" and "reflected the true level" in English. On the other hand, in the same group an interviewee declared: "This is my best mark ever in English, the most and the best I can get; I studied very very hard to get that."

In the other category of the range 60-69, comments are divided into two types, for example, "I was careless" and "did not study hard" on one hand, and "I expected to do better" or "I can do better' on the other hand. Another comment was: "The situation in the academy does not help you to do better in English. If it was outside the academy I could have done better."

This comment suggests that the setting and the environment of the institution, KKMA, was not conducive to learning. Cadets live in KKMA five days a week, eight months a year over three years. The cadet is showing some awareness of how the military environment may not be fully conducive to language learning. This may be because of its formal and wearisome routines, or simply because it confines Arabic-speaking cadets in an Arabic speaking environment.

4.1.3 Situation in the Academy

Cadets were asked to express their feeling about their situation within the Academy. All cadets indicated their current satisfaction. Difficulties or dissatisfactions are found during the first period after joining the Academy, in the 45-day training and slightly beyond that to the whole of the first term. Hard training and change of environment put pressure on the cadets at the beginning, but this decreases in the course of the time.

Those who expressed satisfaction were asked how they adapted to the situation within the Academy. There were some professional or conditional responses, for example, one final year student said: "You have to be satisfied because you are mentally and physically prepared for such an environment." Those who indicated their satisfaction also mentioned that at the beginning, especially in the first year, there was some difficulty in coping with the situation. For example, one interviewee explained, "The first term in joining the Academy was difficult, because it was totally new environment. Now it is a little bit better." Another one stated, " There was some pressure at the beginning, now I am just satisfied."

Other replies showed a willingness to adapt to difficulties. One cadet described his situation as "Satisfied and relaxed because everything was available. There was enough time to adapt from a civilian way of life to a military one, everything is disciplined and orders here are to be obeyed." Another cadet mentioned, "I am well and satisfied, but everything is compulsory." These replies show the common struggle of recruits adapting to a military environment. These responses also, like the previous ones, could suggest that military training and routines are not conducive to language learning.

4.1.4 Motives for Joining the Military

This entry is included in the interview, both as an opportunity to probe negative views and to gain more insight into the general motive behind joining the Academy. The aim of this question is to look for the influence of motives for joining the military upon cadets' learning. For example, cadets who had clear sighted goals in the military might have more positive attitudes to learning. On the other hand, those who joined the Academy because they have nowhere to go, or have been pushed, strongly advised, or even maybe forced by a member of the family, might be found to be low achievers in their marks and less motivated to learn and study in the Academy for those reasons.

The resulting types of motives revealed were very similar to the list of motives and reasons for joining which were included in the questionnaire. The most frequent reasons for joining the Academy were **obtaining and securing a good job; it offered more opportunities than university; getting a socially prestigious position; family encouragement; personal vocation; serving country and religion.** These are always frequent in all the responses, some in different order. The most common ones were obtaining **a job** and **social prestige,** with former the most frequently mentioned, whereas the **personal vocation** and **serving religion and country** were less in evidence.

The **family encouragement** factor for joining the Academy was also common in responses. One cadet explained "I have joined the Academy after encouragement from my father who is an officer, a previous cadet in Academy so there's more encouragement; also securing a good job and as shorter way than the university to get a job." On the other hand, **serving religion and country** response was given as a rapid response by some, who stated them as a formulaic response early in the interviews; once said, it was left aside without elaboration.

The reference to '**job**' influence in joining the Academy would indicate that reason as a very strong one in attracting candidates. It could explain the huge number of applications not only to KKMA but also to all military academies in the Kingdom, as it is estimated that more than 3000 applicants apply every year to KKMA but only 300 or less may be admitted. Also, these motives are consistent with the ones listed in the questionnaire.

4.1.5 Attitudes to learning English

This entry requires cadets to reflect on their attitudes towards the English language during three different stages, secondary school (pre-Academy stage), in the Academy, and after leaving the Academy. It looks not only at the outcome the student desires but also at their view of what they have done. It aims to examine the different attitudes toward learning of a student at these three stages. It compares their achievement across these stages.

4.1.5.1 Secondary school

Positive views

There were interviewees who indicated a positive attitude towards learning English. For example, one cadet explained: "It was just good to study and succeed, not complicated or difficult." A more positive response was: "I enjoyed studying English and practice it myself", and another stated: "English was my favourite subject, I liked it and it is the language of the modern era." A third added, "I see English as a good subject. It is not complicated, and I do not dislike it at all. I find it rewarding." This group represented 56% of the whole sample.

Although these students came from similar secondary schools, using the same curriculum, they were from different parts of the Kingdom and from different backgrounds. When these students were examined, it was clear that those expressing positive attitudes towards English were high achievers. They were clearly trapped in a virtuous circle where positive attitudes were resulting in high achievement and vice-versa. This offers some support to Gardner and Lambert's (1959) and (1972) findings.

Negative views

On the other hand, there were also negative views of learning English in secondary school, representing 44% of the sample. When replies were related to the marks achieved in English in the Academy, there was a relationship between low achievement and negative

attitude. This group of replies was divided into two streams, one thought English was difficult and complicated but did not overly dislike it; the other thought it was difficult but made uninteresting by poor teaching. One cadet summed up his difficulty by stating:

> "It was a difficult and complicated subject. This could be due to our basics at elementary and intermediate levels. In intermediate, nothing was good; there was not enough effort either by teachers or by students who did not cooperate with teachers. Teachers did not try very hard to make students understand, and they did not change anything to make English an enjoyable or attractive subject, we were asked to memorise a few things and then do exams without understanding anything. It made me care less for English as a subject. In my indifference, I felt that it was less important."

Such students brought a negative attitude to language learning into the Academy. In addition, the way that students relate to the teacher is at the heart of the learning process. Textbooks were also another factor influencing students learning in their secondary school. One of the cadets explained. "The English subject marks were the lowest. I had just 50 out of 100 marks, which was the minimum needed to pass." Their attitudes seemed to affect most students who had negative perceptions. They thought that their linguistic foundation was not good enough and that more focus and attention was needed to develop the course books, to make them more suitable to students and enable them acquire the language step by step. Obviously, improvements in secondary school would be a marked effect, but bringing this about is beyond the province of this study.

Thus, from the two different attitudes of students during their secondary school and their relevance to their achievement in the Academy, it can be hypothesised that attitudes, positive or negative, of past experience towards learning English, would affect the learner's current performance.

4.1.5.2 In the Academy

For this stage, cadets were asked about was what they thought of English in the Academy, and whether the had the same views or attitudes, positive or negative, towards English. In terms of percentages the result was quite similar to the previous stage in secondary school.

Positive views

As much as 56% of the interviewees indicated that the situation in the Academy made them aware of the importance of English and even that the course assisted their learning. For example, one cadet opined, "I still have the same interest in learning English, the military content is useful as this is what cadets possibly need. This could be encouraging if the cadets realised that importance and had more interest." Another interviewee explained, "In the Academy, English is a little bit better, I have realized its importance. I was able to know some terms in English that are part of our daily life in the Academy."

The most obvious feature in these responses was the realisation of the importance of English in life, which be could attributed to two explanations. The first one is the assumed maturity that the cadets had reached from the secondary school to university or academically level in the Academy. The second one, which was mentioned in some of the above responses, is the awareness and realization of the importance of English because of the surroundings, either in the Academy or in the different uses of English in aspects of life. An example of the second explanation was given by one respondent, when he stated, "It is still not big difference from the secondary school. But now I realise the importance of English because it is used in different aspects in daily life in Saudi Arabia, such as hospitals and hotels." Another respondent indicated: "I realised its importance because of the situation in the Academy and what English can be used in the military, as well as travelling."

Therefore, for such cadets, the Academy made language more meaningful. The military provided a plausible context of use. Though not addressed to a target situation, the textbook's content was motivating just because it considered the language of the military discourse community, or a community to which they wanted to belong. Yet, as shown, this was not universally the case.

Negative views

On the other hand, various negative attitudes towards learning English in the Academy accounted for 44% of the responses. One of the respondents stated:

> "English in the Academy is not always enjoyable. It depends on certain situations, (*what kind of situations*) such as your mood being tired of training, too many subjects to revise and study. Sometimes the topics of the English are not interesting even if they have a military theme they are not really relevant, such as too much battlefield topics, and in some cases the teachers do not involve us in the lesson with their presentation."

This response highlighted some of the factors that could influence cadets' attitudes towards learning English in relation to their status in the Academy. Again there was an indication that the military environment and the rigours of basic training had an impact on their learning and liking English. One cadet explained, "I still like English, but the general programme of the Academy, for example compulsory marching, compulsory study, compulsory sleep, does not allow us much free time to revise, study or practise English." Another cadet pointed out, "The chance to learn English in the Academy is limited, because the course books and the materials do not give that chance. *(Could you explain more on that?)* Although the course books are easy, they are not useful. They only concentrate on some specialised words. Also, in the Academy, the emphasis is more on military training and military subjects but not academic ones."

Therefore, English suffered from being a low priority because it did not fit the military profile. Although it was emphasised in the Academy Guidebook that the aim was to provide cadets with both military and academic knowledge, these replies imply that these cadets need a more balanced schedule of subjects and training and other military activities in order to enable cadets to improve their learning English and other subjects, while including efficient physical and military training.

Another important factor, which was implied in the responses, was the content of the English course. Some respondents explained that although the content included some military topics, these were not really related to the cadets' situation, as explained. The

interviewee exemplified that the battlefield topics, for instance, are uninteresting and less central. Thus, the issue of addressing learners' needs in course books is important, as the inclusion of what a learner needs, in designing a course book, would have some influence on his or her learning and makes learning English a more positive experience.

Some respondents explained that the problem with the English in the Academy was that it was not practical and that the course books were irrelevant. One of the respondents said, "In the Academy there is less chance to practise English. Because the Academy is about military English, you are less likely to use it in daily life, but there are few military uses which may be useful for cadets in their working life". Another one clarified, "The textbook, although it has some useful military terms, requires a lot of memorising, making less room for comprehension."

Therefore, some of the cadets' negative views of English in the Academy stem from three different areas: 1. The heavy load of military training and subjects; 2. The content of the military topics is not relevant to the cadets' interests; and 3. The topics require less practice and not comprehension.

Change of Attitudes

However, there were some cases who had had a change of attitudes towards English, compared to their secondary school, from positive to negative and vice-versa. These represent 13% of the sample. The percentages are identical, for students who changed from positive to negative, and those who changed from negative to positive. In other words, 13% of the interviewees changed their attitudes towards English from negative to positive, and 13% had also changed their attitudes from positive to negative.

The reasons for positive changes of attitudes were attributed, according to the cadets' views, mentioned under positive views above, to two factors: first, they realised the importance of English; second, the military content had some positive influence on attitudes to learning some military related English.

On the other hand, the main reason for a negative change of attitude concerned the textbook. According to some of the cadets' comments, mentioned above, the textbooks were not relevant to their field, emphasised memorising over comprehension, and contained no practice exercises.

In conclusion, although there were some positive outcomes of the special content and learning environment on fostering a positive attitude towards learning ESP, equally there were negative outcomes as well. The negative views were directed to the content being not related to the learners' real world needs, and lack of the practice and aid to comprehension they required. Therefore, from these two entries, cadets' attitudes toward English in secondary and their attitudes in the Academy, it can be hypothesised, the second hypothesis, that ESP courses will have little effect on negative attitudes towards learning English if the content of these courses is not practically related to the learners' real situation.

4.1.5.3 In Future

Positive attitudes

This entry investigates attitudes towards learning English and the sample's perception of their future discourse community, and of its effects upon their learning. In this perspective, according to the cadets' responses, there was a largely positive attitude towards learning English in the future, 81%. Even students with bad learning experiences or with low marks expressed positive attitudes. For example, an interviewee who failed once in his secondary school, and again in his first term in the Academy, and who had obtained a very low mark in his previous term, observed, "I intend immediately to take a general English course, to strengthen the basics of English first and then to tackle something more specific, because it is even more important." A second one in a similar situation said, "Although I think it is difficult, I intend to do more learning of English in the future, I do not dislike it. Post-graduate English courses will help improving my English in general." Another respondent,

who scored average English marks in secondary school and slightly better marks in the Academy than the two cited previously, stated: "I have the desire to enrol in more English learning, especially abroad." In addition to these remarks from low achievers, there were responses from the top achievers, such as one cadet who said: "Definitely I will take more English courses after graduation because I like English and it is the language of the modern world." A similar response was also declared by another good achiever: "I will learn more English in the future because I feel it is important. There is a chance within the National Guard to go abroad and train in English." This, again, provided an indication of an underlying positive attitude to learning English.

Therefore, there was a positive attitude towards learning English among the majority of the cadets. When examining respondents' achieved marks in English, the result showed a possible relationship between marks and positive attitudes towards learning: over 50% were among the good (70-79) achieved marks. It is an implication of the third hypothesis that there is a possible relationship between better achievement and positive attitudes towards learning the language itself.

Negative Attitudes

A minority of the sample, 19%, had negative views about learning after the Academy. Largely, these views were expressed by cadets who had negative views of learning English in the past, in secondary school, and were low achievers in both the secondary school stage and during their study in the Academy. The Academy had done nothing to change this. For example, one said: "I have no intention of learning English after graduation from the Academy, and if I get in a situation which requires English then interpreters can solve any problems of communication." Another respondent who had a negative view pointed out, "Even though I understand its importance, I have no real desire to learn English in the future." Although generally negative attitudes to English may be affecting these responses. they can also be related to a wider failure in study. The learning environment of the Academy had done little to change these cadets' general aversion to study. The negative attitude to learning could be part of a vicious circle, because these respondents had marks

just over the pass level. Poor learning experiences were engendering negative attitudes that were creating further obstacles to learning.

4.1.6 General or Specific

The positive responses to learning English were divided according to the interest of students whether to take a general or a special military English course. Although the assumption was that the choice would be a specific one, because it would be provided in a work environment, there was some interest in a general course.

37% of the sample explained that general English would be more useful in the future, because they said it would have a wider range of future applications,. One of the cadets noted: "Definitely I will learn English in the future, this summer I will be enrolled in an English course abroad, as well as after graduation in general English."

There were other responses that indicated the desire to learn a general English, to meet basic and immediate needs, given that a more specialised course could be taken when needed. One of the respondents stated, "The first thing I will do after graduation is to take a general English language course because it is necessary in many areas. Specialised English will be available at the National Guard English Institute only when it is needed." This response indicated that learners did not discount the importance of learning military English, but could assume that, because this would be taken care of by their employer, this left them free to focus on general, life-style goals.

The second group of cadets declared the desirability of a military focus. This was 44% of the whole sample who observed that it would benefit them and would be usable in the working life in the Saudi National Guard. For example, a respondent said: "I would like to continue more learning and practising of English because of its importance, especially in the military field as it will be related to the future job." There is an obvious emphasis in this response on the specific course and its job relevance. Another interviewee mentioned some of the activities that he might be encountering when using English: " I would like to learn English, because learning English in the future is vitally important especially in the

military field. There is the strong chance of meeting other foreign officers, dealing with instructions and manuals of weapons systems such as armoured vehicles and reading about these weapons." Another cadet generally commented, "It (English) is very important to learn in the future, especially as an officer because you will be more likely to be involved in training abroad, above all it is the world language." There was also another comment stating some of the possible uses of English in the future in the National Guard: "General English is useful, but using English in the military is important such as meeting and exchanging information with foreign officers at the National Guard Battalions." One respondent elaborated on this issue of choosing between specific and general English in the future by saying:

> "Definitely I will learn more English if there is the chance, because of its personal benefit, better social merit, as well as its practical use, using English either locally, in hospitals or abroad. If I had only one chance to learn English after graduation, then it would be military, because in this way I would learn both general and military English."

Thus, it could be inferred that most of the cadets who were interviewed indicated their desire and willingness to continue learning English. Most of those wanting to learn English in the future preferred to have specific courses in English rather than just general ones. Their justifications were based upon the importance and the need to use English within the discourse community of their working environment. In examining the marks achieved of all of those who showed their desire to continue learning English, we discovered that those who wanted to learn specific English had higher marks than those who prefer general English.

The following hypotheses were generated from the above analysis for further exploration. The fourth hypothesis in the study is that there is a possible correlation between the desire to learn English, attitude towards learning, and an interest in ESP. The fifth hypothesis is that there is a possible relationship between high achievement and an interest in learning ESP.

4.1.6 Attitudes towards BANA

This question investigates cadets' attitude towards BANA people, culture and language. The responses were in four categories. The first category were those with positive attitudes; second, the ones with both positive and negative attitudes; third, the group with only negative attitude, and fourth, those who were neutral: 31%, 38%, 19%, and 12% respectively.

Positive attitudes

To unfold these categories, the first one, the positive attitude, was very much influenced by the state of development and advancement in either American or British science and technology. An example of a positive attitude towards the English speaking community was a respondent saying, "Apart from religion, my view is very positive and encourages me to learn, and I would like to integrate with them and communicate with the Americans if I have the chance." However, this was the only interviewee who gave some sense of an integrative motivation in his language learning.

Nevertheless, although such instances of integrative motivation were almost non-existent, there was a willingness to think favourably about BANA cultures and people. A deeper instance was rare. For example, one interviewee said, "My view towards the English people and their culture is positive, because they are more organised and love the system, value time, respect you as a man, respect other people, and are civilized in dealing with other people and with each other." Other respondents related their view of the west to its state of scientific and technological development, for example, "I have a positive view of the people speaking the English language as a mother tongue as they seem to have achieved more advanced and developed societies." In cross-examining the achieved marks of those who had positive attitudes towards BANA people and culture, there was no clear indication that such attitudes were associated with either high achievers or low achievers. Thus, we can hypothesise, as the sixth hypothesis, that a positive attitude towards BANA peoples and cultures is NOT correlated with high achievers.

Negative Attitudes

A smaller group of cadets expressed unsolicited negativity towards the BANA and people and culture. Some of the descriptions were statements such "English people are arrogant and look on others as inferior", "have loose life styles" and are "less inclined to mix socially with others". Interestingly, almost all those who expressed entirely negative attitudes towards BANA peoples and cultures were low achievers.

Positive and Negative Attitudes

The third group, which was the largest at 38%, were those who had mixed attitudes or discriminating ones. They seemed to distinguish between two aspects in considering BANA people and culture. The positive view was associated, as in the first group, with a vision of a modern, advanced, highly educated and hard working society. On the other hand, there was also the negative view of these people's lifestyle and the looseness in their social life and the weak family ties.

For example, one interviewee made a clear distinction between his admiration for the economic and technical state of development in the west and what he perceived as his social underdevelopment. He stated, "My view towards them is a positive one, because they are educated, modern, and working life is something they take seriously and, of course, some of them have a bad life style with loose families ties; but even if you have negative view of their social life this will not affect your learning the language and realizing its importance." In other words, the view was that even if one was aware of that bad lifestyle and loose family ties, these should not affect one's understanding of the importance of English which could also be related to the serious view of work taken by people in English speaking society. Another interviewee related the importance of learning English to the strength of BANA cultures. He explained:

> English in my view is represented by the Americans. I see them as advanced, modern and at the top. I have the desire to learn English not to be like them but more to compete with them, because the English language is prevalent in many important aspects of life, computer, science, technology, nuclear, and the military field, most of the developments in these areas are in English. Even though there

could be some negative sides to the Americans' life, this will not discourage me from learning English because of its importance.

The positive attitude in this response was represented by the terms "advanced", "modern" and "at the top". The response also named the Americans, as the most significant English speaking community associated with science and technology. What interesting here is the interviewee's insistence that learning English was too important to be affected by any negative considerations of English speaking people. Thus, he specifically excluded an integrative motive for learning English, "not to be like them", but indicated his extrinsic or instrumental motivation.

In comparing the attitudes of these cadets with marks they had achieved, it can be explained that there is relationship between those who held negative attitudes along with positive ones and achievement. In other words, most of those who expressed negative views and attitudes towards BANA people and their culture had obtained good marks in the English course. Thus, it might be inferred that there is a difference between attitudes towards learning the language and the negative attitudes towards the people and the culture of that language. It can be said that the cadets who held negative views about western culture had not allowed these to affect their understanding of the importance of learning English. They focused on the instrumental nature of English. This instrumentality within the ESP discourse community can work as an integrative type of motivation for learners of that community. A possible conclusion, therefore, is that ESP could awaken an integrative view of the military discourse community in Saudi Arabia.

The explanation for that can be attributed to two assumptions and both stem from the importance of the target language. First, is the dominant economic and position of the English language and the worldwide use of English. Second, is the importance of the English language within the specific field of these cadets, as some of them indicated. This gives us some indication of how a specific language content and learning environment can distract students from their negative views of BANA and encourage them with its focus upon how the language is used within the military discourse community, with which they can identify.

Therefore, from the views expressed by the cadets above, we can infer the following hypotheses concerning the attitudes towards BANA people and culture, their relation to achievement and learning the language within ESP learning community. The seventh hypothesis in the study is that there is no relationship between negative attitudes towards BANA peoples and cultures and learning the language and achievement. The eighth one is that learning a specific language content, ESP, could defect its learners' negative attitudes of BANA from their learning and achievement. The ninth hypothesis is that attitudes and motivation of learning ESP for the discourse community can work as an integrative type of motivation, that is to be integrated as part of that discourse community.

4.1.7 Textbooks

Cadets were asked to comment on the textbooks in order to understand how these might affect their attitude and motivation. Because there are two courses used in the Academy, the responses are divided accordingly. The first group were those who used *Command English* as their textbook in the second and third year. The second group were cadets who were studying *Practical English*, a course designed by the English staff in the Academy.

The group which were using *Practical English* accounted for 44% of the sample. All of them were in the first year. This book was written for the Academy and focuses on the life of the students there. The responses were mostly positive as regards the textbook as a whole. One cadet commented, "The current textbooks are good enough and could encourage learning, because they have some topics related to the cadets within the Academy, e.g. marching and the Yarmook training project." Another cadet explained, "*Practical English* was useful and suitable for cadets and the inclusion of some military topics will benefit cadets after graduation, and could encourage them to learn more." A third interviewee stated, "The current textbook *Practical English* is suitable for most cadets; although some cadets thought that it was difficult, I find it easy. It included mostly military related topics and general ones that were useful for the cadets. There was

information about the life and environment within the Academy, for example, it included a conversation of a sergeant ordering a cadet to clean rooms; the cadet answers: 'Yes Sir'. "

Thus, the view of *Practical English* was that it was generally considered a good textbook. The cadets thought the content of military topics useful for their context and said that it could encourage learning. The more frequent views about *Practical English* were its suitability and the encouragement it provided because of using a familiar military content. However, there was an opposite view explaining that the use of military-related topics would be less useful because a cadet did not know what his future job might be; it was more likely to be less specialised.

The second group, using *Command English*, was 56% of the sample because that textbook was used in the second and third year. The responses were mostly positive in their evaluations and comments on the textbook, although there were suggestions for improvement. Some respondents commented that *Command English* was good enough and some of its useful military topics were useful and relevant. For example one interviewee noted:

> "The contents in the current textbook, *Command English*, are relevant to our level, but need more grammar practices, explanations and focus on usage. The more specialised parts would encourage and motivate learning especially to practise specific vocabulary and terms in military training outside the classroom. These stay with you more."

Another cadet described the book *Command English* saying "It has some useful military terms and conversations. It could have been better if it included lab and pronunciation exercises that ask cadets to practice these conversations and terms. If such practice was compulsory then it could be more useful." A third view also suggested "*Command English* was good enough, but the teacher used Arabic too much when teaching it. Their use of English would force cadets to learn more."

Just as with *Practical English*, there was generally a positive attitude towards the book as useful, because it dealt with military topics that would encourage language learning in the content of the Academy. However, as it was clear that the cadets thought the materials

needed improvement. The suggested improvements were frequent use of the lab, teachers using more English in the class and more grammar practice.

Furthermore, although this group often said using *Command English* and addressing military topics was useful, they thought they would do better with general English. One cadet suggested:

> "*Command English* is good but its topics are limited to a narrow range, lots of repetition of the same type of steps in every topic. It could be better if developed to have more grammatical practices and not always about military topics, for example the first three terms, military English and the last three terms general English, or vice versa to give more basics in English prior to military English."

Thus, there was a clear mixture of views concerning the advisability of military English language teaching, MELT, in the Academy. They appeared to be deference to the idea of military people doing military language in a military environment. However, there was also a sense that if this was all they did, some larger part of the language, both grammatical and communicative would be missing. When the responses of cadets, who had positive attitudes towards inclusion of a military curriculum and a mix of military and general English, were related to achievement, the result indicated that there was a possible correlation between these cadets' responses and their high achievement. It suggests that favouring a military curriculum correlates with high achievement. This gives support to the fourth hypothesis, which is mentioned earlier, that there is a possible correlation between the desire to learn and an interest in ESP. This analysis also generates the eleventh hypothesis, that preference of a special military-related content does correlate with high achievement.

4.1.8 Specific Content

This question was included in order to provide supplementary data to the last one in the interview. It looked at how the cadets thought military topics related to their working needs. Once again, responses were divided into two different camps. The first group was those who looked at the inclusion of more specific related military in a positive way, representing 44% of the sample. The cadets suggested some military topics. Cadets were also reminded about some of the military topics, which were listed in the questionnaire, and asked by the interviewer if such activities would useful for the cadets and help them to learn English. The military topics suggested by the interviewer were mostly drawn from those included in the questionnaire, focusing on those that were considered more specific to use of English by the Saudi National Guard, such as mapping, navigation, communication, and intelligence gathering.

An example of a positive view was "Topics such as using maps, signals and intelligence, will be a very good preparation for the cadets' military English." Another one also suggested: "Such work-related topics will be more useful and better than general topics and will be usable in the future after graduation." A third interviewee indicated, "Such topics are very useful, maps, intelligence, communications, signals, these are very useful currently and in the future. They will help us learn English." A similar view by another cadet was "Putting more military related topics either before or after graduation, such as looking at maps and communication, will be very useful and encouraging to learn."

Another more interesting comment was that the students would like to see the military subjects which are taught in Arabic being put into English lessons. It was as if they invited a content-based teaching approach. One suggested, "It would be useful if English included the other military subjects which are taught in Arabic because these are more likely to be used in the future job." Another appreciated that this would not only help them with learning English but also "some parts of the military topics as well" He indicated, "It could include such as marching and military orders as teaching topics. Also it could include other military topics that are currently taught in Arabic in the Academy. These Arabic ones, or

some of them, can be put as English language topics. That would help us in learning both English and some pieces of these military topics. It would be better than just general ones."

The suggestion of using pieces of certain military subjects that were currently taught in the Academy in Arabic, to be part of the content of the English course in the Academy, as indicated above by the cadets, directs attention to the content that could be used in an ESP course. It can be assumed that an ESP situation could use its own content as a reason to encourage learning. In other words, ESP could become its own rationale, and stand out as a content-based learning. For example, according to the suggestions above by some of the cadets, cadets in the Academy would not only be using 'mapping' to learn English; they would learn mapping as well, leading us to assume that ESP would not only be language carrier content but would become content-based teaching.

Another respondent also proposed additions to the content of an ESP course and stressed the importance of its future impact. He pointed out: "The more specialised material would encourage and motivate more learning, especially the practice of specialised vocabulary and terms in military training outside the classroom. If you practised more, it could stay with you more; by comparison, General English would stay in the classroom. More specialised English would offer more encouragement to learn and practise useful terms within our military environment; for example, issuing orders, using weapons and training procedures, and what was learnt would endure longer because it was relevant future life." Clearly, this cadet felt he was becoming part of a community whose use of English would be military. This provides us with the hypothesis, which corresponds the ninth hypothesis generated earlier, that positive views of specially related topics are related to and generate an integrative motivation of learners of the ESP discourse community.

In comparison, the second group of respondents had somewhat apprehensive attitudes towards the inclusion of more specific content; the percentage of this category was 36%. The justification from these respondents was that after graduation they would know better if they needed a specialised English and in what areas. For example, one cadet commented: "The English course is better to be less specified, and more general, because a specialised one will be useful if taken after graduation with more clear idea of the specific military

area." The reply shows a surprising understanding of the principles that should motivate needs-based teaching. For this respondent, there were not, as yet, any real military needs to address. These cadets did not see the difference between military needs and military training needs. However, their courses reflected the lack this perception as well.

Another respondent said: "Including military topics in the content of the English course could make it more difficult for cadets to cope with; maybe if it is simplified it could be a useful encouragement but not a big one." Cadets who gave these types of replies were apprehensive about having a purely military course. One of the reasons for such hesitation, as explained by some of the interviewees, was that the difficulty of the language would be accompanied by the specific terms. Another explanation for being not supportive of military related content was that if the specific content was required after graduation, then a specific course would be useful.

One more justification for not wanting a military content course was the fact of being in the Academy itself. An interviewee commented, "Including military terms and military topics can be good but the available time is limited and we have too many subjects to study. Also, the environment within the Academy and its demanding schedule of physical and military training does not help us to practise more. After the graduation could be a more useful more time, with less pressure on learning." This again raises the issue of the learning situation in the Academy as an impediment to implementing a military course. Course planning needs to think of the findings emerging from a learning situation analysis. This would take into account how learning is stressed by the military situation. It might show that the Academy authorities prefer to take a more holistic approach to learning, where different types of activity support each other.

We conclude with one of the respondents who, although he indicated his personal preference for a more general course, suggested at the same time that it was more appropriate for the Academy to use military materials. He stated: "These military topics will be useful when I am an officer and have a specialised job with specific needs, but general English is more useful for everyday life in my opinion; the military course is the

one that should be used in the academy, as it suits the situation, though." Hence, in this example, the respondent's preference for a military content for the course was argued against his personal interest in learning. A problem with this willingness to sacrifice his personal interest is that it may not always be sustained throughout the long and arduous process of learning a language.

Thus, from these mixed apprehensive responses to the use of military materials, we can make a possible hypothesis which is related to the third one stated earlier. The hypothesis is that ESP courses would have little effect on negative attitudes towards learning English if the content of these courses is not related to the learners' real situation.

4.1.9 Timetable and Studying Hours

This question was designed to discover the views of cadets on the timetable and hours allocated for the English language as a subject in the Academy as well as the time, if any, they assigned to study or revise English. It was argued that those who study more might be more motivated to learn. Part of my interest is the possibility of a plausible relationship between studying more and higher motivation.

The outcome was in three different views. The larger group, 50%, were those who thought that timetable hours allocated for English were just enough, because, as they justified, the course was not that big or large. For the time assigned for studying, this group was more consistent than the other two, in the sense that 75% of that group would allocate a certain amount time to study and revision.

One respondent stated, "Hours in the timetable for the English course are just enough for the textbook, and I do allocate some time to English, but not as much as to other more difficult subjects such as map reading." Another one also suggested, "The timetable is suitable for the textbook as it is not a very big or a very small course, if you increase it will be even more burden on the cadets." One of the cadets commented at length:

> "The current timetable has enough hours for English. I usually allocate some time to study and revising English. I think it is just the right amount of allocation, without

being too intensive or neglectful. English would be more useful if it included some lab practices. I feel that I have the interest to learn and continue learning English, not just to pass exams but for my future benefit"

These responses revealed a motivation for learning English. What supports this argument is that when the achieved marks of these respondents were examined, largely, they had grades above 80 mark, which indicates that they were high achievers.

The second group of respondents were those who suggested increasing the hours for the English language. These were 25% of the whole sample. One respondent suggested,

> I would prefer the hours in the timetable allocated to English to be increased so that the cadets had better knowledge in English. That way there would be more practice and exercises in the class, although speaking more personally, I would be worried about increasing a heavy learning load. It is only at examinations that I study English and sometimes I hire a private teacher to help as I did at secondary school.

The replies in this group on the time they allocated for studying and revising to some extent varied. However, just over 50% within the group itself said they devoted some hours to study English. The marks among these respondents bore no consistent relationship to the time allocated for studying. This could mean that although there was a preference for an increase in the timetable of the English course, assigned self-study hours were not consistent.

The third group of respondents, 25%, thought that the timetable hours are more than enough. In this group of respondents, there were indications of allocating some hours for self-study. Mostly, this allocation was attributed to the perception that English is a difficult subject and requires more time.

No further questions were raised by this enquiry. Although many of the respondents thought the time allocated to the study of English was sufficient, there was also an understanding sense that more practice would improve matters. There was no feeling that the timetable allocation had a strong effect on attitudes or motivation. This would provide us with two possible hypotheses. The first one is that favouring an increase or decrease in a

timetable for a course does not relate to high achievement or motivation (the twelfth hypothesis in the study). The second one is that allocating more self-studying hours does relate to better achievement and motivation (hypothesis thirteen in the study).

4.1.10 Teachers

The opinion among the majority of cadets, 81%, was that the teachers were very good or excellent, cooperative and appreciative of the cadets' situation, and looking out for their interest by using suitable and clear presentations and introductions for the topics. Some of the comments were: "In general, teachers' introductions are suitable, and balanced between bad and good cadets"; "They are cooperative and their presentations of the lessons are clear enough"; and "They are excellent teachers, most of them are cooperative and clear, keeping cadets focused and awake, some of them use humour which I think is useful to get the cadets' attention, and encourage them and make learning English attractive." Other cadets added: "They are very good teachers, good and clear explanations of the lessons, focus more on conversation and practice with cadets but some of them are less cooperative", "The ones with more humour and fun are more likable", "they are good teachers and have good cooperation with cadets, a few have fun which is more useful."

The general positive view of teachers also raised comments about what made them good. The most frequent reference was to humour and general ability to emphasise or make the language clear. What was not an issue was the content of their classes or even their approach to this. What the respondents did show was the students' awareness when a teacher was trying hard to present or explain a piece of information, or a sense of value in what he was doing.

On the other hand, 19% of the sample explained that they thought that teachers could bring more variety into their teaching or make their presentation clearer. For example, one of the respondents said, "Teachers are good but some of them need to be clearer in their presentations and the introductions to the lessons. That could help in raising some interest in learning and studying English." Another interviewee suggested, "They differ: some of

teachers could explain the topics more and could get the cadets to participate better. How much they do this varies. Those who try more will benefit the cadets more." Thus, clearer presentations of the lessons and making cadets more involved in the class was obviously preferred by most cadets, whether they achieved high or low marks in English.

There were suggestions from respondents on this issue. The first suggestion was to have English native speaker teachers, as one of the cadets indicated, "We would be more motivated to learn if teachers were native speakers: that would give more chance to practise and speak English." Addressing the issue of how to use English in the class, another cadet added, "It would be very useful if teachers used more English in the class. That would force cadets to use English as much as they can." In spite of their beginner level in English, there was a desire from these learners to be "forced" to use English in order to learn more.

The second issue suggested by one of the cadets was to have officers teaching English rather than civilian teachers. He stated, "... better to have officer teachers for Military English. They would get the attention of the cadets and stress how learning English in this setting is a military activity. Officers are more familiar with military culture. Sometimes teachers' explanations of military items are incomplete."

The issue of what makes a successful ESP practitioner has been much debated in the ESP field. Some researchers stress the usefulness of having expert input; others stress the importance of language learning knowledge. Robinson (1991), for example, sees subject knowledge as a useful, though not essential, pedagogical strength. Hutchison and Waters (1987) are more of the view that it is language which must be understood. Clearly, the cadets felt a need for greater subject expertise. However, the previous respondent was also adding a new element; the suggestion was that an officer would add a military presence to integrate the learning into curriculum.

Therefore, two points were raised. First, students were not going to be interested simply by having English given a military carrier content. A military content had to reflect the concerns of their immediate environment. In this sense, the findings suggested a course

structure that was integrative. Secondly, dissatisfaction with teachers was not widespread though there were a few muted criticisms. This raises two presumptions. Firstly, high achievement correlates with a motivated desire for a military life, related to the eleventh hypothesis. Secondly, teacher satisfaction did not correlate with achievement, the fourteenth hypothesis.

4.1.11 Exams and Marks

The assessment of the Academy was based on one final exam of 100 marks at the end of each term for every subject. It was not a subject of agreement between the Academy officials and teachers themselves. Therefore, it is worth investigating this issue from the cadets' view and seeing how it affects their learning or is related to it.

As much as 88% of the interviewees showed a desire to introduce other tests, either mid-term or monthly, in order to improve the marking system in the Academy. For example, one of the cadets noted, "It would be more useful if there was a mid-term marked exam to force us to revise and keep cadets in touch with the curriculum, offering more encouragement to learn." There was also a clear interest in continuous assessment as a way to motivate students. For example, one cadet suggested, "Mid-term exams, marks on participation within the class, would be more useful for motivating the cadets in the class." One interviewee similarly indicated, "Dividing the marks between the exam and the term work would be an excellent way to involve cadets in English and subsequently to get them to learn more English." Another one also explained, "Better to have monthly tests to make cadets work harder, or one test will help to involve them in English and possibly encourage them to learn." There were quite a lot of similar remarks.

Clearly, assessment was an area that the students thought to be in need of improvement. For this research, the cadets' positive and constructive criticism of current modes of assessment indicated a motive and a positive interest in learning. Their concern went beyond simply satisfying examination criteria. They also appreciated the need for types of assessment that would be better focused on involving them in the language learning process.

However, some of the cadets, 12% in fact, indicated that there were severe time constraints on changing the marking system. The curriculum was so broad and the time allowed for each subject so short that they felt a more elaborate testing system could not be integrated into current English language programmes. This could be related to the fourth hypothesis, which was suggested earlier, that there is a possible correlation between the desire to learn and an interest in ESP. The explanation is that learning in a specific discourse community could motivate its learners to find more ways of encouraging learning. The implication is that discourse community learning situations could be a fertile base for enhancing learning.

4.1.12 Summary

In order to conclude this part of interview analysis, we will recount the hypotheses that have been generated from the analysis. The questions in the interview, as indicated earlier, were based on the main research questions of the study. Therefore, these hypotheses also reflect the main research questions as well. These hypotheses will be neutralised and stated as null hypotheses in order to be tested, explored and examined in the quantitative analysis, with either rejecting or accepting. The null hypotheses are:

1. **Null Hypothesis: Attitudes towards learning English of past experience will not affect learners' current performance.**
2. **Null Hypothesis: Learners will not have negative attitudes towards the special content of the course, if there is no clear idea of what their real working needs are.**
3. **Null Hypothesis: There is no correlation between high achievement and positive attitudes towards future learning.**
4. **Null Hypothesis: There is no relationship between the desire to learn, positive attitudes towards learning, and an interest in ESP.**
5. **Null Hypothesis: There is no correlation between high achievement and the interest to learn ESP.**

6. **Null Hypothesis: There is no relationship between positive attitudes towards BANA and high achievement.**

7. **Null Hypothesis: There is no correlation between negative attitudes towards BANA and achievement.**

8. **Null Hypothesis: The learning of specific language content does not distract its learners' negative attitudes of BANA from their learning.**

9. **Null Hypothesis: Positive attitudes and motivation towards special content-based learning do not work as integrative motivation in an ESP discourse community.**

10. **Null Hypothesis: Favouring a military curriculum does not correlate with positive attitudes towards learning English.**

11. **Null Hypothesis: Preference of a military content does not correlate with high achievement.**

12. **Null Hypothesis: Preference for increasing or decreasing the timetable for the course does not correlate with achievement.**

13. **Null Hypothesis: Allocating time to study and revision does not relate to positive attitudes towards learning and high achievement.**

14. **Null Hypothesis: Learners' satisfaction with teachers does not relate to their achievement.**

In conclusion, these are the null hypotheses that have been generated by the analysis of interviews. The purpose is to test them in the statistical analysis of the questionnaire and look for the significance of responses in order to reject these null hypotheses.

4.2 Questionnaire Analysis

4.2.1 Percentages

4.2.1.1 Background

The questionnaire contained a set of questions to elicit personal or general information about cadets. The first six questions covered: 1. their current academic year, 2.previous term's mark in English, 3. age, 4.nationality, 5. city or town and 6.secondary school.

Year

The first question in the questionnaire asked cadets to state which year they were in. As Table 4.1 shows, a slight majority of the sample (57%) was from level two, the second year. Greater cooperation and easier coordination with the staff of that level contributed to such a result, as well as the comparatively larger total number cadets in the second year. The frequency indicates the number of responses. For example, the number of cadets who responded to this question were 277, they representing a 57% of the total sample of the questionnaire 486.

Table 4.1: Year

Year	Frequency	Percent
First Year	159	32.7
Second Year	277	57.0
Third Year	50	10.3
Total	486	100.0

This imbalance should have no marked effect on analysis. However, it might be seen that the larger group could have a clearer idea of their institutional language needs than there in level one because they had a greater acquaintance with them.

Marks

The second question in the questionnaire asked cadets to write down their previous term grades in English. This information was obtained in order to be used as the achievement factor in the study. It was based on the official assessment of the Academy. Figure 4.1 illustrates the distribution of results among cadets in percentages. The largest population of cadets 25.5% came in the pass category, which represents the group whose marks were between 60-69. The good category, 70-79, accounted just for 14.4% and the fail with 15.6%.

Figure 4.1 Marks

Age

Although the age category is not expected to be very wide spread due to the fact that the Academy regulations state that upon applying cadets should not exceed 25, a possible area of enquiry concerned whether mature learners might have a clear idea of the

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importance of English on account of greater world knowledge. The age range is distributed into three groups, see table 4.2 below: 18-20, 21-23 and over 24. The table shows that the majority of cadets are 21-23 years old. Age differences are therefore unlikely to have any significant impact.

Table 4.2: Age

Age	Frequency	Percent
18-20	176	36.2
21-23	262	53.9
24+	32	6.8
Total	486	100

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Nationality

The nationality category was included to ask if cadets from the Gulf or other Arab states had higher levels of achievement or different motivation to students from other states. However, the non-Saudi proportion of the cadets was too small to provide any significant figures to examine the significance of this factor.

Table 4.3: Nationality

Nationality	Frequency	Percent
Saudi	474	97.5
Gulf States	11	2.3
Arab States	1	.2
Total	486	100.0

City or Town

Respondents from the Kingdom were asked to state the city, town or village from which they came. As figure 4.2 shows, over 50% of the cadets were from cities around the Kingdom, 24% from villages and 20% from towns. The criterion for dividing places of origins into cities towns and villages were based on population. Places populated with

over a million such as Riyadh, the capital, Jeddah and Dammam were described as cities. The other two terms, towns and villages, were used according to the Atlas of the Kingdom.

Figure 4.2 City or Town

The objective was to ask how far the environment affected attitudes to learning, with an expectation that a higher proportion of urban students would understand the importance of English because of a higher possibility of contact with the international community.

Secondary School

Respondents were asked about their secondary school, to look for possible differences among cadets according to types of English teaching they had received and its quality. In Saudi Arabia, the General secondary school English course is more intensive and demanding than those in Commercial or Islamic studies schools. However, the results in Table 4.4 do not enable such differences to be identified because 98.8% of cadets were from the general secondary schools.

Table 4.4: Secondary School

School	Frequency	Percentage
General	480	99
Commercial	4	1
Islamic	0	0
Total	484	100

Reasons for Joining the Academy

Question 7 moves to a closer exploration of attitudes. It asked about the reasons and motives of cadets when joining the Academy. Respondents were asked to reply in relation to four listed motives in order to explore what is the strongest factor for joining the Academy. Table 4.5 below displays responses for each factor frequency on the five-point scale: *always; often; sometimes; rarely;* and *never*. According to the results, the first three factors or motives are more frequent than the fourth one, family encouragement. For all these three, the concentration of responses is at the positive end of the scale, that is *always* and *often*. The strongest motive of all, according to the table, is the desire to be an officer. Cumulatively, representing *always* and *often* at 88.9%. On the other hand, joining because of family encouragement is not a very strong factor, compared to job, with only 47.5% of respondents answering both *always* and *often*. *Rarely* and *never* responses were 12.9% and 16.5% respectively, lower than the other three factors.

Table 4.5: Reasons for Joining The Academy

Reason	Percentage				
	Always	**Often**	**Sometimes**	**Rarely**	**Never**
To get better job	60%	23.5%	11.6%	1.0%	3.5%
Desire to be an officer	74.5%	14.4%	9.3%	.9%	.9%
Social prestige	50.4%	29.7%	14.5%	2.9%	2.5%
Family encouragement	27.2 %	20.3%	23%	12.9%	16.6%

The second series of questions aimed to elicit some basic information about the respondent's situation with English in secondary school (question 8), aspects of English use if any (question 9 and 10), and whether the cadet knew that English was a subject taught in the Academy when applying, (question 11).

English In Secondary School

Question 8 asked about cadets' enjoyment of English in the secondary school. This could provide some information about attitude or motivation towards English as negative learning experiences in secondary school could carry over into the Academy. Figure 4.3 shows that there was little enjoyment in learning English among cadets at secondary school. Most of the cadets were less than happy, 28% of the sample, indicated that they only *sometimes* enjoyed English classes, and as many as 23% expressed that they never enjoyed English in secondary school.

Figure 4.3 Enjoying English in Secondary School

The indications are that there was little enjoyment in English study during the cadets' secondary school. The chart shows that more than a third, 38%, of cadets never or rarely enjoyed English. This may support the view that negative attitudes had been engendered by poor learning experiences in secondary school.

Knowing English is used in the Academy

Another issue that could influence cadets learning and motivation English was considered in question 9 of the questionnaire. It was assumed that virtually all students would know the subjects taught in the Academy, but this the question was included to confirm if that was actually the case. However, the results were quite different to those expected.

Table 4.6: Knew English is an Academy subject

Yes	66%
No	34%

The Table 4.6 clearly shows that the majority of the cadets knew English was one of the taught subjects in the Academy. 34% of cadets revealed that they did not know about the inclusion of English in the Academy curriculum. There is therefore the potential for a larger than expected group feeling discouraged by finding that the curriculum made them continue with a subject they perhaps wanted to escape.

English Use

Question 10 asked whether cadets had used any kind of general English or not and if so, in what aspects question 11. As it is shown in Table 4.7, 39.5% answered *yes* but a large portion of cadets, 60.5%, indicated that they did not use English. This could be another factor to contribute to the learning of English in the Academy. For example, those who said *yes* might be the ones with a better achievement, or more positive attitude and motivation towards learning English.

Table 4.7: English used

English Used	Percent
YES	39.5
NO	60.5

Question 11 followed on from question 10 to find out more about how the respondents thought they used English. Six possible aspects were listed. The results of the group who answered *yes*, are displayed in Table 4.8. According to the table, it can be seen that English was used for travel and tourism more frequently than for the other purposes. 33.5% and 21.8% of the respondents indicated that they used English more *often* in travel or tourism, forming a cumulative percentage of 54% from the answers.

Table 4.8: Aspects of using English

Aspects	Percentages				
	Always	**Often**	**Sometimes**	**rarely**	**never**
Shopping	21.5%	24.2%	40.9%	11.8%	1.6%
Travel, tourism	33.5%	21.8%	20.2%	9.6%	14.9%
Previous work	18.8%	15.2%	26.2%	17.3%	22.5%
Listening E. media	13.7%	8.2%	31.1%	18%	29%
Reading E. Media	19.1%	22.4%	26.8%	18.6%	13.1%
Socialising with expatriates in SA	6.8%	5.7%	12.5%	8.5%	66.5%

In comparison, using English to socialise with English expatriates in Saudi Arabia was the least frequent use, as two third of the respondents expressed that they never used English for that purpose. This probably reflects the very separate lives led by the expatriates in Saudi Arabia and the desire of the Kingdom as a whole to maintain its cultural integrity while playing host to a large number of expatriate workers.

English Ability

The third part of the background information identifies how cadets view their level of proficiency in English in general and in the four skills. It also examines the criteria against which the students measure their competence, as the factors that help them to develop their skills. First, question 12 asked cadets to specify their current general ability in English according to their own judgment. From Figure 4.4, the smallest groups were in the very poor and excellent categories, with 4.1% and 5.35%, respectively. The large percentages, though closer in their significance, were those cadets who were *moderate* at 27% and *good* at 30.7%. If these judgments were assembled in a straight line, then *excellent* and *very bad* are at both ends of the line, whereas *moderate* and *good* are closer to each other, probably representing the centre of the line.

EXCELLENT 4.1%
VERY BAD 5.3%
VERY GOOD 18.1%
BAD 14.8%
MODERATE 27.0%
GOOD 30.7%

Figure 4.4: self assessment in English

Following their general assessment of English, cadets were also asked to assess their ability in the four skills in English by question 13. This provides an indication of what skill/s cadets think of as being good or bad in English. Table 4.9 illustrates the results from this question.

Table 4.9: cadets' assessment of the four skills.

Skill	Assessment					
	Excellent	Very good	Good	Moderate	Bad	Very bad
Reading	7.8%	26.1%	27.8%	25.5%	9.7%	3.1%
Writing	8.8%	26.1%	27.2%	23%	9.9%	4.9%
Listening	8%	15.4%	24.1%	24.1%	17.7%	10.7%
Speaking	3.1%	15.4%	18.5%	25.5%	21.8%	15.6%

The outcome indicates that reading and writing were judged by the cadets as their better skills, with 26% rating themselves *very good* and 27% *good*. Speaking was the skill in which cadets expressed lowest ability, with 21.8% and 15% rating themselves *bad* or

very bad. Such an assessment can be attributed to an assumption that listening and speaking are less practised, less used or even formally assessed in or outside the Academy.

In order to identify what criteria cadets used in their judgments, question 14 included a list of measures that can be considered as a means of making this assessment. Four criteria were listed: exams and tasks, native speaker feedback, teacher feedback, and communicating in a real situation. From Table 4.10, it can be concluded that exams, teacher's feedback and real situations were more used as measures of performance than native speaker's feedback, which the majority of respondents indicated that they either *rarely*, 22.4%, or *never*, 25.5%, used. This could be because cadets have little contact or communication with native speakers, especially within the Kingdom, similar to the result in Table 4.8 above. In comparison, performance in exams and tasks were the main ways that cadets used to evaluate themselves, with 29.5% and 28.8% *always* and *often* using them as a means of assessment.

Table 4.10: Criteria for Assessment

Criteria Used for assessment	Assessment Scale				
	Always	**Often**	**Sometimes**	**Rarely**	**Never**
Exams and exercises	29.5%	28.8%	27.5%	9%	5.3%
Native feedback	16.6%	15.6%	20%	22.4%	25.5%
Teacher feedback	20.9%	21.3%	32.7%	4.7%	10.4%
Real situation	26.9%	20.4%	26.2%	17.6%	8.9%

In addition, the teacher's feedback is another frequent way of assessing oneself, according to the table. Although the largest group, 32.7%, only *sometimes* used it as a factor, 20.9% and 21.3% respondents expressed that they always or often used teacher feedback as an assessment. Dealing with a real communicative situation appears to be an even stronger way of providing cadets with information enabling them to judge themselves, 26.9% *always* and 20.4% *often* used it to assess performance. This suggests

that cadets in one way or another have been involved in using their English to deal with situations that required it.

Course books and Skills

The background section concludes with two questions, 15 and 16, requesting cadets to note down the course book currently used in their level, and to indicate the extent to which this assisted them in acquiring general English skills.

Figure 4.5 Course Book

Figure 4.5 shows that only two course books were in current use in the Academy, *Command English* and *Practical English*. The former was used by more cadets than the latter; 67% for *Command English* and 33% for *Practical English*. The higher percentage for *Command English* does not result from a greater use *per se* but from the fact that it is prescribed for the second and third years who constituted the large majority of this sample. *Practical English* is used only in the first year.

The interest of this data relates to question 16 in the questionnaire, where cadets were asked what they thought of these course books as being useful in helping them to master English skills. The result, as shown in Figure 4.6 indicates that the majority of cadets had reservations about the assistance of these course books.

Figure 4.6: Textbooks helping

It can be seen from Figure 4.6 that the higher percentages of responses tended towards the negative rather than positive evaluation, with 28% of the cadets considered their current books English to be only *sometimes* helpful; 18% and 29% thought that the textbooks *rarely* or *never* helped. This negative evaluation was for the course books as a whole.

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4.2.1.2 Perception of Needs

Preference of Topics

Question 17 in the questionnaire asked about military needs, but from a more attitudinal perspective. It enquired about whether the cadet's preference for topics included in the course books were military or not. The results, as shown in Figure 4.7, suggest that the majority of cadets preferred topics to be related to military field.

Figure 4.7 Preference for Military Topics

Those who *always* prefer military topics represented 29%. Attitudes towards military content are therefore almost *always* positive.

The Effect of Military Topics

Question 18 explores the influence of military topics on cadets' learning; that is, whether they encourage, discourage or make no difference to learning. Figure 4.8 illustrates that military related topics exert a positive influence. As it can be seen, as many as 32% of cadets specify that military topics *always* encouraged them to learn better, while, 23% expressed that they were *often* encouraged by military topics. In comparison, only 9% and

9.5% revealed that they hence either *rarely* or *never* encouraged by military topics. This pattern of responses is supported by the responses in relation to discouragement.

Figure 4.8 The Effects of military topics

For example, the proportion of cadets who said that the military topics *never* discourage them, is similar to the proportion who reported finding such topics encouraging.

General Military Needs

Question 19 presented cadets with six general military needs in English in order to find how the cadets perceived them. The first three items involve one or more of the four language skills. They were (a) reading weapons and other military equipment instructions; (b) writing to other foreign agencies or officers; and (c) communicating in spoken conversations with other foreign officers. Figure 4.9 provides a comparative view of the language needs as perceived by cadets. It can be seen from the figure that the cadets see communicating and conversing with other foreign officers as the most likely skill needed after graduation.

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Figure 4.9   General Military Needs, Skills

Reading military equipment instructions was less expected to be used than speaking, and even less for writing, making speaking as the most perceived skill required in their military life.

Other useful skills were thought to be in the second part of the same question, 19, included other military needs in which English would be used in. The part consists of three general activities that can be used in the military field; d. continuing to study military topics in English; e. involvement in military training courses in English abroad; and f. using English in international battlefield communications. Figure 4.10 illustrates how often the cadets thought they needed these three activities. The result reveals that one activity was widely recognised by cadets as the most useful after graduation in relation to using English, namely, obtaining a military training course abroad. A large majority, 68%, pointed out that it would *always* be useful from after graduation. Moreover, 15.7% sated that it would *often* be useful, collectively making 84% for *always* and *often*.

Figure 4.10 General Military needs

Involvement in a military training course abroad is a case where 'wants' and 'needs' could combine, creating a powerful motivational effect. Such courses are held out as possible route for academically strong performers. They are desired both because they confer the 'kudos' of foreign study and because they will advance military career. They, therefore, provide an easy rationale for courses with a military content that will support future military study.

Specific Military Needs

Following the general military needs presented in question 21, question 22 introduced as many as twenty-three specific activities in any military field, and asked about which of these activities would require a mastery of English. The list included not only army and battlefield activities, e.g. (a) (b) and (c) (r) (t), but also many others which are apparently part of the Saudi National Guard responsibilities, such as:

(d) Intelligence

(e) Navigation

(f) Map use and interpretation

(h) Tele-communication

(i) Armoured vehicles

(j) Weapons,

as set out by the King Khalid Military Academy Guide Book. National Guard needs are comparatively illustrated in Figure 4.11. The results show that over 50% of cadets perceived all these activities or needs as requiring the use of English *always* or *often*. However, if we distinguish between the responses *always* and *often*, it can be seen that there is more a perceived need for English in some activities than others.

Figure 4.11 Specific Needs: National Guard

For example, intelligence emerges as the field in which more respondents perceived English will be used 45%. Navigation is also another strong area that would *always* demand the use of English, according to 43.3% of the cadets. The third area which is perceived by cadets as important in using English is communication. 37.4% of cadets considered that it

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is *always* important to know English in that activity, and 26.4% indicated that it is *often* important.

However, the activity of using maps and armoured vehicles were perceived to a lesser extent as aspects requiring English. These responses show that cadets were distinguishing which activities would demand using English, regardless of the priority of these activities within the National Guard. This may indicate that English is less associated with learning skills and technologies and more with international communication.

Figure 4.12 displays battlefield activities. It shows that using English in battlefield situations with non-Arabic speaking forces is not as part of a plausible National Guard agenda. In addition, the *sometimes* category constituted a larger amount of these activities. Using weapons received more emphasis as *always* 26.5% or *often* 24% of the cadets indicated that such activity would demand the use English. On the other hand, fire support was the least perceived activity with only 14% and 23% for *always* and *often*. This shows that battlefield activities were perceived as requiring less English.

Figure 4.12 Specific Military Needs: Battlefield

Supply and logistics are not only central military activities but also require their own military units and associated specialisation and trades. In addition, they have an important battlefield role. As Figure 4.13 shows, the *never* category is higher than others, especially in supplying troops. 25% of cadets indicated that activities of supply *sometimes* require English.

Figure 4.13 Specific Needs: Supply

In the cadets' minds, the future need to operate as a multi-national coalition with combined operations control does not seem to loom large.

Repairing and maintaining equipments and instruments is another of the responsibilities that most military personnel perform. The Saudi National Guard as a military sector has been given the repair and maintenance of equipment as mission. Therefore, such activities are included in the questionnaire in order to look for more frequent areas that could require using English according to the cadets' perception.

Figure 4.14 Specific Needs: Repairing

Figure 4.14 illustrates that cadets perceived these technical activities as requiring more English than the battlefield activities above. According to he figure, it is displayed clearly in repairing communication equipments, 31.9% and 25% said it was *always* or *often* needed respectively. Repairing surveillance equipments and armoured vehicles also showed a perception of high frequency of English use among cadets. English was not seen as facilitating weapons repair however, with only 15.4% for *always* and 22.5% for *often* as an activity requiring English.

The last group of activities in the military needs is the action of supervision or reporting. Presumably, these types of work entail communicating and using certain skills such as reading and writing in general and not necessarily in English. Figure 4.15 shows that English is not very much needed, according the result. The high percent is mostly centred on the *sometimes* category, again with no certainty of needing English in these activities. However, there is one activity, as clearly displayed by the figure, that has been perceived as demanding more frequent use of English. It is supervising the coordination of activities with foreign experts. The bar jumps very high to 47% to indicate that it is *always* here that

English is required in such activity, and 20% in *often*. Such studies will also very likely involve meeting and communicating with foreigners, thus using English as a medium of communication, which could explain the higher importance attached to these activities by cadets. Clearly, cadets see their likely contact with English arising from foreign military experts who are there to provide assistance and training.

Figure 4.15 Specific Needs: Supervision and reporting

In conclusion, in their perception of specific and very specific needs cadets have responded differently to different areas of need. They have indicated that there are certain activities or aspects in their future working life that need and require using English more than others. In fact, this could show that they can distinguish in their perception of what needs English and what does not. This could indicate that their perceptions may have some validity.

4.2.1.3 Attitudes and Motivation

The first question asked in this section requires cadets to specify what people or nation they most associate with the use of English. There are three areas to choose from: Britain, America and Autralasia (New Zealand and Australians). This introductory question is not so much to find out about association directly but rather to help me determine which cultural group the respondents have in mind when answering questions about English speakers.

Figure 4.16 English People

The result is shown in Figure 4.16. Noticeably, it reveals that most of the cadets, 62%, considered that the English language is represented by the British. Only 38% think that Americans stand for the English speaking community, and 0% for New Zealand and Australians. This is a surprising and interesting result which suggests that although there is more American influence than British in Saudi Arabia, especially in media, films, and military equipment and cooperation (such as Vinnel Company, an American military company contracted to develop the Saudi National Guard), the British are more linked, according to the cadets, to learning the English language. It may be that a simple equation is made between English and England. Another interpretation is that the UK, for its size, is

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more active in the proportion of English, 'English Language Teaching' in the Kingdom. What can support this possibility is that most of the English textbooks, either in government schools or private English Language schools, and dictionaries have a lot of association with Oxford and Cambridge University Presses

4.2.1.3.1 Attitudes Towards BANA people

The first part of the attitudes asked what cadets think about people speaking the English language as their mother tongue. It is aimed to find out any relation between attitudes, specifically negative, and the ability to use the language in a specific situation, i.e. ESP.

People Positive attitudes

We accounted first for the positive attitudes a person could have towards certain people both in their social as well as working life. Figure 4.17 shows all the positive attitudes included in the questionnaire towards the native speakers of English, BANA, against the scale of agreement *agree* or *disagree*. It can be seen that the most consistent percentage is mainly in the *neutral* category, because it exists almost in all characteristics with 35% to 25%. It is very obvious in characteristics such as light-hearted and hospitable 35% and 33% respectively, to show that most cadets choose to be neutral; indicating either ignorance of the areas concerned, unwillingness to judge or even a sophisticated contempt for generalising the characteristics of a large population in this area.

Figure 4.17 People attitude: positive

However, there are three characteristics in this diagram where the sample shows a clear opinion. First, it is the most significant and obvious positive judgement that the BANA world has scientific knowledge. As the bar for *strongly agree* goes reaching 48% and *agree* with 32%. This reflects that the English-speaking world represented by its people is most known, according to cadets, for their level of scientific knowledge and how this contributes to others. The second area where cadets make their judgement clear is in describing the English people as *broadminded*: 29% said that they *strongly agree* and 38% *agree*. Broadmindedness is possibly related to willingness to accept and implement new ideas, particularly in the area of technology and less to how well they accept other cultures. Less significant but with a positive cline nonetheless, are attitudes to the English people as *sociable*, 18% said the *strongly agree* and 28% expressed that they -*agree*-.

People Negative Attitudes

Dividing attitudes into positive and negative is of course very much an issue of the writer's subjectivity and how we interpret the views of the respondents. According to the result in Figure 4.18, there are three types of answers. Again the proffered answers are generally *neutral*. In characteristics such as *cruel, opportunistic* and *arrogant* there is a tendency towards disagreement. In all these three features; the *neutral* category represent over 30%, both cruel and opportunistic, 34%, and arrogant, 31%.

Figure 4.18 Attitude people: Negative

In the characteristic hard *to deal with* the dominant category is *disagreement* with 37% and 16%. Clearly this is a preconception that respondents hold quite strongly about BANA people and it may be they have found their contacts with them straightforward.

However, features such as *ethnocentric* and *immoral* have resulted in an opposite attitude. 37% of the cadets *strongly agree* that the English people are *ethnocentric* and 26% *agree*. In considering English people as *immoral*, again 37% expressed that they *strongly agree*

and 23% *agree*. The possible justification -especially in the latter- is that cadets, being from a reserved Islamic culture, do not approve of western social life and mores, particularly are lived by English people.

4.2.1.3.2 Attitudes Towards BANA Culture

This section of attitudes in the questionnaire shows a fairly mixed set of opinions and preconceptions about BANA culture. The aim, as mentioned above, is to search for any possible correlation between these attitudes, especially the negative ones, and learning English in this ESP situation, which will be discussed in the correlation section.

Culture Positive Attitudes

To begin with, there are eleven statements that make a positive reference to the culture of the English Language, grouped in Table 4.11. Every statement, as in all the previous ones, is chosen against a scale of whether to agree or disagree. The results show that the answers fall into three categories. These range from negative responses through neutral to positive.

In the first, although 27.5% have chosen to be neutral, 23.8% and 20.6% have indicated they *disagree* and *strongly disagree* respectively with the proposition that family ties are strong in English culture.

Table 4.11 Attitude Culture: positive

Culture Positive Attitude					
Statement	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly disagree
Scientific	36%	36%	16.50%	5%	6.50%
Admirable	12.30%	15.50%	30.80%	23.30%	18.10%
Ideal	22%	24%	27.50%	13.50%	13.10%
Family ties strong	10.60%	16.50%	28.60%	23.80%	20.60%
Economic efficiency	24.60%	32.60%	28.90%	8.90%	5%
Adaptable	11.60%	23.30%	33.80%	15.90%	15.30%
Mix	52.50%	25.20%	10.80%	4.40%	7.10%

The second type of answers refers to those with positive attitudes. The two statements are quite obvious because they are related to the scientific and economic influence of English culture. This is consistent with results of attitudes towards BANA people as a large percentage of cadets considered Them to be scientifically advanced. In this part, 72% of the cadets agree BANA culture is scientific, 36% both *strongly agree* and *agree*. In describing BANA culture as economically efficient, 33% said that they *strongly agree* and 25% said they *agree* that it is.

The clearest grouping lies in the response about having the chance to mix with BANA people. 52.5% and 25% indicated that they either *strongly agree* or *agree*. The desire to mix with the target language people is seen as a positive attitude towards both the people and the culture of that language. It seems that most cadets are not put off by the prospect of encounters with BANA people or visits to their counties by their sometimes negative views on English culture and people.

The third group of answers in the positive statements were centred mainly in the *neutral* category. The *neutral* category was very consistently over 27% in most of responses, the

most distinguished ones were statements such as '*this culture is admirable*' and '*it is adaptable*' at 30.8% and 33.8%. '*This cultural is ideal*' is also another statement that has the majority 27.5% in *neutral*, but it can be seen as more positive because 22% *strongly agreed* and 24% *agreed*.

The profile that emerges is a pragmatic approach to the English-speaking world with a mistrust of some features of the cultures tempered by an admiration for its scientific and technological advancement. Preferring one's own culture is, after all a statement of support for ones' own identity. A mistrust of the mores of another culture will be a consequence of that. But the cadets shared some sophistication and criticizing of some features of English speaking cultures, they still felt eager for contact with them. These results show that even if attitudes to English speaking cultures are sometimes negative, this does not impede an interest in the international exchange of ideas and communications.

Culture Negative Attitudes

The second part in attitudes towards the English culture considered some negative statements that might be possessed by certain people against other cultures. Just as in the previous part, positive attitude, as in Table 4.12, displayed different percentages of each statement.

The first three statements in the table related to the political powerful dominance of a culture, *ethnocentric*, and *look down on others*. The expression of attitudes was clear, especially for the first two. According to the table, 32.6% and 30% of the cadets said that they either *strongly agree* or *agree* that BANA culture is an *ethnocentric*, which can be seen as a negative attitude towards that culture by the cadets. Also, 31% and 27% of them have *strongly agreed* or *agreed* to regard the English culture as *looking down on others*. Again, this is subsequently another negative attitude held by the cadets towards the English culture. The neutral choice is also found noticeably in ethnocentric and looking down on others, 20% and 21%, respectively.

Table 4.12 Attitude Culture: Negative

Statement	Strongly agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly disagree
Ethnocentric	32.60%	30%	20.25%	10.90%	6.20%
Look down on others	30.90%	27.40%	21.40%	11.20%	9.10%
Materialistic	33.80%	29.20%	22.10%	10%	5%
Superficial	30%	22.40%	23.90%	14.20%	9.50%
Economic problems	16.60%	19.40%	33.40%	22%	8.60%
Family ties loose	41.30%	20.90%	19.60%	9.70%	8.60%

The next two negative statements reflect a general view of life in the target culture. They describe it as *materialistic* and *superficial*. In these categories the swing is clearly more to a negative perception. According to cadets, 33.8% *strongly agreed* that BANA lives is *materialistic* and 29% *agreed* as well. Superficiality was also a category that invited strong negative responses.

The following statement asks if cadets consider people in the target culture as suffering from *economic problems*. The responses were not seen as negative ones. They are mainly centred in *neutral* category 33.4%. Only over 16% *strongly agreed* and 19.4% *agreed*. The slight swing, if considered so, is towards *disagree* 22%, but generally it can be seen as a *neutral* response. The assumption is that cadets observe BANA cultures as strong and efficient economically and not having many problems in these areas.

The cadets rank of the negative statement '*family ties loose*' highly. They observe that the social life in the target culture is mostly viewed with a negative attitude. In responding to 'family ties are loose in that target culture', 41% *strongly agree* and 21% *agree*.

4.2.1.3.3 Attitudes Towards the English Language

The third part of the attitude section addresses the attitudes that cadets in King Khalid Military Academy have towards the English language and learning it. This part includes both negative and positive attitudes. It also has statements and questions on the cadets' views and attitudes about their present situation and the future.

General Attitudes

The first part has some general statements and questions on English, learning English and the effect and benefit of learning English. As it can be seen in Figure 4.19, as many as 72% agree positively about the importance of English with 51% in the very positive category. The other attitude towards English, *speaking English gives you the respect of others*, also received positive score with more than 50% of cadets agreeing both that English gains the respect of others and it enhances status.

However, the *importance of English, the respect it gives from others* and the *better status it offers* does not necessarily make it enjoyable learning the language, according to cadets. When asked if studying and learning English is enjoyable, though mainly positive outcome is concluded, less positive parentage than all the other three, 26.7% expressed that they *strongly agree* to that and 24% *agree*. Standing as an overall positive attitude, learning English is less enjoyed by the cadets compared to the strong positive view and attitude they hold of its importance, role and influence. It is presumably attributed to the difficulty that might be encountered while learning it, at least from cadets' point of view.

The only negative statement included, although very clear one, is ' I am not interested in learning English I do not care'. Clearly, as it can be seen from the chart, this statement was disapproved and disagreed by cadets, 48.8% *strongly disagree* and 21.7% *disagree*. Such disagreement of that statement entail to assume that it is a positive attitude, emphasising and even more validating the previous responses of cadets.

Figure 4.19 General Attitudes Towards English

Attitudes related to English in the Academy

This part, within the attitudes towards the English language, examines cadets' attitudes towards learning English within the Academy or after graduation. It includes both negative and positive views related to learning English. It accounts for three issues, *time allocated for teaching English in the Academy, interest or non-interest in learning English after leaving the Academy*, and whether to *learn English in the Academy if it is not obligatory*.

For the first issue, time, there were two statements: *more time should be increased for English* and *allocating time for study*. Results of the first one, as shown Figure 4.20, indicate that there is a positive attitude for assigning more time to teach in the Academy. It is so because 33.5% *strongly agree* to that as well as 18% *agree*. It is assumed as a positive view, because it is justified that when someone asking to allocate more time for teaching a subject then it entails that he or she has more positive motivation and desire to learn that subject.

In comparison, when cadets were asked *allocating time to study and revise*, it can be seen from the chart there is a slight indication that it is seen as a positive one. Although 28%

expressed that they are neutral or undecided about, 24% said they *strongly agree* and 21.6% *agree*. That is indicating another positive answers by cadets.

Figure 4.20 English Attitudes Academy related

The second issue is the need for learning English after the Academy. This issue is addressed in two statements, one positive and the other negative, and as ever with the scale of agreement leading to assume that both statements mean the same but with the different opposite ends of the scale, *strongly agree* and *strongly disagree*. It can be seen from the diagram that both ends of the scale of agreement are with a close height, blue and red bars. To explain more, the first question in this issue, not needing to learn English after leaving the Academy, which intends to be a negative attitude, 49.5% *strongly disagreed* and 20.4% *disagreed*. Thus, such a negative statement is mostly rejected.

In comparison, the positive statement, interest in learning English after the Academy, it has an even more positive response. More than 84% responded positively. Again, this validates

responses to negative attitudes, suggesting that they show a minimum level of interest to be quite strong.

Importance of Learning English

This question states that learning English is important because of three possible reasons. First, it has an immediate objective: *to pass exams in the Academy*. The second and third ones are prospective and work related: *for future job*, and *needed within military*. The fourth states that: *English is not important at all, it is a waste of time*.

Figure 4.21 Attitudes: Importance of Learning English

As it can be seen from Figure 4.21, all these attitudes invited strong levels of agreement. Those who thought it a wasted time constituted a small minority. On the other hand, the importance of learning English for a military discourse community represented a big majority among cadets.

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Factors influencing Learning English

The final part of the attitudes and conclusion of the questionnaire introduces cadets with a list of factors that might exert positive or negative influence on their learning as well as their attitude towards learning the English Language. There are five factors: *teacher, content, interest or non-interest, need and interest in the class activities and teacher presentation.*

Figure 4.22 shows the results of these factors and how they were perceived by cadets. All five factors are of very considerable importance according to the cadets' responses. The one that clearly identifies itself is the 'teacher factor' with 38.6% of cadets in *strongly agreement* and 23.7% *agreement*. More importantly, in relation to our study, is the 'need' and 'interest' factors as 72% and 63% of cadets indicated their agreement respectively. Lesson presentation and the content come as the least influential among these five factors.

Figure 4.22 Factors Influencing Learning English

4.2.2 Correlational analysis

Following the descriptive analysis presented in the first part of this chapter, the data will be now analysed further using a correlational analysis. In this part the null hypotheses will be cross-examined through looking for significance of relationship. The analysis is simply done through the conversion of answers of each variable in the questionnaire into codes. Every value of an answer was given a code in order to be entered and processed by SPSS. The right margin of the questionnaire form was indicated as for the researcher's use only, to enable the researcher to write down the correct code for each completed answer. For example, question number two in the questionnaire enquires about the achieved grade in English of all respondents. The answer to this question is divided into five different ranges of choices. So, the chosen answer, e.g. 90-100, then in the researcher's margin was given number one as the code for this answer. Also, it was entered in SPSS as number one for that case (cadet) in answering that variable (question). On the other hand, question number eight in the questionnaire has a scale-of-five answer, and every scale or value also has been given a code, e.g. "always" is coded as number one, etc. When all answers were input into SPSS, the statistical analysis of SPSS worked out a correlational analysis between each variable of all cases using these codes.

4.2.2.1 Background and Achievement

The background questions in the questionnaire were introduced to look for any relevant information on cadets' background and experience that could be related to their achievement, their perception of specific needs, and their attitudes. The grade variable was used to determine cadets' achievement in English. It is measured widely against different variables in different sections of the questionnaire. This is was because of my interest in this study in how far attitudes to language learning and to the specificity of content were affected by the students' self-esteem as language learners. For example, a negative correlation between language achievement and interest in specific content might frame ESP as an escape from an off-putting approach, whereas a positive one would show that high achieving students were motivated by a clear sense of need, whether correctly or incorrectly framed.

The investigation of relations of background factors has been addressed according to queries about the existence of any relationship. The first query addresses the relationship between achievement (question two in the questionnaire) and students' academic level (question one), age (question three), nationality (question four), the place they come from (question four) and their secondary school (question six). Table 4.13 below indicates that the only significant correlation is between achievement and the year and age of the students. It shows that the more advanced and mature students are, the better grade they are likely to achieve. On the other hand, nationality, city and secondary school have no significant relation to their achievement.

Table 4.13: Correlations between Achievement and Background Factors

Variables	Year	Age	Nationality	City	Secondary
Achievement	0.27**	0.16**	0.04	0.05	0.04

**p <.01

Table 4.14 illustrates whether motives for joining the academy (question seven) are related to cadets' achievement (question two). The only significant correlation with achievement is the family factor. The relationship between achievement and students who joined the Academy because of family encouragement is a significant negative correlation. It shows that the better achievers joined with less family encouragement. Again, this result is not as it was assumed at the beginning, since it had been expected that cadets who joined out of interest or to obtain a better job might be more motivated to achieve better results.

Table 4.14 Correlations between Achievement and Motives for joining the Academy

Variables	Job	Interest	Prestige	Family
Achievement	0.01	0.06	0.04	-0.11*

*p <.05

The relationship between current achievement and enjoying studying English at secondary school (question eight) was significant: r [443] = 0.41, $p < .001$, two-tailed. It indicates that students who enjoyed their study of English in secondary school obtained better marks in the Academy. This tests the first null hypothesis: attitudes towards

learning English based on past experience would not affect learners' current achievement. This result disproves that null hypothesis.

The relationship between achievement and the ability of using English was addressed first by working out the correlation between achievement and using English outside the Academy (question nine). The relationship was significant: r [453] = 0.21, p < .001, two-tailed. Secondly, the relationship between the two variables was examined by working out the correlations between achievement and using English in different aspects of life and the aspects of using English (question ten). Table 4.15 below shows these correlations.

Table 4.15 Correlations between Achievement and using English

Variables	Shopping	Travelling	Socialising	Work	Media L	Media R
Achievement	0.09	0.08	0.02	0.20**	0.21**	0.04

**p <.01

The only significant relationship with achievement is for using English in previous work and using it in listening to the media. Furthermore, when all these aspects are put into a variable and correlated with achievement, the relationship is again significant r [453] = 0.19, p < .05, two-tailed.

Cadets were asked in the questionnaire if they had prior knowledge of the inclusion of English as one of the courses in the Academy (question eleven in the questionnaire). It investigated whether the prior knowledge that the English course is included in the Academy syllabus has any relation to their achievement. It was expected that those who answered (no) would obtain lower marks than those answering (yes). The result indicates that there is a significant correlation between the two variables, r[453] = 0.19, p < .001, two-tailed. It shows that those who knew about the English course in the Academy obtained better grades than those who did not know.

The current achievement of cadets (question two in the questionnaire) was correlated with their own assessment (question twelve). This is done because I was interested in two things: whether current achievement does not show cadets' own assessment, and to

if it is similar then self assessment can be validating current achievement. The result of the analysis indicates that the correlation between these two variables is significant, $r[453] = 0.53$, $p < .01$, two-tailed. It means that the actual marks obtained reflect how cadets rate their level in English or vice-versa.

This self-assessment is extended to more detailed assessment of the four skills (question thirteen). In addition to its first purpose to figure out the most difficult skill for the cadets, in their own assessment, it looks for more reliable and consistent results when assessment of four skills is correlated with achievement, as well as the self-assessment in general English.

Table 4.16: Correlation between Achievement and students' assessment of English skills

Variables	Self-assessment	Reading	Writing	Listening	Speaking
Achievement	0.53**	0.27**	0.26**	0.26**	0.29**
Self-assessment		0.60**	0.50**	0.62**	0.60**

**$p < .01$

Table 4.16 shows that the correlation between achievement and the four skills assessment is significant. It can be said that this indicates consistency in the responses of the cadets, in rating both their general ability in English and their ability in the four skills.

This part of the correlational analysis also investigates whether there is a significant relationship between achievement and the course book (question fifteen), as well as the helpfulness of that course book (question sixteen).

Table 4.17: Achievement and course book help

Variables	Textbook	Textbook help
Achievement	0.21**	0.10*
Textbook help	0.04	

**$p < .01$ *$p < .05$

Table 4.17 illustrates that the correlation between the course book and the achievement is significant. It means that those who are using *Command English* have achieved better grades in English than those who use *Practical English*. On the other hand, the relationship to the perceived helpfulness of the textbook is not significant. This suggests that improving the cadets learning of English by changing the course book was not perceived as relevant to successful learning by the cadets themselves, which contradicts what the staff were aiming for.

The relationship between achievement and the preference of the course to be more military related (question seventeen) was examined. The results revealed, as shown in Table 4.18, that achievement does correlate significantly with the preference of military related topics, which means that cadets' topic preference was significantly related to their achievement. This result tests the eleventh null hypothesis which states that preference of a military content does not correlate with high achievement. As the result of the correlational analysis shows, the null hypothesis is rejected.

Table 4.18: Achievement and preference of military topics

Variables	Military topics preference
Achievement	0.21*

*$p < .05$

The ninth question asks about the relationship between achievement and the possible effect of using military-related topic courses (question eighteen). As Table 4.19 suggests, there is no significant relationship between high achievers, as assessed by the Academy, and the positive effect of military topics. However, the result is explained when the correlation is processed against other possible effects, discouraging and making no difference.

Table 4.19: Achievement and possible effect of military topics

Variables	Military topics: encourage	Military topics: discourage	Military topics: No difference
Achievement	0.09	0.12*	0.15**

**p <.01   *p <.05

As shown by the same table 4.19, the achievement is correlated significantly with the negative or neutral statements: military topics will discourage learners, or do not make a difference. It leads to the assumption that there is a significant correlation between grade achieved and the perceived discouraging effect of military topics. It suggests that those who obtained higher marks are more likely to think that military topics do not discourage them, and vice versa. A further possibility is that the lower achievers may be having wider problems with the curriculum, and that the military content may be adding to their perceived bewilderment. This is again another verification in rejecting the eleventh null hypothesis, mentioned earlier, that favouring a specific content does not relate to high achievement.

The achievement section investigates the relationship between achievement and general military needs, four-skill oriented (question nineteen in the questionnaire). Table 4.20 suggests that there is a significant correlation between achievement and five of the six listed needs of military English.

Table 4.20: Correlation between achievement and General Military Needs.

Variables	Reading Military	Writing Military	Speaking Military	Studying Military	Abroad military coursers	International combat communication
Achievement	0.10*	0.18**	0.12*	0.20**	0.07	0.14**

**p <.01   *p <.05

With the exception of participating in military courses abroad, the relationship between achievement and the need of English in some general military skill-based activities is significant. When all these needs are grouped into one new variable, with the help of SPSS, and measured against achievement, the correlation is again significant r [428] = 0.19, $p < .01$, two-tailed. This could indicate that the high achievers are more likely to

perceive these general military needs as requiring more English than those who obtained low marks.

The relationship between achievement and the perception of specific needs is investigated. The specific needs are represented in the questionnaire in question twenty by listing twenty-three specific military activities, from a-to-w. In order to process the correlation between achievement and these activities, as representing the specific needs, they were grouped as one new variable with the help of the SPSS. Then the relationship of these specific needs, as one variable, with achievement was measured. The result shows that there is a significant correlation between achievement and the perception of the specific needs, r [385] = 0.14, $p <$ .05, two-tailed. Thus, the high achievers have more specific perception of their military needs than the low achievers. This result and the previous one, Table 4.20, tests the fifth null hypothesis which suggests that there is no correlation between high achievement and the interest in ESP. As indicated in both results, the correlation is significant between high achievement and the interest in ESP, as represented by the perception of both specific and general military needs. Therefore, it can be suggested that these two results reject that null hypothesis.

These specific needs were then broken up into sub-needs, as introduced in the section on percentages, in order to look for the relationship between groups of these specific needs achievement. First, achievement was correlated with the specific military activities which are related to the responsibilities of the Saudi National Guard as set out in the *Academy Guidebook*. They are *armoured vehicles, intelligence, navigation, map use, surveillance* and *communication*. As shown in Table 4.21, the only significant correlations with achievement were for *surveillance, armoured vehicles* and *using maps*. The correlation with achievement is also significant when these National Guard activities put into one variable, r [409] = 0.11, $p <$ .05, two-tailed.

Table 4.21: Correlation of achievement and National Guard activities

Variables	Intell.	Navig.	Surveil.	Arm. vehicles	Comm.	Maps
Achiev.	0.003	0.10	0.11*	0.13*	0.10	0.13*

*$p <.05$

The second set of specific needs is more related to the battlefield. They include *parachuting, fire support, combat, using weapons,* and *ammunition.* Significant correlations with achievement, according to Table 4.22, were found only for *combat* and *parachuting.* Also, when these activities were grouped as on variable, the correlation with achievement is significant r [432] = 0.15, p < .01, two-tailed. Its probability level (p<) is stronger than for the National Guard activities.

Table 4.22: **Correlation between achievement and battlefield activities**

Variables	Parach.	Fire sup.	Weapons	Combat	Ammuni.
Achiev.	0.10*	0.09	0.5	0.12*	0.10

*p <.05

The third group of specific needs is the supplying activity, including *supplying weapons, troops* and *sick soldiers.* The correlation of these activities with achievement is not significant. In comparison, the fourth set of specific needs, repairing, is significantly correlated with achievement, r [441] = 0.17, p < .01, two-tailed.

The last group of specific needs includes activities that involve supervising and reporting. In Table 4.23 there are significant correlations between achievement and two activities: *supervising personnel* and *supervising and coordinating with foreigners.*

Table 4.23: **Correlation between achievement and supervision, reporting activities**

Variables	Sup. Persnl.	Sup. weapon	Sup. Foreign.	Records	Reporting
Achiev.	0.11*	0.05	0.16**	0.07	0.04

**p <.01 *p <.05

Thus, from these results of correlating achievement with the perception of specific needs, it can be said that the high achievers have more understanding of which specific needs require use of English.

The relationship between achievement and attitudes towards BANA people, (question twenty one a-l) and culture (question twenty two a-l), grouping each attitudes into one variable. The outcome, as illustrated in Table 4.24, indicates that there is no significant correlation between achievement and attitudes towards BANA people and culture. This means that achievement is not related to the attitudes of learners towards the target language people and culture.

Table 4.24: Correlation of achievement with attitudes towards BANA culture and people.

Variables	Attitudes to culture	Attitudes to people
Achievement	0.05	0.04

This result could support the view that ESP learners are less associated with the main culture, raising the issue of the stronger presence of the sub-culture of the discourse community. It also reflects a support for the interview analysis, 4.1.8, these learners' achievement and learning of the language is not related to their negative or positive attitudes towards BANA people and culture.

This result supports the sixth null hypothesis, which presumes that there is no relationship between positive attitudes towards BANA peoples and culture and high achievement. It also accepts the seventh null hypothesis, which assumes that there is no relationship between negative attitudes towards BANA and achievement.

The picture is even clearer when a relationship between achievement and attitudes towards learning English (questions 23-32) is examined. The result shows that there is a strong significant correlation between achievement and attitudes towards learning the English language, r [443] = 0.27, p < .01, two-tailed. It is a further support to the previous results of attitudes towards the BANA culture and people. As noted above, the relevance of the target culture to these ESP learners has not been influential on their achievement. On the other hand, attitudes towards learning the language itself suggest that they are relevant to the learners' achievement. This is a result that rejects the third null hypothesis. The null hypothesis states that there is no correlation between achievement and attitudes towards learning English.

In addition, the results on both attitudes to culture and people, as in Table 4.24 and attitudes towards learning, test the eighth null hypothesis. It suggests that the learning of specific language content does not divert its learners' negative attitudes from their learning. As seen in both results, there was no significant correlation between cadets' negative or positive attitudes towards BANA peoples and culture and their achievement. On the other hand, there was a significant correlation between attitudes towards learning English and achievement. Thus, it can be said that the null hypothesis was rejected.

The correlational analysis was also examined between achievement and some of the statement under attitudes towards learning English, such as allocating some time for revising English (question twenty six), which can be viewed as an indication of motivation for learning. The result showed a significant correlation between these two variables, r [434] = 0.19, p < .01, two-tailed. It implies that the high achievers had allocated more time than the low achievers. This rejects the thirteenth null hypothesis, that allocating time to study and revise does not relate to high achievement.

A similar result was revealed when the correlation was investigated between achievement and desire to increase the timetable of the English course in the Academy (question twenty three), which is again seen as a positive attitude. The correlation was significant, r [432] = 0.20, p < .01, two-tailed. The suggestion is that the high achievers are in favour of increasing the hours of the English course in the timetable. This result leads to rejection of the twelfth null hypothesis that increasing or decreasing the timetable hours does not correlate with achievement. Therefore, the preference of increasing or decreasing timetable hours does correlate with achievement.

In addresses the relationship between achievement and the importance of learning English (question twenty nine), *to pass exams, use within the military environment* and *for future job.* Table 4.25 points out that the correlation is significant with all variables, however, negative with exams. It suggests high achievers consider learning English to use in their military environment and for future job more important than passing their exams. The importance of exams is significantly correlated with achievement, but it is a negative one, which could mean that high achievers do not agree that their learning of English is for passing exams. More importantly, attitudes towards learning the language for the discourse community are more relevant to ESP learners' achievement than

attitudes towards the BANA people and culture. This clearly rejects the ninth null hypothesis of this study which considers the instrumental motivation of learning ESP would not be working as an integrative motivation for the discourse community.

Table 4.25: Correlation of achievement with the importance of English to cadets

Variables	Exam	In military environment	For future job
Achievement	-0.13**	0.18**	0.16**

**p <.01

The final correlation analysis in this section is between achievement with the influence of five factors (question thirty two), *teacher, content, interest, need* and *lesson and presentation*. The result in Table 4.26 shows that while achievement does not correlate significantly with teacher and content, it does with interest, need and lesson and presentation.

Table 4.26: Correlation between achievement factors influencing learning

Variables	Teacher	Content	Interest	Need	Lesson and presentation
Achiev.	0.05	0.03	0.18**	0.24**	0.17**

**p <.01

This could suggest that the interest of learners in learning, need of the language they are learning, and lessons and presentation are related significantly to their achievement. Interest and need relate to two important factors in ESP learning environment. These are motivation and learners' need. As can be inferred from this result, they do relate significantly to the learners' achievement. Therefore, their importance and influence should not be overlooked.

On the hand, the teacher factor did not correlate significantly with achievement. This would imply that neither high achievers nor low achievers consider the teacher as an influencing factor. It is a demonstration of the fourteenth null hypothesis in this study,

which indicates that learners' satisfaction or dissatisfaction with teachers is not correlated with their achievement.

4.2.2.2 Perception of Specific Needs

This section begins by asking: is there a significant relation between perception of specific needs, represented as one variable (question twenty a-w in the questionnaire) and background factors and experiences? (questions one, three, four, five, and six). Table 4.27 suggests that there is no significant correlation between the perception of specific needs and these background factors.

Table 4.27: Correlation between needs and background factors

Variables	Year	Age	Nationality	City	Sec. Schl
Specific Needs	0.05	0.02	0.06	0.05	0.02

When looking for any significant relationship between perception of specific needs (question twenty a-w in the questionnaire) and motives for joining the Academy (question seven), result indicates that the only significant correlation is with the job-driven reason, r [395] = 0.12, $p <$ .05, two-tailed. This can be explained that those who joined the Academy in order to obtain a better job have more perception of their specific needs.

A correlational analysis was processed between the perception of specific needs (question twenty a-w) and enjoyment of English study in during secondary school (question eight). The result indicates the correlation is significant, r [432] = 0.26, $p <$ .01, two-tailed. The assumption, hence, according to this result, is that learners who enjoyed their English study in the secondary school have more perception of their specific needs. Thus, it rejects the tenth null hypothesis which indicates that favouring a military curriculum does not correlate with achievement.

In addition, in considering the correlation between the perception of specific needs and using English outside the Academy (question nine) the relation between these two variable is significant, r [442] = 0.17, $p <$ .05, two-tailed. It suggests that perception of specific needs is significantly related with the learners who use English. Also, the same

variable of specific needs is correlated with the self-assessment of the general ability in English (question twelve in the questionnaire). The correlation is again a significant one, r [385] = 0.19, p < .01, two-tailed.

The relationship is also investigated between the variables of perception of specific needs (question twenty a-w in the questionnaire) and the preference of topics to be military related (question seventeen). The result indicates a significant correlation between these two variables, r [479] = 0.10, p <. 05. This means that those who prefer their course to be military also have positive attitudes towards their specific needs. The result can be seen as another indication of how positive attitudes towards ESP can work as a positive force in learning it. It further emphasises the rejection of the tenth null hypothesis; that favouring the military curriculum does not correlate with positive attitudes towards learning.

The perception of the specific needs is also correlated with the effect of a military related content as encouraging (question eighteen). The correlation between these two variables is significant, r [414] = 0.29, p < .01, two-tailed. Thus, those who perceived their specific needs more positively are also considering that the effect of the military content as encouraging them to learn. This is another rejection of the fourth null hypothesis; that there is no correlation between the desire to learn and an interest in ESP.

The relationship is processed, as well, between perception of specific needs (question twenty a-w in the questionnaire) and the perception of general military needs (question nineteen), as indicated in the questionnaire, which might involve using one or all four skills. As displayed in Table 4.28, the correlation between the perception of specific needs and the general military four-skill oriented needs is significant with very strong figures and a probability level of .01. It indicates the consistency of perceiving both specific and general military needs among cadets.

Table 4.28: Correlation of perception of specific needs and general four-skill oriented military needs

Variables	Reading Military	Writing Military	Speaking Military	Studying military	Abroad military coursers	International combat communication
Specific Needs	0.34**	0.35**	0.36**	0.44**	0.34**	0.44**

**$p < .01$

The relationship between perception of specific needs and attitudes towards BANA people and culture is examined in two ways. First, the specific needs, (question twenty a-w in the questionnaire) as one variable, is correlated with attitudes towards BANA people (question twenty one a-l) and culture (question twenty two a-p) as two separate variables. Table 4.29 illustrates that the correlation between these variables is significant.

Table 4.29: Correlation between specific needs and attitude towards BANA culture and people

Variables	Attitudes to people	Attitudes to culture
Specific Needs	0.13*	0.19**

$* p < .05$ $** p < .01$

When the attitudes are broken up into different variables, the correlation with specific needs is also still significant especially with positive statements about the technological advancement of the BANA culture, as shown in Table 4.30.

Table 4.30: Correlation between specific needs and attitudes towards BANA culture and people

Variables	People scientific	People broadminded	Culture advanced	Economically efficient
Specific Needs	0.17**	0.24**	0.17**	0.11*

$* p < .05$ $** p < .01$

In investigating the relationship between perception of specific needs and attitudes towards learning English, grouped as one variable (questions twenty three - thirty one), the result shows that the correlation between these two variables is significant, r [385] = 0.38, p < .01, two-tailed. It is consistent with other results which indicate that the perception of specific needs is more related to ESP learners positive attitudes towards learning English. This result is yet another rejection of the tenth null hypothesis which suggests that favouring military curriculum does not correlate with positive attitudes towards learning English.

This result also consistent with examining the relationship between perception of specific needs (question twenty a-w in the questionnaire) and the importance of learning English (question twenty nine), a. *passing exams*, b. *needed in a future job* and c. *required within the military environment*. As illustrated in Table 4.31, there is a significant correlation between the perception of specific needs and using English in the military environment and for a future job, but not to pass exams.

Table 4.31: Correlation between specific needs and attitudes towards English

Variables	Exams	In military environment	Future job
Specific Needs	0.04	0.42**	0.32**

** p <.01

It is a result that rejects the ninth null hypothesis, as mentioned earlier that positive attitudes and motivation of learning an ESP for a discourse community are not be related to an integrative type of motivation towards the sub-culture of the prospective discourse community. The explanation for this is that the correlation between perception of specific needs with attitudes towards learning English and using it for the specific discourse community is significant, represented by these two statements.

The last correlation in this section is between the perception of the specific needs and the factors that might influence learning (question thirty two). As Table 4.32 illustrates, the perception of specific needs is significantly correlated with all the five factors. This could mean that all those who perceived their specific needs regarded these factors as influencing learning. Notably, the need factor stands out as the most significant of all

factors. The result indicates that the positive attitudes towards ESP and its specific content could provide learners with a more evaluative view of factors that are closely related to their learning.

Table 4.32: Correlation between perception of specific needs and factors influencing learning

Variables	Teacher	Content	Interest	Need	Lesson and presentation
Specific needs	0.15**	0.13*	0.22**	0.31**	0.25**

**p <.01

4.2.2.3 Attitudes

The first correlational analysis in this section seeks if there is a significant relationship between attitudes towards BANA people (question twenty one a-l) culture (question twenty one a-p), and learning English (questions twenty three -till- thirty one) with the background information and experiences of learners (questions one, three-six). To work out this relationship, a correlation was processed between these variables. Table 4.33 indicates the only significant correlation is between the studying year in the Academy with attitudes towards BANA culture and learning English.

Table 4.33: Correlation between attitudes with background factors

Variables	Year	Age	Nationality	City	Sec. school
Attitudes culture	0.10*	0.10	0.03	0.05	0.06
Attitudes people	0.03	0.03	0.03	0.07	0.25
Attitudes learning	0.27**	0.04	0.05	0.02	0.01

* p <.05 ** p <.01

The interpretation is that the further learners advance in their study, the more positive attitudes they have towards both the culture of the target language and learning the language itself.

The relationship between attitudes towards BANA people (question twenty one a-l in the questionnaire), culture (question twenty two a-p) and towards learning English (questions twenty three--thirty one) are also correlated with reasons for joining the Academy (question seven). The correlation does not show any significance between any of the three types attitudes and reasons for joining the Academy, according to Table 4.34.

Table 4.34: Correlation between attitudes with reasons for joining the Academy

Variables	Job	Interest	Prestige	Family
Attitudes culture	0.04	0.01	0.08	0.05
Attitudes people	0.03	0.02	0.02	0.03
Attitudes Learning	0.01	0.01	0.08	0.07

The correlation is processed between learners' current attitudes with previous attitude towards learning English, as exemplified in the questionnaire with studying English in the secondary school (question eight). As we can see from table 4.35, there is a significant correlation between attitudes towards learning English in the secondary school with both attitudes towards the BANA culture and current attitudes towards learning English. This implies that current learners attitudes are related to their previous ones. Also, while attitudes towards people are not significantly related, attitudes towards the culture are.

Table 4.35: Correlation between attitudes and attitude towards learning English in secondary school

Variables	Enjoying English in secondary school
Attitudes culture	0.15**
Attitudes people	0.01
Attitudes learning	0.43**

** $p < .01$

A similar result was shown when addressing the relationship between all three types of attitude with using of English outside the Academy (question nine). Table 4.36 indicates that using English is significantly correlated with attitudes towards culture and attitudes towards learning English but not to BANA people.

Table 4.36: Correlation between attitudes and using English

Variables	Using English
Attitudes culture	0.14**
Attitudes people	0.08
Attitudes learning	0.31**

** $p < .01$

It suggests attitudes towards learning English are significantly related to more use of English. In other words, higher users of English could have more positive attitudes than those who less use it. Also, more use of English could give learners more elaborations of their attitudes towards the culture.

Attitudes are also correlated further with aspects of using English, which are listed for respondents to choose from in order to look for the activity of using English that can be correlated significantly correlated with learners' attitudes.

Table 4.37: Correlation between attitudes with aspects of using English

Variables	Shopping	Travel, tourism	Work	Media L	Media R	Converse, socialise
Attitudes culture	0.13	0.16*	0.16*	0.06	0.15	0.05
Attitudes people	0.07	0.03	0.08	0.12	0.08	0.15
Attitudes learning	0.15*	0.21**	0.23**	0.13	0.20**	0.04

** $p < .01$ * $p < .05$

As Table 4.37 illustrates the significant correlation is between attitudes towards BANA culture using English in travel and at work. In comparison, attitudes towards learning

English are significantly correlated with all aspects of use except listening to an English media and conversing and socialising in English. Attitudes towards people do not correlate significantly with any of these aspects.

The correlation between attitudes towards BANA people (question twenty one a-l), culture (question twenty two a-p) and learning English (questions twenty three __ thirty one) is processed with the prior knowledge that the English course was in the Academy syllabus (question eleven). The analysis revealed that there is a significant correlation with attitudes towards learning English, r [482] = 0.19, $p < .01$ two-tailed, but not with attitudes towards culture and people.

The three types of attitudes are correlated with the self-assessment of the general ability in English (question twelve in the questionnaire). The outcome, according to Table 4.38, suggests that there is a significant correlation between attitudes towards learning English and self-assessment of general ability in English. It indicates that learners who have positive attitudes towards and learning English have assessed themselves as having good ability in English.

Table 4.38: Correlation between attitudes with self-assessment of general ability in English

Variables	Self-assessment of English ability
Attitudes culture	0.07
Attitudes people	0.02
Attitudes Learning	0.34**

** $p < .01$

In considering whether a relationship exists between the three types of attitudes, attitudes towards BANA people (question twenty one a-l), culture (question twenty two a-p) and learning English (questions twenty three -- thirty one) and the preference of course book's content to be more military related (question seventeen in the

questionnaire). The result indicates that there is a significant correlation between attitudes towards learning English and preferring course books to be military related, as shown in Table 4.39. The result does not show any significant correlation with attitudes towards BANA people and culture. This is yet another rejection of the tenth null hypothesis mentioned earlier; an interest in favouring military curriculum does not correlate with positive attitudes towards learning English.

Table 4.39: Correlation between attitudes with preference of military related course books

Variables	Preference of course books as military
Attitudes culture	0.01
Attitudes people	0.02
Attitudes learning	0.13**

$**\ p < .01$

Thus, it can be said that those who have positive attitudes towards learning English prefer their course books to be more related to the military life. This supports some of the arguments that ESP learners are motivated to learn English. This positive motivation can be based on perception of their specific environment and its learning requirements, of which course books are one of these requirements.

This result is more consistent with the following one, which investigates the relationship between the three types of attitudes and the possible effect of a military related content, (question eighteen). The result, as illustrated in Table 4.40, signals that there is a significant correlation between attitudes towards learning English and the encouragement of a military content course books.

Table 4.40: Correlation between attitudes towards BANA culture, people and learning English with a military related content

Variables	Military related content, encourage
Attitudes culture	0.10
Attitudes people	0.03
Attitudes Learning	0.25**

** $p < .01$

As with the previous one, *preference of content to be military related* in table 4.39, this significant correlation indicates the positive view of ESP learners as well as the possible positive effect on learning of its environment, another rejection of the tenth null hypothesis.

The correlation is also processed between attitudes themselves, attitudes towards BANA people (question twenty one a-l), culture (question twenty two a-p) and learning English (questions twenty three -- thirty one). This correlation aims to look for the difference of relations between attitudes to see if they relate together. Table 4.41 shows that attitude towards culture is correlated significantly with the other types of attitudes, towards people and learning the language. The only non-significant correlation is between attitudes towards people with attitudes towards learning English. It suggests that the positive attitudes towards culture and learning the language are significantly related.

Table 4.41: Correlation between attitudes

Variables	Attitude culture	Attitude people	Attitude learning
Attitude culture		0.44**	0.28**
Attitude people	0.42**		0.09
Attitude learning	0.28**	0.09	

** $p < .01$

This indicates that those who have positive attitudes towards learning also have positive attitudes towards the culture. In comparison, negative or positive attitudes towards the people are not related to the attitudes towards learning the language, but significantly related to attitudes towards culture. The possible explanation is that cadets have consistent attitudes towards both culture and people. In comparison, attitudes towards learning the language seem to differ, especially when correlated with attitudes towards people.

Another important correlation is also made between the three types of attitudes, towards BANA people (question twenty one a-l), culture (question twenty two a-p) and learning English (questions twenty three -- thirty one, excluding question twenty nine) and the importance of learning English (question twenty nine), *to pass the exams, use within a military environment*, and *for future job*. As we can see from Table 4.42, learning English to pass exams does not correlate significantly with any of the attitudes. In comparison, the correlation is significant between attitudes towards culture and learning English with the future importance of using English within the military environment occupations. The correlation with learning English is stronger than attitudes towards culture. Attitudes towards people do not significantly correlate with this variable. On the other hand, learning English to talk to others is correlated significantly with all attitudes.

Table 4.42: Correlation between attitudes with the importance using of English in future

Variables	Exams	Military environment	Future job
Attitude culture	0.09	0.18**	0.12*
Attitude people	0.06	0.04	0.10*
Attitude learning	0.02	0.65**	0.56**

*$p < .05$ **$p < .01$

This could imply the strong influence of the discourse community and its importance in learning the language on ESP learners and their future view of using the language within their sub-culture. This is compared to an immediate importance of learning English, to pass exams. The result rejects the ninth null hypothesis in the study, which states that positive attitudes motivation of learning ESP for a discourse community do not work as an integrative type of motivation of that community.

The relationship between attitudes towards learning (questions twenty three -- thirty one, excluding question twenty six) and allocating time to revise English (question twenty six) is investigated. The correlation was significant, r [465] = 0.51, p < .01, two-tailed. This could mean that learners who have positive attitudes towards learning English have allocated more time to study and revise their course. It is a result that rejects the thirteenth null hypothesis that allocating more time to revision is not related to positive attitudes towards learning and achievement.

The relationship between attitudes to ESP, special content, and not needing English in the future was examined. It related to the second null hypothesis that there will not be negative attitudes towards ESP and special content if there is no clear idea among learners of their special needs. To achieve this, a correlation was calculated between the variables: *not needing English in the future* (question twenty seven) and *the preference of military content* (question seventeen in the questionnaire). The result indicates that there was no significant correlation between these two variables, r [465] = 0.04, *ns* = not significant. The assumption then is that there was no significant correlation between learners who think negatively about ESP and those who consider English is not needed in their future. Therefore, this underpins that null hypothesis.

The last investigation in this correlational analysis considers the relation between attitudes, towards BANA people (question twenty one a-l), culture (question twenty two a-p) and learning English (questions twenty three -- thirty one) and factors that are related to the learning process and might influence learning (question thirty two in the questionnaire), *teacher, content, interest, need, and lesson and presentation*. The result, as illustrated in Table 4.43, shows that there is a significant correlation between attitudes towards culture and learning the language with all of these factors. Again,

attitudes towards people were the least to correlate, because it was only correlated with two factors: teacher and need.

Table 4.43: Correlation of attitudes and factors influencing learning

Variables	Teacher	Content	Interest	Need	Lesson, presentation
Attitudes culture	0.16**	0.15*	0.20**	0.23**	0.22**
Attitudes people	0.12*	0.04	0.08	0.10*	0.08
Attitudes Learning	0.21**	0.21**	0.39**	0.44**	0.40**

**p <.01   **p <.01

This result suggests that positive attitudes, especially towards culture and learning, are significantly related to the perception that these factors have strong influence on learning the language. Interest, need and lesson presentation can be singled out as more obvious relevance to attitude, and in particular, attitudes towards learning. The need and interest factors could be linked to ESP learners' needs and motivation respectively.

4.3 Summary of the Findings

The first section of the questionnaire was to investigate some background information related to the cadets' learning. The first issue found was the distribution of the cadets' marks. Although a large portion of the cadets was either in excellent 22% or very good 22.5% grades, another proportion was in low achieved marks (25% pass and 15% fail).

The outcomes of some of the background information were that the majority of the cadets were coming from cities and their motives for joining the Academy were to find better jobs and become officers. However, these motives did not correlate significantly to their learning or achievement. One variable related to the cadets' learning English was their use of English. According to the results of the questionnaire those who had used English before were more likely to obtain good marks in English. This result emphasises the importance of use and practice as way of improving learning.

The response to enjoying English in secondary school, in the background information, was found to be related to other responses. For example, it correlated significantly to: the achieved mark, using English, positively perceiving the specific content, enjoying studying English in the Academy and observing English as an important language. This could indicate that a positive attitude towards learning is more likely to be continuing. In comparison to the interview findings this was a similar outcome. As it is indicated in the interview results, most of respondents carried on the same positive attitude towards learning English from their secondary school into their situation in the Academy and explained they would have the same in the future.

The issue of changes of attitudes is largely investigated within the field of educational psychology. However, discussing or aiming for a change in attitudes was not within the purposes of this study. Nevertheless, the change of attitudes is seen at minimum level according to some of the results of this study. The cadets who had their attitudes changed either positively or negatively were 12% from positive to negative and the same percentage from negative to positive. The explanation for such change of attitudes from negative to positive were the possible realisation of the importance of English and the awareness of its significant in modern life. However, the assumption for the opposite change of attitudes, from positive to negative, were more specific ones. The

respondents in the interview pointed out that the textbook's method presentation, its emphasis on memorisation over comprehension and poor variety of approaches were to be blamed for their less positive or even negative attitudes towards learning English in the Academy. This leads us to make the textbook as a standout issue in attitude towards learning and even change of attitude, and emphasises the importance of textbook design and of considering learning needs especially in a situation such as an ESP learning environment.

Another response, which was related to the cadets' achievement, was the prior knowledge that English was a taught subject in the Academy. Of the sample, 34% indicated that they did not know of that inclusion. When it was correlated to the marks achieved, there was a significant and positive correlation. Thus, there could be a negative attitude towards learning English at work, which influenced negatively these respondents' achievement.

According to the results, the cadets' achieved marks in English were very closely consistent with their own rating of their ability in the English language. Also, respondents considered the skills of speaking and listening as their weakest ones as shown in Table 4.9. The help that textbooks were offering these cadets in general skills of English was not very great according to Figure 4.6. A large minority of the cadets, 29%, think that the textbook never helped them in English skills.

One of the main points that the questionnaire contributed is cadets' attitudes towards a specific content and what effect a military content could have on their learning. These two issues are one of the main discussion points in this study. For the first response, a large portion of the cadets, 29% *always* and 24% *often* as illustrated in Figure 4.7, prefer topics in their English language course to be military related. In addition to that, cadets regard a more military related course to provide a greater incentive to learn, 32% said *always* and 23% said *often* as in Figure 4.8. The results of the interview also indicated very similar outcomes. One of the explanations is that specific environment impels them to perceive positively the special learning requirements of that situation, such as the special content.

Two general English skills were observed by the cadets as being more likely to be used in the military than others, speaking and reading, as in Figure 4.9. In comparing this result to the one in Table.4.9, it can be said that the cadets in the Academy considered speaking and listening as their weakest ones. At the same time, it indicated speaking is largely required within the military field, taking into consideration that there is no official assessment of speaking and listening in the English course in the Academy.

Figure 4.10 illustrated a result of how cadets perceived some general military responsibilities that need English. The outstanding one, as reviewed in this chapter, was the overseas military training courses: 68% indicated there *always* will be a need to use English. This would address the issue of needs and wants within the ESP learners' perceptions. The possibility of sending trainees abroad is limited to a few and those who obtained high marks after graduation from the Academy and completed successfully an English course in the National Guard Language Institution. The justification might be attributed to the desire and want to get that opportunity because it can assist in promoting an officer or providing him with a better position. Sometimes the presence of 'wants' can be stronger and probably a need in disguise.

In perceiving specific needs, cadets singled out certain military activities to be more likely to involve English than others, and cadets regard military activities that entail foreign communications either home or abroad or technical duties as potentially using English, as illustrated in Figures 4.11 and 4.12. These activities varied from military telecommunication and technology to intelligence and using weapons in battlefields. The significant outcome indicated that the cadets had been selective in deciding what the activities that require using English are. Therefore, it would explain the cadets were making their judgment according to their experiences and relevance to their world within the National Guard. Having said that, it is still a perception and an observation by the cadets on their possible specific needs that in away or another require using English. There were similar specific needs the interviewees suggested and they also agreed some of the specific activities listed in the questionnaire were related to their future job and entail using English. Although the current cadets were the source of the perspective needs in our results, the outcome was consistent with some of the future responsibilities of the graduates of the Academy according to the *Guidebook of KKMA*.

However, the question could be how much English will be used in such future jobs and in what domains: specific, very specific, or just general English.

The attitudes section shows that both attitudes towards the English people and the English culture are mainly positive in relation to the scientific, technological and advanced side, as it was shown in Figure 4.17; whereas they are negative in relation to lifestyles and social ties, as in Figure 4.18. On the other hand, attitudes towards the English language itself are mostly positive, its current importance, international current role or even future importance. As noted in the results section, it could be explained that the presence of the sub-culture is more influential than the target culture.

Cadets also considered the English language positively to be more useful for them at present or for future job. In Fig.4.23 there are signs of a positive motivation. From the list of importance for learning English, three reasons have been distinguished by the cadets: *future job*; using within a military environment and *exams*. In every one of these factors, over 50% of the respondents *strongly agreed* that English is very important in these aspects. While passing exams is a very obvious current instrumental motivation for learning English, using it in the future job and within a military environment adds to the suggestion that integrative motivation of a discourse community culture can be found among ESP learners. These variables of discourse community motivations also correlated significantly with the variable of the marks achieved, suggesting that higher achievers responses are related to their statement that they strongly agree on the importance of English to future jobs or use in a military environment.

According to their response in percentage, cadets regarded factors of needs, interest, teacher, content and lesson presentation would affect their learning in English, see Figure 4.22. The highest one was the 'need', because 36% of the cadets indicated that its *always* or *often* considering the need of the learners in learning English would be an influencing factor on their learning. Both the teachers and the learners' interest in the course also strong influencing factors. What can be noted here and will be referred to later, are two issues: need and interest, and teacher. The first one is dealing with needs, interests and desires of the learners. In the previous discussion of needs in chapter two, needs and interests can address the same thing or could lead to the same outcome. However, desires would be more related to what to motivate a learner more than what

are his or her best interest or needed bit of the language. The second issue is the teacher as an influencing factor. This is addressing the issue of ESP practitioner. There is an ongoing argument among ESP researchers on what the roles of the ESP teachers or practitioners are and whether they have to be specialised as well, or just normal, general teachers, e.g. Hutchinson and Waters (1987) and Robinson (1991). The results of our data have indicated a little swing towards the preference of a specialised practitioner. In the questionnaire it was indicated its importance, whereas in the interview, while expressing the importance of the teachers, some interviewees suggested that officers should be their English teachers because they know better some technical aspects that the normal teachers do not.

The attitudes were subject to a more complicated statistical manipulation with the purpose of investigating a further possible relationship with other variables, especially achievement, which is represented in the questionnaire by the marks obtained in the English language course in the Academy. Grades were found to be correlated with all statements of attitudes towards people, culture and the English language itself. The findings suggest that the influence of positive or negative attitude is more apparent in the attitudes towards learning the language. That is to say, the marks of those who have positive or negative attitudes towards the English people or culture are positive or negative according to the correlation analysis. In comparison, the influence or the relationship is obvious when correlating the marks obtained and the attitudes towards learning the language. In other words, those who have a positive attitude towards learning English are more likely to obtain higher marks, and vice-versa.

4.4 Conclusion

This chapter analysed the collected data of both research methods, interviews and questionnaire. The interviews were analysed accordingly in a qualitative way, and the questionnaire was analysed in two different ways, percentages and correlational analysis. The interview analysis was used to project hypotheses of the study. In turn, these hypotheses were neutralised as null hypotheses in order to reject them based on the correlational analysis. This conclusion restates these null hypotheses and their rejection or non-rejection based on the results. This discussion will carry the results to the final chapter, chapter five, to a further discussion of the outcomes in both the small and large frames of ESP and ESP specific discourse communities.

4.4.1 Null Hypotheses and Hypotheses

The first null hypothesis states that: **Attitudes towards learning English of past experience will not affect learners' current performance.** The testing of this null hypothesis is achieved, as reported in 4.2.2.1, by calculating a correlation between cadets' current achievement in English and their past experience in studying English in their secondary school. As shown in the correlational analysis section, the correlation is significant between these two variables. Therefore, the first null hypothesis is rejected. Thus, the result suggests that the past experience in learning English is related to learners' current performance.

The second null hypothesis suggests that: **Learners will not have negative attitudes towards the special content of the course, if there is no clear idea of what their real working needs are.** The testing of this null hypothesis is reached by working out a correlation between the two variables of: *not needing English in the future*, and *the preference of military content*. The result showed that there was no significant correlation between these variables. This means that the second null hypothesis is not rejected. The suggestion then, is that ESP learners, even though there was no clear idea of their needs in English in the future, their attitudes towards special content, in this case, is neutral.

The third null hypothesis indicates that: **there is no correlation between high achievement and positive attitudes towards future learning.** The testing of this null hypothesis is achieved, as mentioned in 4.2.2.1, by calculating a correlation between achievement and attitudes towards learning the English Language. The correlation was significant between these two variables. Thus, the third null hypothesis is rejected. The assumption, then, is that the positive attitudes towards learning English are significantly related to learners' current achievement in English.

The fourth null hypothesis mentioned in this study states that: **There is no relationship between the desire to learn, positive attitudes towards learning, and an interest in ESP.** The answer to this null hypothesis is accomplished by operating a correlation analysis between the variables of perceptions of specific needs and the effect of a military content. The outcome of that correlation, as displayed in 4.2.2.2, is significant. It rejects the fourth null hypothesis. This means that the positive attitudes towards learning and the interest in ESP are related.

The fifth null hypothesis suggests that: **There is no correlation between high achievement and the interest to learn ESP.** Testing of this null hypothesis is done by simply calculating a correlation between achievement and the perceptions of specific needs. According to the results, mentioned in 4.2.2.1, there was a significant correlation between these two variables. Thus, the null hypothesis is rejected. The presumption is that the higher achievers in English are more interested in learning through ESP.

The sixth null in this study indicates that: **There is no relationship between positive attitudes towards BANA and high achievement.** The testing of this null hypothesis is reached by making a correlation between achievement and both attitudes towards BANA people and culture, as illustrated in table 4.24. The analysis suggests that there was no significant correlation between achievement and these variables, which means that the sixth null hypothesis cannot be rejected. Then, it can be assumed that achievement in English of ESP learners is not related to their positive attitudes towards BANA people and culture.

The seventh null hypothesis, similar to the previous one, accounts for the negative attitudes relation to achievement. It states: **There is no correlation between negative**

attitudes towards BANA and achievement. The previous mentioned result, table 4.24, addresses the same outcome for testing the seventh null hypothesis. As shown by the table, there was no significant correlation between achievement and attitudes towards BANA people and culture, and the seventh null hypothesis is cannot be rejected.

The eighth null hypothesis states that: **The learning of specific language content does not distract its learners' negative attitudes of BANA from their learning.** To test this null hypothesis, two results have been looked at. The first one is table 4.24, which indicates that there is no significant correlation between achievement and attitudes towards BANA people and culture. The second one is the significant correlation between achievement and attitudes towards learning English. Therefore, the null hypothesis is rejected. Then, it can be suggested that learning of specific content diverts its learners from negative attitudes towards BANA people and culture.

The ninth null hypothesis assumes that: **Positive attitudes and motivation of learning special content-based learning do not work as an integrative motivation of ESP discourse community.** The rejection this null hypothesis is seen through different results in the correlational analysis. Three variables were correlated with achievement, specific needs and attitudes. These three variables are under the importance of learning English: *to pass exams*, *in a military environment* and *for future job*. Table 4.25 illustrates that the correlation between achievement and these three variables is significant. The same result shows that the correlation is negatively correlated with passing *exams*, while positively correlated with the other two variables. This suggests, as mentioned previously, that high achievers do not agree that the importance of learning English is for passing exams. Also, achievement in learning English for specific purposes is connected with the importance of using it in a military environment or future jobs.

Similar results were reached when correlating these three variables with the perceptions of specific needs and attitudes. Tables 4.31 and 4.42, in sections 4.2.2.2 and 4.2.2.3, reveal that variables of: *in a military environment* and *for future job*, correlate significantly with the perceptions of specific needs and attitudes towards learning. On the other hand, the variable of to *pass exams*, does not have any significant correlation with specific needs or attitudes. Thus, according to these results it can be said that the

ninth null hypothesis is rejected. This leads to suggest that positive attitudes and motivation of learning special content-based learning could work as integrative motivation in an ESP discourse community.

The tenth null hypothesis, which suggests that: **favouring a military curriculum does not correlate with positive attitudes towards learning English**, is also examined in various results. Two results are in section 4.2.2.2 perceptions of specific needs, and another two in 4.2.2.3 attitudes. First, the perception of specific needs is correlated significantly with preference of military topics. The second result is the significant correlation between perceptions of specific needs and attitudes towards learning English. The other two results are displayed in tables 4.39 and 4.40, in section 4.2.2.3. Table 4.39 shows that *preference of course books as military* is correlated significantly only with attitudes towards learning English but not with attitudes towards BANA. Similarly, table 4.40 suggests that the only significant correlation is between attitudes towards learning and considering military related content as encouraging. All these results imply a rejection of the tenth null hypothesis. This means that favouring a military curriculum is related to positive attitude towards learning.

The eleventh null hypothesis states that: **Preference for a military content does not correlate with high achievement.** This null hypothesis is investigated through two results, table 4.18 and 4.19. Both results correlate achievement with variables of *preference of military topics* , in table 4.18, and *military topics encourage, discourage, make no difference*, table 4.19. From these results achievement is correlated significantly with preference of military topics and military topics being not discouraging or not making a difference. Therefore, it can be said that the null hypothesis is rejected. That leads us to suggest that preferring a military content syllabus is connected with better achievement among learners within an ESP environment.

The twelfth null hypothesis considers that: **Preference for increasing or decreasing timetable for the course does not correlate with achievement.** According to the results, which correlated the variables of: *achievement* with *increasing the timetable of the English course in the Academy*, mentioned in 4.2.2.1, there was no significant

correlation between these two variables. Thus, the twelfth null hypothesis is not rejected.

The thirteenth null hypothesis explains that: **Allocating time to study and revision does not relate to positive attitudes towards learning and high achievement.** The hypothesis is again examined by correlating two variables of *achievement* and *allocating some time for revising English*. The result of the correlation, reviewed in 4.2.2.1, indicates that there is a significant correlation between these two variables. It suggests that the null hypothesis is rejected. The assumption is that there is a relationship between high achievement in English and allocating more time to revise and study.

The final null hypothesis is the fourteenth. It states that: **Learners' satisfaction with teachers does not relate to their achievement.** This null hypothesis is tested by the correlation of achievement with factors influencing learning: *teacher, content, interest, need,* and *lesson presentation.* As shown in table 4.26, there was no significant correlation between achievement and teacher. This result does not reject the null hypothesis. It means that there is no relationship between achievement of ESP learners and their views of teachers.

To conclude, this chapter reviewed the results of the collected data of both methods. Also, it restated and tested the null hypotheses of the study. These results and null hypotheses examination will be carried on into the following chapter, chapter five, to discuss the related results within the research questions of the study. The discussion will be highlighted within ESP in a larger and a smaller scale.

Chapter Five

Discussion and Conclusion

The final chapter to this study is split into two parts: discussion and conclusion. In the discussion, first the research questions are considered and how they are answered. Then, I summarise the findings of the results and give further points of discussion. In the conclusion, I look at the study as a whole, taking into account the results' relevance to the larger field of ESP, and offer recommendations for improving the learning English in a particular environment –in this case a military one- and give suggestions for further study.

5.1 Discussion

Having restated the null hypotheses of our study and the results at the end of the previous chapter, chapter four, the first part of the discussion reviews the research questions of the study and how the results of the data relate to answering these questions.

5.1.1 Research Questions

5.1.1.1 Research Question One

The first research question of the study is: **Do ESP learners have a positive understanding and perception of the military discourse community and its specific needs?** The answer to this question is found in cross-examining the results of the interviews and both questionnaire analyses. First, from the interview analysis in sections 4.1.5.2, 4.1.5.3, 4.1.6, and 4.1.8, the findings suggest that learners in KKMA have positive views of the benefits and usefulness of acquiring English within their future military working lives. The analysis also indicated that the specific situation itself has raised some awareness of the importance of English, especially within the military field.

Secondly, in the first part of the questionnaire analysis, percentages, there are results which illustrate different frequencies of variables in the perception of specific needs. For example, as displayed in figure 4.7, the large majority of cadets prefer their courses to have military-related content. Also, in figure 4.8, most of the cadets considered that military content would encourage them to learn. Furthermore, percentages of specific needs suggest that cadets are able to distinguish certain specific military activities from others in relation to the requirement of English, as contrasted in figures 4.11 and 4.13. In the second part of the questionnaire analysis, correlations, there are also results which answer the first research question. Tables 4.18 and 4.19 correlate achievement with preference of military topics and the possible effects of using military content syllabus on KKMA learners. As shown by these results, the correlation is significant. This is more evidence that these learners do have positive understanding and perception of their military discourse community and its specific needs.

5.1.1.2 Research Question Two

The second research question asks: **Do achievement and perception of needs of learners relate to attitudes towards BANA people, culture and towards learning the English language?** This research question is of two parts, relevance of achievement to attitudes, and relevance of specific needs perception to attitudes. The interview analysis, though qualitative, implies that there was a relationship between positive or negative attitudes towards BANA people and culture with the achieved marks in English, as reviewed in section 4.1.6. On the other hand, attitudes towards learning the English language are related to cadets' achievement, especially low achievement with negative attitudes towards learning, for example section 4.1.5.3.

The answer to this question is even more obvious when examining the correlational analysis. Statistically, the correlational analysis, in section 4.2.2.1, indicates that there is no significant relationship between achievement of ESP learners in this study and their positive or negative attitudes towards BANA people and culture, as in table 4.24. In comparison, the correlation is significant between achievement and attitudes towards learning, as mentioned in section 4.2.2.1. This result is consistent with the interview

qualitative analysis which suggests that attitudes of learners towards BANA vs. learning in relation to their achievement play different roles.

The second part of the question, relevance of attitudes to the perception of specific needs, is answered mainly through the correlational analysis. The correlation between attitudes towards BANA people and culture and the perception of specific needs is significant, as in table 4.29. There is an even a stronger significant correlation between the perception of specific needs and attitudes towards learning, as mentioned in section 4.2.2.2. Thus, the assumption is that the perception of specific needs of ESP learners is related to their attitudes, and in particular to attitudes towards learning the English language.

5.1.1.3 Research Question Three

This research question is an extension of the previous one, research question two. The third research question enquires: **Does the perception of the prospective ESP discourse community's specific needs engender better learners and achievers of ESP language learning?** In simple words, do high achievers perceive and understand their specific needs more that low achievers? The first answer to this research question is found in the interview analysis. As reviewed in sections 4.1.6 and 4.1.8, the more positive views of learning specific English for a military environment are expressed largely by those who have good or very good achieved marks in English. Then in the correlational analysis a correlation is calculated between the perception of the specific needs and achievement. The result of this correlation is significant, as mentioned previously in section 4.2.2.1, r [385] = 0.14, $p < .05$, two-tailed. This could suggest that the interest and positive perception and understanding of an ESP discourse community and its specific needs has relevance to better achievement and learning the language.

5.1.1.4 Research question Four

Research question four of this study asks: **Does the positive perception of using English within the discourse community result in an integrative type of motivation in the process of learning, and have learners willingness to be integrated with the**

sub-culture discourse community? The interview analysis again revealed part of the answer to this research question, section 4.1.8. The analysis indicated that respondents have the willingness to learn for the purpose of their military-oriented life in the future. For example, as mentioned earlier, one respondent said, "...More specialised English would offer more encouragement to learn and practise useful terms within our military environment; for example, issuing orders, using weapons and training procedures, and what was learnt would endure longer because it was relevant future life." This is an example of one subject's motivation to learn to integrate in the future specialised job.

On the other hand, the questionnaire correlational analysis suggests that such integration into the future working life is found. In both sections 4.2.2.1 and 4.2.2.2, as illustrated by tables 4.25 and 4.31, the *achievement* and *perception of specific needs* correlate significantly with the variables of the importance of learning English *for a future job* and *to be required within the military environment*, but not with learning English *to pass exams*. Therefore, as suggested earlier, this is an indication of a possible stronger presence of motivation of learning to integrate into the ESP discourse community.

5.1.2 Points of Discussion

Following the review of the results in chapter four, the data will be further discussed in relation to the research questions and the hypotheses of this research. Then they will be compared to other studies' findings, and their significance within the field of ESP will be considered. The discussion is undertaken in eight points according to the relevance of research questions and hypotheses.

5.1.2.1 Relevance of Background and Experiences to Learners' Achievement, Needs and Attitudes

Some of the previous learning experiences and background information could be influential and relevant to learners' current situation in their perception of specific needs, attitudes and achievement. The results relating to these issues is divided into different parts. The first one is the relevance of background to achievement. The outcome was obtained through the correlational analysis of the background items with achievement. The results in chapter four, table 4.13, indicates that the factors of year in the Academy and age have correlated significantly with achievement, but not nationality, city or secondary schools. This result suggests that the more advanced -both in their academic year and their age- the learners are, the most likely they will be better achievers in their learning. This is consistent with the assumption that ESP is an adult-related learning.

However, the other part of the results is in some way different from my expectations. It was expected in this research that the cadets from cities would achieve better grades in English because of their inevitable contact with foreigners and the use of English. The results did not support that, and there was no significant correlation between the place and the achievement. This outcome can be interpreted in the light of results from other questionnaire items. The responses, in Table 4.6, to question 9 in the questionnaire, *did you use*, indicated that over 60% did not use English. Also, when asked about aspects of use, question 10, the majority of responses indicated that they used it for travel and tourism. Thus, according to our survey, the factor of the city was not related to the cadets' achievement.

In investigating the relevance of the background factors to the perception of specific needs, the results, in Table 4.27, revealed that there was no significant correlation with any of these factors. It can be explained that the perception of needs is a prospective view of learners and there is a possibility that they disassociated such background information from their perception of needs. Therefore, the relevance of these background factors to the perception of needs is not influential.

In comparison, when these factors were correlated with attitudes towards BANA and learning the language, Table 4.33, there were few significant correlations. The attitudes towards people did not correlate with any of these background factors. On the other hand, attitudes towards culture and learning did correlate with the academic year the that cadets were in. This could mean, again, that the advancement in learning has some positive relevance to learners' positive attitudes towards culture and learning the language.

However, when there was a previous learning experience, (liking and enjoying English in the secondary school), which could indicate attitude towards learning, there were more significant relationships. For example, in correlating this statement with achievement the result was a clear significant correlation, r [443] = 0.41, $p < .001$, two-tailed, as mentioned in the results. There was also a correlation with the perception of specific needs, r [432] = 0.26, $p<.01$, two-tailed. The correlation was also significant with attitudes towards culture and learning, but not towards people, as displayed in Table 4.35.

These results suggest that the advancing phases of learners, in years, is related to their achievement and attitudes. Also, previous learning experiences have some relevance to learners' achievement, perception of needs, and attitudes towards culture and learning. This indicates the strength of attitudes of previous learning experiences -good or bad- on learners, more than geographical differences.

5.1.2.2 Preference for Specific Content

The percentages from the questionnaire were used to reveal part of the result in relation to this the preference of a specific military content. Question 17 of the questionnaire addressed this issue by asking: *do you prefer the content to be related to your military field?* Figure 4.7 illustrates that a vast majority of cadets preferred their content to be more related to their specific military field. This is also supported by the interview results, where a slight majority of respondents preferred their content to be more related to their military situation and environment. This finding is consistent with previous research results, such as Al-Gorashi (1988), Khuwaileh (1992), and Al-Otaibi (1994).

The assumption then, according my results, is that ESP learners, as exemplified by these cadets, have positive views or attitudes towards a specialised content. The explanation of these results could be attributed to the assumption that ESP learners may be driven by the demands of their learning situation and preparation for their prospective ESP environment.

5.1.2.3 Effect of Content Specificity

This issue was tackled in both methods of investigation, questionnaire and interview. Although it is a hypothetical one, the questionnaire asks: *what is the effect of the specificity of content: encourage, discourage, makes no difference?* In terms of percentages, there was a considerable agreement --50% of the sample-- that the effect of specialised content is positive and encourages learning, as illustrated in Figure 4.8. This view is verified by the interviews, as most respondents considered military related topics as encouraging and motivating learning.

This result is consistent with the previous one, preference for military topics, because again here the ESP learning environment can be seen as an impetus for learning. This result corresponds to those of previous studies such as, Al-Busairi (1990) and Baird (2000), which investigated the positive perception of needs and the effect of specificity of content.

However, there was a supporting result which needs to be highlighted. The question of possible effect of specific content was correlated with the achievement of learners. We were expecting that better achievers would be the ones who perceived the effect as positive. The result indicates that, as in Table 4.19, there was no significant correlation between the possible effect of specific content and achievement. This could mean that there was no significant difference between respondents, whether they were high or low achievers, to consider specific content as encouraging. However, when achievement was also correlated with the negative and neutral effect of the specific content: *discourage, make no difference*, the correlation was significant. This can be interpreted as an indication that considering specific content as encouraging was perceived equally between high and low achievers, thus making it not significant. On the other hand, when

responding to the negative or the neutral effect, the high achievers are more influenced in that they did not consider specific content as discouraging.

5.1.2.4 Textbooks Meeting Learners Specific Needs, and Their Perception of These books

In relation to this result, there were indications of some problems with these books. In Table 4.17, the variables of titles of the textbooks and their helpfulness were correlated with achievement. As it can be seen from the table, achievement was correlated significantly with these two variables, but there was no significant correlation between the textbook and its being considered helpful in mastering English skills. This could suggest that the textbooks were considered helpful by high achievers but not by low achievers. Nevertheless, when the title of the book was correlated against its helpfulness there was no significant correlation. This could suggest that the helpfulness of the course books was not related to the type of the book but rather to better achievement.

Furthermore, the interview showed that cadets were looking for some improvements to their textbook in order to help them learning English. Some of these suggestions were reviewed in the interview analysis under the question related to textbooks. Most of them were related to suitability and relevance of topics to the cadets both for existing and prospective needs.

The dilemma of textbook and meeting learners' needs within an ESP have received a lot of attention since the emergence of specialised courses teaching and learning. The specificity of content, I assume, is an ingredient in meeting learners' needs. Therefore, considering learners' views and needs when choosing and designing a course book could further assist the enhancement of learning within the ESP learning environment.

5.1.2.5 Perception of Specific Needs

This issue was addressed from different angles. First, the questionnaire enquired about the cadets' perception over some more general but military needs. The results, as shown in Figures 4.11 and 4.12, imply that these needs were perceived positively. Primarily communicating and conversing with others in military-related matters is the outstanding

need and reading was the least needed. The need of overseas military courses also received a massive positive response among cadets. The explanation of such an enormous positive response can be attributed to the difference of perception of needs and wants or desires among cadets. As mentioned earlier, under the explanation of Figure 4.10, this response could be a want or desire rather than an actual need, because participation in overseas courses is seen as an advantage or a factor in obtaining promotions or high positions. Therefore, it is a somehow limited type of need, available only or few people, but it has received a great amount of response.

The second point in tackling this issue was in the perception of some specific military activities which were introduced in the questionnaire. As displayed in the percentages part of the questionnaire analysis (Figures from 4.11 to 4.15) there was a general positive perception of these specific needs and the requirement for them in using English. There was some distinction in perceiving these needs according to their relevance to the cadets' future employment as well as their technical demands. For example, in Figure 4.11, activities that were closely related to the National Guard's tasks were perceived more positively than others. Also, activities with some technical demands such as repairing tele-communication and surveillance, as well as supervising and coordinating with foreign officers, were perceived as involving use of English. In comparison, activities on the battlefield and supply were perceived as activities requiring the least English.

This result was also supported by responses to the interview. A small majority of respondents perceived some specific needs positively. The suggestions of inclusion of such specific needs, according to the cadets were very similar to those listed in the questionnaire and more closely National-Guard-related.

Therefore, according to this result, it can be deduced that ESP learners have a more positive consideration of the language needs in their proposed working environment. It can also be said that the ESP learning environment could exert as engendering learners to use English in their prospective jobs.

5.1.2.6 Relevance of Specific Needs to Achievement, Attitude and Motivation.

Mostly, this enquiry investigated the correlational analyses of the questionnaire. The first direct analysis of a possible relevance is made between the perception of specific needs and achievement. As we have seen in the correlation analysis, there was a significant correlation between perception of specific needs and achievement, r [385] = 0.14, $p < .05$, two-tailed. It tells us that those who perceived their specific needs more positively were high achievers. This might indicate that the more positively a learner perceives his or her specific needs, the more he or she would be encouraged and hence the better achievement.

In addressing the same issue in the interview, there was not a clear link between positive perception or consideration of specific needs and achievement. There was no distinction between high or low achievers in their perception of specific needs. Furthermore, some suggestions as to what to include in the textbooks were from low achievers. A possible explanation of such a mixture is that while perception of specific needs can seen as boosting learning and achievement, low achievers still consider their learning situation as encouraging for learning if it has been developed to suit their environment.

The second relationship of perception of specific needs was with attitudes. The results in Chapter Four, Table 4.29, illustrate that the relationship between perception of specific needs and attitude towards BANA people and culture is significant. This result was also verified when attitudes were classified into positive or negative ones, as in Table 4.30. It can be seen from the table that the correlation is more significant with positive attitudes, which relate to the scientific, economic and technological advances of the BANA people and culture. Therefore, it can be suggested that there is a perception that seeing usefulness of English as a language with 'specific purpose' or as a medium of technology entails seeing its speakers as technologically advanced.

The correlation is even stronger when correlating specific needs with attitudes to learning and motivation, r [385] = 0.38, $p < .01$, two-tailed. In the interview analysis, there were responses indicating more perception of specific needs which related to respondents' positive attitudes towards learning and motivation to learn, rather than to

attitudes towards BANA people and culture. It suggests that the perception of specific needs is closely related to learners' attitudes to learning. This also is consistent with previous results in this study which indicate that ESP and perception of specific needs could be working as grounds for better learning.

5.1.2.7. Attitudes' Relevance to Learning, Achievement and motivation

The attitudes were divided into three types: attitudes towards people; attitudes towards culture; and attitudes towards learning the language. The first part of the results shows that cadets had mixed attitudes towards BANA people and culture. The attitudes were distinguished between positive and negative. Most of the positive attitudes were related to the technological and scientific advances of the BANA people and culture. On the other hand, the negative ones were associated with the perceived loose social life of the west. In comparison, attitudes towards learning the English language were largely more positive ones. Moreover, the interview also showed very consistent results with the questionnaire: where there were mixed attitudes towards culture and people, attitudes towards learning were considerably positive.

Taking this analysis further, correlations were used to measure the relationship between attitudes, achievement and motivation. This was to investigate the validity of Gardner and Lambert's views on learners' attitudes towards people and culture. Attitudes towards people and culture were treated as closely linked together, because they indicated consistently similar results in previous studies. Therefore, the first investigation was to explore the relationship between attitudes towards BANA people and culture with achievement of these cadets, in the official assessment of the Academy. The result, in Table 4.24, showed that the relation between the learners' attitudes towards people and culture with their achievement was not significant. The implication is that attitudes neither encourage nor discourages. Thus, there was a difference from Gardner and Lambert's assumptions that positive attitudes towards people and culture of the target language encourages learning. This was also different from Hassan's (1994) conclusions which indicated that there was a significant correlation between Arab EFL learners' attitude towards the English culture and their achievement.

The more obvious relationship to learning and achievement was in correlating attitudes towards learning with achievement. The result of the correlation, r [443] = 0.27, $p < .01$, two-tailed, shows that attitudes towards learning were clearly related to achievement. The interview analysis also indicated that motivated learners and attitudes towards learning are closely linked to the respondents' achievement. That is, high achievers largely have positive attitudes towards learning and were more motivated to learn English.

The nature of this difference in the link between attitudes and learning and achieving could be an important factor in ESP. The first interpretation is that the target culture's influence on learners is rather limited. This is attributed to the findings which suggested that achievement is not related to learners' positive or negative attitudes towards BANA people and culture. In comparison, attitudes towards learning were found to have a strong significant relationship to achievement and motivation for learning.

ESP is considered as a branch of ELT that uses and utilises the neutrality of the target language culture. Therefore, our results can be ascribed to the neutrality of ESP and distancing of English from its native cultures. The strong association of attitudes towards learning with motivation and achievement is even influential that ESP learners have more relevance to their situation of learning English and its sub-culture than to the main target culture.

5.1.2.8. Motivation of ESP Learners

The concept of motivation within ESP has not been widely researched. The predominant assumption of motivation in ESP, as indicated earlier, is that it is an instrumental type of motivation. This argument is based on the hypothesis that learning English in ESP is considered as an instrument to gain an advantage in job or field requirements. However, I argued that this instrumentality could be leading to a more integrative type of motivation towards the ESP sub-culture. The discourse community could engineer more integrative motivation of the ESP learners.

There were some indications in our study that could support this assumption. For example, in comparing three different motivational orientations of the importance of learning English for these cadets, there was a significant correlation. These motivational reasons were *'passing exams'* and *'for future job'* and *'needed in the military environment'*. Both percentages and correlation are worthy of discussion. In percentages, the responses for the reason *'for future job'* were more at the positive end of the scale, 55% *strongly agreed* and 25% *agreed*, than for *'passing exams'*, 51% and 27%. This response is surprising. The teaching staff and others close to the cadets proffered the different view that they were interested only in exams.

The above result was even further validated with a correlation between achievement and *'future job'*, whereas it was significant but negative with passing exams. What this can tell us is that there is a relationship between achieving high marks in English and perceiving it as important for a future job. On the other hand, the negative significance of correlation between grades and the importance of English for passing exams suggests that the low achievers' responses are related to observing the importance of English for passing the exams more than others. This was also expressed by the results of the interview. Most of the respondents interviewed indicated that learning English for military use is important. Some of the respondents stated that in learning special military English, one is in fact learning English in general as well, which is not exactly the case in learning only general English. The obvious answer is that they are military people, so they would be interested in this. However, real military use of English is often remote from cadets' training and their observations of military life.

Therefore, in an ESP context, even this conclusion should be treated with care. In Swales' (1990) picture, ESP can direct students towards a discourse community. Instrumental and integrative motivation is a complex and not entirely straightforward distinction in ESP. A discourse community implies some sharing of the sub-culture on which these common traits discourse depends. Like Holliday (1994), we can argue that the bonds of a common education or interest can transcend specific regional cultures to create such trans-regional or supra-regional groups as engineers or, as in this case, military personnel. ESP can partially function as an induction to such a group. In this case, therefore, an apparently instrumental motivation, learning a language for military

purposes, becomes an integrative motivation: to be a more complete member of a military culture.

5.1.2.9 Comparison of This Study's Results with Others' Results

After reviewing the results and outcomes of the questionnaire and interviews in this study, it is worth comparing these findings with those contributed by previous related studies in the area of ESP needs, attitudes and motivation. One of the studies was by Al-Gorashi (1988), who investigated the importance of the English language and what role it could play in the future of the officers in the Saudi Army and what communicative needs are related to graduate officers' jobs. He concluded that English plays an important role in the future of these officers, especially in situations related to their jobs and training courses. The findings of my study appear to be similar to Al-Gorashi's outcomes. As mentioned earlier, there are strong indications in my study to show that cadets consider English as an important language that will be very useful in their future career. In addition, there were certain outlined specific needs perceived by the cadets in our study as requiring use of English, such as technical activities, and that outcome corresponded with Al-Gorashi's.

Khuwaileh (1992) also investigated needs as a basis for syllabus design for university students at the Jordan University of Science and Technology. Although the study is for more advanced users of ESP as well as more related to the four skills, it identified the basics of syllabus design and the skills that most need to be developed. This can be related to the research in our study, though designed differently. In fact, some of the findings can be compared in general terms. For example, in both studies there are results that indicate that there is some relationship between the perceived needs identified by this study and the observed needs of Khuwaileh. One of the similarities concerns perceptions about the weighting that should be given to the four skills. Subjects in both studies were ESP learners and the findings indicated that the skills of speaking and writing in Khuwaileh's, and speaking and listening in my study, were more likely to be used but likely to be weaker and in need of a closer pedagogical focus.

Cheng (1995) conducted a study of Chinese military cadets' motivation for learning English in Taiwan. In spite of the similarity of the settings and environment of the learning situation, namely, in a military academy, there are, however, some differences, as well as similarities, between the results of the two studies. These can be attributed either to cultural differences or to differences in the main purpose or the problem addressed by both researchers, or a combination of the two factors. Cheng also concluded that motivation, motivational intensity and attitudes are significantly related to cadets' English achievement. In my study, the relationship between achievement and attitudes appears in relation to attitudes towards learning the language rather than general attitudes towards the people and culture of the language. One of the results of the Chinese study which differs from my conclusion is that more than 56% of the cadets in the Chinese Military Academy were not interested in learning English, but learnt it because it was one of the courses in their Academy. In comparison, the majority of the cadets in KKMA *were* interested in learning English, either in the Academy or for future purposes, and not only because it is a course in the Academy to be examined and passed. This can be attributed to the different status English language in both cultures and sub-cultures. As indicated by Cheng, English was not widely used in Taiwan, especially in spoken situations. On the other hand, in Saudi Arabia the English language is very widely used in various settings, such as hotels and hospitals, and used as the medium of instruction in certain specialised fields such as medicine and computers. In addition, military cooperation between Saudi Arabia and the Western countries and in the UN Security Council is more obvious than that of Taiwan. Hence, that could explain that two different attitudes towards learning English in the future of respondents in the two studies.

Osman's (1996) is another ESP-related study that investigates reasons for as well as solutions to ESP students' under-achievement in Kuwait. It states that poor motivation was one of the reasons for under-achievement. In considering what level of motivation the students have, Osman emphasises that they are generally highly motivated to learn English because they are aware of the important role the English language plays in their life, either as students or in a future job. Osman concluded that the English teaching staff describe learners as not having an interest in learning English for various reasons. However, according to some of the results of the questionnaire and interviews in my study, there are indications that most of the cadets are positively motivated and have

positive attitudes, especially towards learning the English language. One of the explanations for this difference between Osman's and my study, as suggested by some interviewed cadets, is that the marking system in the Academy, as well as limited participation in the English course during term-time, probably have some relevance to such differences of views between cadets and their teachers. It may be that students are not demotivated by learning English but by what they have to learn, how they are taught it and who is teaching it.

Osman also concluded that in general colleges have not achieved their purposes and their success in meeting the learners' present and future needs is limited. He added that the teaching of ESP should be fitted within the overall educational system, hence contributing to the cultural development of the learners and to the teaching-learning process as a whole. At KKMA there is also insufficient attention to the cadets' English needs. As mentioned earlier, the teaching of English in the Academy has gone through phases and stages in an attempt at development, all aiming to improve the English learning of the cadets. However, no attempt was made to include the cadets' points of views or to study the actual target situation of the cadets' future jobs in order to identify properly the actual needs components to be included in a syllabus.

Al-Busairi's (1990) study among Kuwaiti Technical students investigated the relationship of attitudinal/motivational factors to learning English as a foreign language for ESP and sought to find out the effects of students' needs for learning English on their attitudinal/motivational characteristics and on their achievement in foreign language learning. One of Al-Busairi's conclusions was that students learn English because they need it to improve their 'opportunities in life' and not out of a desire for interaction. Also, he added that students are instrumentally rather than integratively motivated, though both motivations are significantly related to achievement. Another finding of Al-Busairi is that students' perceived needs of English for job purposes are related to their orientation and self-esteem, which proved to be the best overall predictors of success in a foreign language.

Al-Busairi's conclusions indicated that the motivation of learners in his study were more instrumental than integrative. The second point that Al-Busairi mentioned is the relationship between perceiving the need for a language and success in learning it. This

is supported in my study by the correlation between perceiving specific needs and having positive attitudes and motivation towards learning the language. Moreover, achievement in the language is more related to the attitudes towards learning the language itself than to those towards its people or its culture. Such a result may be due to the specialised nature of their learning situation or the type of the specialised need itself.

Finally, in a recent study, Baird (2000) investigated the effect of Bible-Based Syllabus (BBS) content and perception of its relevance on EFL learners. Although emphasising the complexity of the motivational behaviour and its individualism, she concluded that relevant and interesting content was considered to have value and enhance motivational behaviour. She also asserted that such a result was not reached by using one method of investigation, e.g. questionnaire, as she used diaries and informal interviews to explore the effect of the BBS. In my study, the perception of the special content and its possible effect was also investigated. However, although the result was that there was a positive perception of special content and its effect was seen as motivating, the issue with our cadets was not only the relevance of content. The current textbooks can be seen as related to the military field, but cadets indicated that the textbook did not help them enough in their military needs. Thus, relevance would be an incentive to learning, but the question is on what basis to judge a 'content textbook' as relevant and encouraging to learn.

5.2. Conclusion

The different parts in the discussion section above demonstrate the findings in a general summary. They look at the relevance of and importance to research questions and hypotheses of the study and at their significance to the main field of research in ESP. This conclusion will further review the outcomes of this study and their significance to the larger picture of ESP. It also considers some specific and general recommendations. The specific recommendations will be related to the situation of learning English within the Academy and the Saudi National Guard, and some possible solutions to improve learning English. Based on some of the findings of my study and some limitations, the suggestions are made for further studies of similar issues and situations.

5.2.1 Perception and Effect of Special Content

The results of this study, in both questionnaire and interview, indicated that there was positive perception of a special military content in KKMA. They also signified that special, relevant content could be motivating to learn. This result illustrated a positive perception of a specialised related content among students learning English in a military academy. In addition, they also perceived it as motivating to learn. One of the investigated questions in this study concerned the relationship of a special content to attitudes learning English as a possible reason for their low motivation to learn English in the Academy.

The investigated issues were the perception of specific content, its effect and the attitudes towards the current textbook. For the first issue, as stated, there was enough data in both the questionnaire and interview to suggest that the perception of the specific content was positive and its effect was to encourage learning. The data also showed that the respondents indicated that the textbook did not help them in their military needs. The explanation is that the cadets considered their current course books as relevant to the military field but not very helpful in their need for using English within their military field. This was explored in the interviews, where some cadets stated that, although the textbook was military, it is still not very relevant; for example, there are too many battlefield topics. Thus, it is an important issue to address the actual relevance of a special content as well as the consideration of needs of these learners in

order to have the most positive effect possible of the relevant content in improving the learners' comprehension as well as benefiting them in the future.

ESP can be of different types according to textbooks. First, there is what could be called generalised textbook ESP, e.g. Nucleus Series: *English for Science for Science and Technology* (1977). It is normally a felt-need that students should deal with a specific language often, because of who they are. For example, military cadets should deal with military English because they are military cadets, for example *Command English* (1988). This type of ESP is as much motivated by a sense of collective identity as a real deduced use. This can be seen in books which do little more than change the carrier content from general to specific. The second type is based on a real understanding of needs, either of the discourse community the students want to enter, or the language practices in which they want to engage such as Swales (1990) and Bhatia (1993). The third could take into account both the first and the second types while making a proper assessment of the language situation. It seems to be the case that these students reject ESP for its own sake. They attach importance to the idea of language that is appropriate to their own military lives but also understand the importance of an enjoyable learning experience. They are looking for the third type of ESP.

5.2.2 Textbook

The issue of textbook design and choice is also related to the previous one, the special content and its relevance. Our results did not contest the conception that textbooks are related to achievement and motivation.

There are few related factors in that choice or design of a textbook. The first one, as indicated in the previous point, is the matter of relevance; the need of contents in a textbook should be taken into account. The suitability of the linguistic items, such as grammar practice and vocabulary, are also important when applying a textbook. For example, in the interview, some of the cadets explained that some of the limitations of their course books, such as lack of practice and dependence on memorising, resulted in some 'non-interest' in learning the subject. Thus, course books which are wrongly applied, inappropriately chosen or hastily designed, could have a negative influence on

learners attitudes' towards the subject, resulting in low motivation to learn it and poor achievement.

5.2. 3 Need and Interest

Need and interest is another issue related to the previous two. The point to be raised here is the importance of learners' needs, which can affect their interest in learning. In discussing the previous two issues of content relevance and textbook choice, learners' needs can be at the heart of both. Learners' needs not only considers the specific needs for learning a language but they are also the effect of it. As displayed by the results of this study, learners observed and evaluated the textbooks as being less useful and not very helpful, particularly in their special needs, bearing in mind that these textbooks were not based on proper needs analysis of these learners.

Undoubtedly, needs identification and analysis is central to the practice of the ESP, and should consider what learners would need in their future jobs or studies. What is even more significant among ESP researchers in relation to needs and needs analysis is the concept of 'because this is needed then it is motivating and will be comprehended better'. Thus, as many argue, one of the advantages of needs is enhancing learning, e.g. McDonough (1984), Hutchinson and Waters (1987), Richterich and Chancerel (1987), Robinson (1991), Jordan (1997), Dudley-Evans and St John (1998). Nevertheless, learners' needs and their analysis are a comprehensive process. What can be considered is that, although needs analysis may result in a relevant course in certain cases, the mismatching between these two concepts could negatively influence learners and their achievement, such as Chalauisaeng's (forthcoming) study findings.

5.2.4 ESP Teacher and Practitioner

The concept of teacher or practitioner was not intended to be a main point under investigation. Nonetheless, there are a few points worthy of discussion. First, the results illustrated that the teacher factor is a major influence on learning, as seen in the questionnaire analysis. The interview results also showed even more relevance of teachers to learning in this special context. One of the main points which the

respondents suggested was the desirability of having officers to teach English, because they would be more knowledgeable about the specific military terms that normal teachers were less concerned about.

The technicality and speciality of teaching within ESP has been argued to question the status of teachers and their knowledge of the special content in ESP courses. Dudley-Evans and St John (1998) state:

> The methodology of ESP teaching may not differ radically from that General English. But there is one basic difference that affects the methodology and becomes more pronounced as the teaching becomes more specific: This is that the teacher is not in the position of being the 'primary knower' of the carrier content of the material. The students may in many cases, certainly where the course is specifically oriented towards the subject content or work that the students are engaged in, know more about the content than the teacher.   (Dudley-Evans and St John 1998:13)

Thus, in these certain cases, as Dudley-Evans and St John (1998) mention, it could be useful to provide a language teacher from within that specialised domain in order to bridge the gap between the teacher and the special carrier content.

5.2.5 The Specific Environment

The specific environment is of one the points raised by some of the cadets in responding to questions in the interview in relation to what influences their achievement or learning of English in the Academy. From different responses, the issue of some of the specific requirements of the Academy had a negative effect on some of the cadets' learning. Some of these factors were educationally related, such as the amount of subjects taught in the Academy (military, science and social science), making the time available to allocate for revising and studying minimal. Other mentioned factors were closely attributed to some of the characteristics of their environment.

These characteristics can be described as specific behaviours or acts the cadets have to do in order to comply within the orders and rules of the Academy. For example, the first feature is the period of approximately 45 days in which the freshly recruited or admitted cadets are inducted. In this period, they are not allowed to leave the Academy, which

other cadets can do at weekends. They also have very intensive physical and marching training, and in some cases there can be injuries. All this occurs during their normal term study, which can arguably have some effect, not only on learning the English language course but on other courses as well. There are also more specific rules that cadets have to comply with. Every activity within the Academy has to be performed within a specified time.

In briefly reviewing some of these activities it emerged that the cadets can be summoned at any time of the night to be gathered in-line, wearing anything, as quickly as possible. Also, they must group in lines and leave their rooms to the classes in the mornings. The meals are also served in-line within a specific time. They have also to participate in evening sport activities of their choice. More significantly, they have to revise, study and perform their homework in a certain time. Finally, they have to go to bed by a specific time of the night. Those who do not comply are punished. These are characteristics and features that can be found in any military recruiting institution.

5.2.6. Perception of Specific Needs and Relationship to Attitude and Achievement

The results provided us with information that the majority of the cadets in KKMA have perceived certain specific military activities positively as requiring using English. In my analysis, the data were examined in relation to attitudes and achievement. The analysis indicated that perception of specific needs is positively and significantly correlated with positive attitudes towards learning English as well as the achievement in the English language course in the Academy. As it has been mentioned earlier, this finding would suggest that a learner, being in a specific learning situation, who perceived his or her specific needs positively would achieve better in English and have a more positive attitude towards learning the language than another leaner who was less positive in perceiving his or her specific needs.

Although this point has been mentioned repeatedly in various parts of the results discussion, the concept of perceiving specific needs and their relationship to attitudes to learning and achievement is not commonly researched. In addition, attitudes and their

role in an ESP situation as well as influence in learners' motivation is also another issue not very extensively investigated within the ESP area. Therefore, it is worthwhile to suggest, that according to the situation investigated, ESP can be seen in a certain learning situation as a fertile area in motivating its learners who perceive their learning specific needs.

5.2.7 ESP Learners' Attitudes and Sub-culture, an Integrative Motivation

One of the findings of the results is what has been disclosed regarding the attitudes of ESP learners in KKMA. As it has been identified in data analysis, the attitudes of the cadets in KKMA were distinguished into three types according their results. The first finding is that the cadets have identified some aspects of the culture and the people of the target language as being negative, especially aspects that relate to social life. The positive attitudes were aspects related to the advance and technology of that culture. In examining attitudes towards the English language and learning it, they are largely seen as positive. Thus, there were obvious different attitudes of these learners towards the English culture and people on one hand, and towards the language and learning it on the other. These results were concluded from both methods of data collection, interview and questionnaire. This is one side of the results on attitudes.

The other side is the difference in relationship of these attitudes when examined against the marks achieved. The analysis of the results indicated that there is no association between negative or positive attitudes towards the English culture or people and achievement. However, the relationship of the marks was positive and significant when it was correlated with attitude towards learning the English language.

Two points have to be observed in rationalising this finding, both related to the status of the English language generally and specifically. The first one has been ascribed to the strong instrumental use of English in the modern era, as reviewed in chapter one. That importance, according to the results, has eclipsed the negative features perceived in the target culture, as seen by the cadets, in favour of learning English and using it.

The second point, which is related to my study, is the significance and importance of using the language within the military field. That perceived importance is related to the

cadets' positive views of learning English. In that respect, learning the language would not be confined to its general use, but more importantly to be used as a medium of communication within a 'specific discourse community' or sub-culture. Thus, the strong influence of using the language within the sub-culture can be more dominant than the deterrent influence of negative attitudes towards the main target culture of the language. This can be seen as a positive influence of the sub-culture and the willingness of learners to integrate within that discourse community.

5.2.8 Recommendations for English Learning and Teaching Within a Specific Learning Environment

In this part I will make some recommendations with the aim of improving learning of English in the Academy and treating some of the causes of problems in the English language course.

5.2.8.1 Need, Content and Course Books

The first step towards improving learning English is to undertake a needs analysis project for these cadets. Although some of the perceived needs in our study could be seen as basis for such a study, the first issue is to find out how English is actually used in the discourse community the cadets will join.

However, no analysis should neglect the importance of the cadets learning situation. In a military environment, a learning situation analysis is of a particular importance. The controlling presence of a military ethos and training objective in the cadets' life means that we need to think carefully about how it may affect language learning positively or negatively. Whether an outcome could be to moderate negative effects without undermining the core objective is a different question.

Where there are cases for a genuine plausible use of English in future scenarios, for example with the Vinnel Company, then these situations should be studied closely. The type of interaction they foster suggests tasks can be created for language learning or

raise an interest in the types of discourse they require and reduced deficiencies cadets currently encounter.

In addition, the content of an English textbook for the Academy could include selected topics of military subjects which are taught in Arabic, as suggested by some respondents in the interview, bearing in mind that these military subjects in Arabic were designed according to the military qualifications required in accomplishing certain activities, such as signals, maps, etc. Even though the argument here could be related to using ESP content as a learning-content, the responses in both data collection methods indicated that it will be helpful and encouraging for cadets to learn. Also, they indicated that a variety of topics, for instance those suggested here, could be more interesting than one type of topic, as they had observed *Command English*. This can work as a content-based instruction (CBI) in order to motivate language learning in this situation. Therefore, the important issue is using a 'real' ESP course, which reflects the real discourse community of ESP learners rather than adapting a 'false' ESP with minimal relevance to actual worlds of learners, which could result in more damage to their motivation to learn.

5.2.8.2. Teachers

The responses related to teachers in the results have indicated that the teacher is an influential factor on cadets learning either positively or negatively. From the interview results, some respondents expressed that there were shortcomings in some of the teachers' presentations of the lessons, resulting in uninterested cadets. Also, other respondents suggested that officers would be better as English language teachers, because they would know some military items or topics better than the normal teachers. Thus, it would be a useful experiment to use some officers as English language teachers, and then see the effect of this experiment in order to determine if there is better learning and achievement.

Also, the current civilian teachers preferably could have a specific development course, for example conducted by the Vinnel Company, to improve the teachers' knowledge of the military world. While the Academy attracts different teaching staff with background

in both theoretical and applied linguistics, Academy officials should be more selective and directive in favour of applied majors. For example, one of the non-Saudi English Teaching staff was a specialist in English literature, which was not a topic the cadets required or could benefit from.

Also, reusing the language laboratory, which cost over a million Saudi Riyal and was used only for few years, could help cadets practise some listening and speaking tasks. In addition to that, introducing a formal assessment of the skills of speaking and listening in the exams could improve cadets' ability in these skills, which they considered as weak in comparison to reading and writing, according to their own judgment. Therefore, attention to these points about teaching and teachers could be effective in helping the cadets to learn English.

5.2.8.3 Exams and Marking System

It is quite clear that the system is too exam-oriented and this produces negative backwash. A positive backwash would be obtained by performance-based measures administered continually. However, the system in the Academy does not follow that procedure, which can reduce the cadets' involvement or connection with any course during the term. Instead, they focus on the final exams to pass. Learning English as one of the subjects in the Academy was influenced by that marking system. Learning English needs some practice, homework and comprehension exercises, etc. with a communicative military training orientation and an opportunity for performance based measures that will test cadets' success.

5.2.9 Suggestions for Further Studies

The suggestions for conducting further studies in the same field, ESP and its learners, are based on two aspects: verifying the findings of the results of this study, and developing ways of data collection. To begin with, the main general findings of our result can be introductory for further research of learning in specific learning situations that have some distinguished features. The military setting and environment, investigated here, might be seen as having more obvious distinguished characteristics

than other cases. Thus, the first step for a further study is to look even further at such special settings and environments.

Throughout this study, it has been indicated there could a strong and influential role of such a special learning environment. As suggested above, this special environment can be seen as a sub-culture, where learning the language can be neutral from its original target culture. Therefore, the conception of speciality of learning a language in an ESP sub-culture is definitely an area that requires more in-depth research. One of the suggestions for further studies is to find out more about the military sub-culture in which Saudi cadets use English and how that use interacts with Arabic in training situations. This will give English training an orientation towards productive roles with which learners can identify, perhaps creating an integrative motivation. This process might be investigated in discourse analysis, such as using any authentic procedures of conversations or dialogue among members of that sub-culture, in order to look for its significance in learning the English language.

The results of this study also imply that one of the findings of this special learning situation were the difference in its learners' attitudes in relation to their achievement. The concept of differences of attitudes in a similar learning situation can be extensively investigated. Although our results in both methods --questionnaire and interview-- indicated similar findings on this issue, more qualitative research, such as observation or case study, will provide a clear monitoring of learners in their classrooms or places of work, and the relationship between their attitudes and their motivation within these settings.

Further research can also be useful to compare the findings of this study with another study investigating a similar sub-culture but within a different target culture. For example, investigating Arab or Saudi (to neutralise the differences in subjects' background culture) cadets at Sandhurst can give even more comparative findings, in term of their attitudes and the influence of the specific learning situation of English. It also could provide a bigger area to look for the influence of learning the language to be integrated into the sub-culture, in the sense that such a case is more advanced and English would be used more within the campus. Various methods of investigation can be applied in this case. Probably the most useful ones are the questionnaire, interviews

and case study. The case study method would be very useful to monitor the daily life of a foreign learner, not only learning the language, but also adopting certain special features or behaviours of what can be described as a sub-culture. However, conducting this method of investigation is very difficult in military institutions to which access is not easily obtained for the public or even for some of members of the institutions. This was the situation in my study.

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A.1.1 KKMA Textbook: *Command English*

UNIT 1

UNIFORM AND EQUIPMENT

steel helmet and camouflage net

combat jacket

face veil

personal weapon (rifle)

rear pouches

belt

front pouch

sling

water bottle

bayonet

combat trousers

boots

Soldier in fighting order

A	PRESENTATION

Here is a soldier in a uniform called fighting order. He has a rifle as his personal weapon. There is a bayonet and a sling on the rifle.

He is in combat kit and boots. There is a camouflage net on his steel helmet and he has a face veil round his neck.

On his belt there are four pouches and a water bottle. In the two front pouches are some grenades, some ammunition for his personal weapon and also spare rounds for his section's machine gun. In his two rear pouches there are his combat rations and various items of essential personal equipment.

B	COMPREHENSION

Exercise 1:1
1. Is he in civilian clothes?
2. Is his personal weapon a machine gun?
3. What is there on his rifle?
4. What is there on his steel helmet?
5. How many pouches are there on his belt?
6. Are there any grenades in his front pouches?
7. What other things are in his front pouches?
8. Are his combat rations in his rear pouches?

5

UNIT 1   UNIFORM AND EQUIPMENT

C | GRAMMAR FOCUS

Is there a bayonet on the rifle?
Are there any magazines in the pouch?
How many magazines are there in the pouch?

Exercise 1:2

Look at the picture on the right.

Look at the model:
Question 1: Is there a sling on the rifle?
Answer 1:   Yes, there is.
Question 2: Is there a bayonet on the rifle?
Answer 2:   No, there isn't.

Now use these words:
weapon in his hands
steel helmet on his head
water bottle on his belt
face veil around his neck

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Look at the model:
Question 3: Are there any rounds in the front pouches?
Answer 3:   Yes, there are.
Question 4: Are there any maps in the front pouches?
Answer 4:   No, there aren't.

Now use these words:
magazines / front pouches
combat rations / front pouches
grenades / front pouches
personal items / front pouches

Look at the model:
Question 5: How many magazines are there in the pouch?
Answer 5:   There are four.

Now use these words:
rounds / in each magazine
grenades / in the pouch
spare rounds / for the machine gun

There is/are some There isn't/aren't any
How many . . . .?

smoke grenade

high explosive grenade

4 magazines (30 rounds each)

one belt of 50 rounds for the section's machine gun

Contents of front pouches

Exercise 1:3
Make sentences from the tables.

Countable nouns

	four	bottles.
	three	notices.
There are	ten	rounds.
	two	jackets.
	six	items of equipment.

Uncountable nouns

		water.
		information.
There is	some	ammunition.
		clothing.
		equipment.

Three notices

7

UNIT 1   UNIFORM AND EQUIPMENT

Exercise 1:4
Make negative sentences. For example:

> There aren't any bottles.
> There isn't any information.

Use these words:
jackets   water
clothing   rounds
equipment   items

Exercise 1:5
Ask questions about the countable and uncountable nouns. Notice for countable nouns we use 'How many . . . . .?' but for uncountable nouns we use 'How much . . . . .?'
For example:

> How many bottles are there?
> How much water is there?

Use these words:
rounds   notices   jackets
clothing   water   ammunition

D | VOCABULARY

Reference List

ammunition (ammo)	grenade (smoke,	round (of
bayonet	high explosive)	ammunition)
belt	kit	section
boots	machine gun	sling
camouflage net	magazine	soldier
combat (jacket, trousers,	personal (weapon,	spare
kit, rations)	kit)	steel helmet
equipment	pouches (front, rear)	uniform
essential	rations	water bottle
face veil	rifle	weapon
fighting order		

Exercise 1:6
Choose words from the Reference List which match the meanings below.
1.   One piece of ammunition ....
2.   Small bomb which you throw ....

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UNIT 1   UNIFORM AND EQUIPMENT

3. Soldier's personal weapon ....
4. This is over the steel helmet ....
5. Food to eat when fighting ....
6. Very important – necessary ....
7. A small group of soldiers ....
8. A gun which can fire very quickly ....
9. Extra – not immediately needed ....
10. Containers for items of kit ....
11. Uniform for fighting in ....
12. Not a civilian ....

Exercise 1:7
Name these items of clothing, equipment and weapons.

| E | DISCUSSION |

Exercise 1:8
Protection from the weather is one good reason for wearing uniform.
What other good reasons are there for wearing uniform?

What items of personal equipment are essential in fighting order?

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UNIT 9

THE TANK

| A | PRESENTATION |

The tank has certain characteristics which make it a good fighting machine.

It is armour-plated. This gives **protection** to the crew inside it.

It has a very large gun. This gives it **firepower**.

Although it is not very fast, it can travel across country. It does not have wheels; it has tracks. This gives it **mobility**.

The tank can be used in a number of different ways. It can fight on its own or in support of infantry, when moving or when standing still. It has **flexibility**.

The tank's weapons
The main armament on this tank is a gun. This has a calibre of 120 millimetres. It also has two machine guns. One of these is fixed beside the main armament. The other is at the top of the tank for use against enemy aircraft. On each side of the tank there are five smoke dischargers. These can throw smoke grenades to make a smoke screen so the tank can move without being seen.

Other details
The tank weighs 52 tonnes. Its top speed is only 30 miles per hour. The crew consists of the commander, the gunner, the driver and a fourth man who has two jobs. He loads the gun and operates the radio.

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UNIT 9   THE TANK

B | COMPREHENSION

Exercise 9:1
1. What does the armour-plating on a tank give to the crew?
2. What gives the tank firepower?
3. Why is a tank able to travel across country?
4. Is there only one way in which a tank can be used?
5. What is the calibre of the main armament?
6. Which weapon can be used against enemy aircraft?
7. How many smoke dischargers are there on each side?
8. What can the smoke dischargers do?
9. How heavy is the tank?
10. What is its top speed?
11. How many men are there in the crew?

C | GRAMMAR FOCUS

What has it got? *or* What does it have?
It has (got) a 120 millimetre gun.
What can it do?
It can travel across country.
A modern tank is more powerful than
  an older one.

Exercise 9:2
Make sentences from the tables.

1.   *What sort of vehicle is it?*

It	is	a tank. a good fighting machine. very heavy. not very fast.

2.   *What has the tank got?*

It	has (got)	a 120 millimetre gun. two machine guns. five smoke dischargers on each side.

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3.   What can the tank do?

It	can	travel fight support move fire	across country. on its own. the infantry. under cover of a smokescreen. when moving or standing still.

Exercise 9:3
An old tank and a modern tank.

Look at the models:
It costs a lot of money to produce a modern tank. (**expensive**)
A modern tank is more expensive than an old one.
A modern tank has a big engine. (**powerful**)
A modern tank is more powerful than an old one.

Words – The tanks:
1.   It costs a lot of money to produce a modern tank. (**expensive**)
2.   A modern tank has a big engine. (**powerful**)
3.   It can travel across ground which an old one could not cover.
     (**mobile**)
4.   There are fewer problems with a modern tank. (**reliable**)
5.   The crew in an old tank could be hit more easily. (**vulnerable**)

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UNIT 9   THE TANK

Words – The main armament:
6.   In an old tank, the gun went up and down with the vehicle. A modern tank has a gun which stays on the target. (**stable**)
7.   The new gun usually hits the target. (**accurate**)
8.   The new gun is much bigger. (**powerful**)

D	VOCABULARY

Reference List

accurate	cupola	modern	smoke screen
aircraft	firepower	protection	stable
armament	flexibility	reliable	support
armour	hull	smoke discharger	tank
armour-plated	machine	smoke grenade	tracks
calibre	mobility		vulnerable
characteristics			

Exercise 9:4
Choose words from the Reference List which match the meanings below.
1.   A gun's size measured in millimetres ....
2.   Thick metal protection ....
3.   New, up-to-date ....
4.   An engine or a vehicle ....
5.   An aeroplane, helicopter, etc. ....
6.   Nearly always hits the target ....
7.   Easy to defeat ....
8.   Will not break down easily ....
9.   Help, assistance ....
10.   Thing for throwing smoke grenades ....
11.   What a smoke grenade can make ....
12.   Firm, not moving about ....

Exercise 9:5
Choose words from the Reference List to complete the table. (If necessary read the Presentation text again.)

	Descriptions	Characteristics
1.	The tank has very good cross-country capability because of its tracks.	mobility
2.	The tank has a very large gun.	
3.	The tank is armour-plated.	
4.	The tank can be used in many different ways.	

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A.1. 2 KKMA Textbook: *Practical English*

UNIT 1

I. PASSAGE

The First Day at the Academy

The recruits on their first day at the Academy

    Abdullah is a new cadet at King Khalid Military Academy. He is 19 years old. He is 169 cm and weighs 60 kilos. He is single. He lives in Riyadh with his family. He has three brothers and two sisters. He is the oldest of them all. His father is a colonel at the Saudi Arabian National Guard Headquarters. This is the first day for Abdullah at the academy. He meets some of his old friends from the secondary school. They feel happy to be together again. They talk with each other about what they see in the academy.

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A sergeant is inspecting the recruits' bags.

The Academy consists of a number of different departments, for example, the Department of Humanities and the Department of Sciences. Also, there is a sick bay, a mess, a library, and an auditorium. These are important places and facilities at the academy. There is a sport club, which contains a gymnasium, a swimming pool and a playground. Cadets usually spend useful and enjoyable times at the club and the library. They reside in barracks. They receive their military training in special areas inside and outside the academy. They attend military and educational lectures given by their instructors in well-prepared classrooms. They are usually grouped into platoons, which make up companies.

Cadets have some responsibilities, which they must take up. These responsibilities are very important for them to reach success. They must train very hard every day. They must attend classes regularly. They must study and revise their lessons as well as possible. In addition, they must follow their teachers' instructions. Abdullah decides to be serious, active and disciplined. He plans to work hard and prepare himself for his future military life.

The first meeting between cadets and the commander of the Cadets Battalion

II. VOCABULARY

Reference List

Auditorium	Department	responsibility
Barracks	Gymnasium / gym	Saudi Arabian National Guard
cadet	Instructor	sick bay
colonel	Mess	sport club
company	Platoon	swimming pool

Exercise:

Choose words from the Reference List above which match the meanings below:

1. A place where you practice physical exercises...............................
2. A teacher or trainer ....
3. Something we must do ....
4. A place where people swim ....
5. Part of a school or college ....
6. A group of platoons ....
7. A place for having meals ....
8. A military student ....
9. A place people go to when feel sick ....
10. A place where cadets live in ....

III. READING COMPREHENSION QUESTIONS

Read the passage again and answer the following questions:

1. Who is the new cadet?

   _____

2. Is he married or single?

   _____

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3.   What does his father do?

       _____

4.   Where does he meet his old friends again?

       _____

5.   What do they talk about?

       _____

6.   Where do cadets spend useful and enjoyable times?

       _____

7.   Do cadets reside in barracks?

       _____

8.   Which lectures do cadets attend in the classrooms?

       _____

9.   What must cadets do?

       _____

10.   What does Abdullah plan to do for the future?

       _____

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IV. GRAMMAR

PRESENT SIMPLE

The present simple is an action that expresses daily habit (Ali drives his car everyday), usual activities (Nasir reads sports newspapers), or general statements of fact (Reptiles hibernate in winter).

Present simple

past   now   future

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Affirmative	I We You They	Drink	milk every morning.
	He (Ahmad) She (Sarah) It	Drinks	
Negative	I We You They	do not (don't)	speak French.
	He (Ahmad) She (Sarah) It	does not (doesn't)	
Question	Do	I we you they	run fast?
	Does	he she it	

KEY WORDS: *every (day, night, week, month, year, century), today, always, sometimes, usually, often, seldom, frequently, never, generally.*

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V.   GRAMMATICAL EXERCISES

Exercise 1.

Make up sentences in the present simple tense using the following verbs:

meet   study   swim   watch   write   reside

Example:

> *He meets his friends at the academy everyday.*

1. _____

2. _____

3. _____

4. _____

5. _____

Exercise 2.

Change the sentences you made up into negative:-

Example:

> *He does not meet his friends at the academy every week.*

1. _____

2. _____

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3. _____

4. _____

5. _____

Exercise 3.

Change the sentences you made up into "Yes-No" questions:

<u>Example:</u> *Does he meet his friends at the academy everyday?*

1. _____

2. _____

3. _____

4. _____

5. _____

Exercise 4.

Choose the correct word:

1. Abdullah and his friends (feels - feel - will feels) happy.

2. (Does - To do - Do) you meet your old friends at the academy?

3. Where do cadets (reside - residing - resides)?

4. Who (plans - to plans - plan) to work hard?

5. Which kind of training does (they - we - he) receive?

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VI. WRITING

Write a paragraph about yourself in the space below by answering the following questions:

1. What is your name?
2. How old are you?
3. How heavy are you?
4. How tall are you?
5. Where do you live?
6. Are you single or married?
7. How many brothers and sisters do you have?
8. What does your father do?
9. What do you see in the Academy?

10. What do you do in the sport club?
11. Where do you reside in the Academy?
12. What kind of training do you receive?
13. What sort of lectures do you attend?
14. What responsibility must you take up?
15. What do you plan for your future military life?

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

King Khalid Military Academy   Department of Humanities

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

VII. LANGUAGE LABORATORY

Exercise 1.   _(Book 3, pp. 8-9; Tape 1B, Figures2+4)_

Repeat the sentences:

1.   Jan goes to bed at 10.00 .

      She doesn't go to bed at midnight.

2.   The boys sleep at night.

      They don't sleep in the morning.

3.   Tom gets up at 6.00 in the morning.

      He doesn't get up late.

4.   He takes a shower before class.

      He doesn't take a shower after class.

5.   Tom shaves after his shower.

He doesn't shave before his shower.

6.   Tom gets dressed before breakfast.

He doesn't get dressed after breakfast.

7.   The students study their lesson in class.

They don't study their lesson in the library.

8.   They swim everyday after class.

They don't swim everyday in the morning.

Exercise 2.

Repeat the questions. Write "Do or Does". Check and repeat.

1................... she go to bed at midnight?

2................... they sleep in the morning?

3................... she get up late?

4................... he take a shower after class?

5................... he shave before his shower?

6................... they study their lesson in the library?

7................... he get dressed after breakfast?

8................... they swim in the morning?

9................... I go to lab today?

10...................we come to class everyday?

King Khalid Military Academy   Department of Humanities

EVALUATION EXERCISES FOR BOOK ONE UNIT ONE

Exercise 1 :-

Choose words from group A that match words from group B :

A	B	
SICKBAY	*SPORTS HALL*	....
mess	duty	....
instructor	clinic	....
gymnasium	trainer	....
responsibility	restaurant	....

Exercise 2:

Make questions for the following sentences:

1. Cadets reside in barracks.

Where .... ?

2. Abdullah has three brothers.

How many .... ?

3. I meet my friends once a week.

Whom .... ?

4. We usually receive our military training in the mornings.

When .... ?

5. The academy consists of different departments.

What .... ?

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KING KHALID MILITARY ACADEMY   DEPARTMENT OF HUMANITIES

UNIT 2.

I.   PASSAGE

Preparing Cadets Militarily

During their first month of enrollment at King Khalid Military

The cadets are practicing weapon handling.

Academy (KKMA), the new cadets receive special and intensive military training. This prepares them for a military life and career.   Captain Ali is the commander of No. 1 Platoon. He is in char_e of pr_paring the new cadets for a military life. He is dividing them into two sections. Each section is practicing a different military skill.

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Developing survival skills is very important for cadets.

The cadets of the first section are taking a lesson on weapon handling. An officer is teaching them the rules of safety called "normal safety precautions". He is demonstrating to the cadets how to hold a weapon and how to use it in a safe manner. He is telling them that soldiers who do not follow these rules are very dangerous. The cadets are now practicing what they have learnt.

The cadets of the second section are practicing and developing their survival skills. For example, they are building shelters in the desert and camouflaging them to protect themselves from the enemy. They are also searching for food and water. Finally, they are trying to move around quietly and carefully without being seen.

KING KHALID MILITARY ACADEMY   DEPARTMENT OF HUMANITIES

Cadets in their training exercise.

II. VOCABULARY

Reference List

camouflage	Military	shelter
captain	in charge of	skills
commander	officer	soldier
demonstrate	precaution	survival
enemy	section	weapon handling

Exercise:

Choose words from the Reference List which match the meanings below:

1. not our friend _____

2. a small group of soldiers _____

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3. not a civilian _____

4. to cover something for making it hard to be seen _____

5. how to use weapons correctly and safely _____

6. a person who is in charge of soldiers _____

7. staying alive in a dangerous situation _____

8. things that cadets must know and do very well _____

9. to show how to do something ____ _____

9. a military rank _____

III. READING COMPREHENSION QUESTIONS

Read the above passage again and answer the following questions:

1. What do cadets receive during their first month of enrollment at King Khalid Military Academy?

   _____

   _____

2. Who is the commander of No. 1 Platoon?

   _____

   _____

3. What is Captain Ali in charge of?

   _____

   _____

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4. What is Captain Ali doing?

_____

_____

5. What are the cadets of the first section doing?

_____

_____

6. What are the rules of safety called?

_____

_____

7. Is the officer demonstrating to the cadets how to hold a weapon?

_____

_____

8. What is he telling them?

_____

_____

9. What are the cadets of the second section doing?

_____

_____

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10. Why are they building shelters in the desert?

_____

_____

_____

IV. GRAMMAR

Present Continuous

present continuous

past   now   future

The present continuous tense is an action or an event that is happening now and is still in progress The present continuous tense is formed by using the helping verb (be) in the present form (am, are, is) and adding the suffix *ing* to the main verb.

We double the last letter of the infinitive form of some verbs when we add *ing* to it (**running, forgetting, sitting**).

If the infinitive form of the verb ends with the letter *e* and is preceded by a consonant, we delete the letter *e* before adding *ing (make → making, write → writing, dive → diving)*.

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Affirmative	I	am ('m)	
	We You They	are ('re)	
	He (Ahmad) She (Sarah) It	is ('s)	listening to the teacher. drinking milk. learning English now. watching television.
Negative	I	am not	
	We You They	are not (aren't)	
	He (Ahmad) She (Sarah) It	is not (isn't)	
Question	Am	I	
	Are	We You They	
	Is	He (Ahmad) She (Sarah) It	

KEY WORDS: *now, at the moment, today, tonight, this*

morning, this afternoon, look!, listen!.

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V. GRAMMATICAL EXERCISES

Exercise 1.

Make up affirmative sentences in the present continuous tense using the following words:

Example:

       He/play/football

       He is playing football.

1.   We/write/a book

   _____

2.   She/study/English

   _____

3.   It/swim

   _____

4.   Fahad/watch/TV

   _____

5.   You/pray

   _____

Exercise 2.

Make up negative sentences in the present continuous tense using the following words:

Example: *He/play/football*

       He is not playing football.

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1.   We/write/a book

_____

2.   She/study/English

_____

3.   It/swim

_____

4.   Fahad/watch/TV

_____

5.   You/pray

_____

_____

Exercise 3.

Make up yes/no questions in the present continuous tense using the following words:

Example:

> *He/play/football*
>
> *Is he playing football?*

1.   we/write/a book

_____

2.   she/study/English

_____

3.   it/swim

_____

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4.   Fahad/watch/TV

_____

5.   you/pray

_____

Exercise 4.

Underline the correct answer:

Example:

The children are _____ *their breakfast.*

    a.   to eat

    b.   eat

    c.   eating

1.   Hassan is now _____ the march.

    a.   finish

    b.   finishing

    c.   to finish

2.   The cadets _____ building shelters.

    a.   is

    b.   am

    c.   are

3.   What are the soldiers _____?

    a.   doing

    b.   did

    c.   do

4. Captain Ali _____ the commander of No. 1 Platoon.

    a.   were

    b.   is

    c.   are

5. The officers are not _____ lunch.

    a.   has

    b.   had

    c.   having

VI. TRANSLATION

Exercise 7.

Translate the following sentences into Arabic:

Example:

What is Ahmed doing now?

<div dir="rtl">ماذا يفعل احمد الآن؟</div>

He is reading a book.

<div dir="rtl">يقرأ كتاباً.</div>

1. Captain Ali is the commander of No. 1 Platoon.

2. The cadets are watching TV.

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3.   He is not searching for food.

_____

4.   Are they camouflaging the shelters?

_____

5.   Hassan is the fittest man in the section.

_____

VII. LANGUAGE LABORATORY

Exercise 1.   *(Book 2, p. 48; Tape 3A, Figure 7)*

Look at the example:

    The Wilson Family/eating lunch/dinner?

    Is the Wilson Family eating lunch or dinner? (lunch)

    They are eating lunch.

Now do the same:

1.   Linda/studying/eating

_____

2.   John/watching TV/talking

_____

3.   Jan/buying food/studying

_____

4.   Mr. Wilson/standing up/sitting down

_____

5.   Mrs. Wilson/drinking coffee/reading

_____

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Exercise 2.   *(Book 2, p. 83; Tape 4C, Figure 8)*

Look at the example:

> *they / studying / lesson*
>
> *Where are they studying their lesson?*

Now do the same:

1. he/eating/lunch

   _____

2. you/going

   _____

3. Bob/reading

   _____

4. Mrs. Wilson/buying/food

   _____

5. children/watching/TV

   _____

6. you/listening/tapes

   _____

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EVALUATION EXERCISES FOR BOOK ONE UNIT TWO

Exercise 1 :-

Use the following words to give the opposites of the words below :

camouflage – safe – friend – carefully – military

civilian	....
enemy	....
discover	....
dangerous	....
carelessly	....

Exercise 2 :

Choose the correct word:

1. Mohammed and khalid .... Studying now.
   a. be   b. are   c. is

2. Listen , she is ....to her mother.
   a. talks   b. talk   c. talking

3. Weare reading ....
   a. yesterday   b. at this moment   c. last week

4. Look , the cadet .... Moving towards the bridge.
   a. is   b. am   c. were

5. You and I .... praying right now.
   a. was   b. am   c. are

Appendix: A.2. Sample Interview, (translated)

(Interviewee No. 6)

What level are you in?
-In the first level.

What was your achieved mark in English in the last term?

-It was 85. (*Do you think it was fair*) Yes, I think it reflects my true level in English.

How do you see your general situation in the Academy, are you happy and satisfied or not?

-There was some pressure when I first joined, especially in the 45 days period. But now it is better and I am just satisfied.

What were your general aims/ambitions when you joined the KKMA?
-First, to serve my religion and country. There was also the social prestige that an officer receives in the society. Also, there was a personal desire to be an officer. Securing a well-paid job was another very strong reason to join KKMA.

What was your attitude towards the English language in your secondary school?

-In the secondary, it was not a difficult subject for me to study, because I had taken two English courses abroad, (*Where were these courses?*) In England. (*In what area?*) They were in general English, and I find that mixing more with the English people gave me a better chance to practise it.

What is the situation now in the Academy, in learning English?

-In the Academy, there is a limited chance to learn (*What do you think is the reason for that?*) I think the course books do not give that chance, they are very easy, and have few practice exercises, besides the whole situation in the Academy is very crowded with too many subjects and trainings which do not offer enough time to learn.

What is your view about the future and after graduation concerning learning English?

- I really would like to continue learning and studying English because it is a very important language, it is the language of the modern era.

Which area do you prefer to continue learning English, is it General or Military English?
- General English is useful, but using English in the military is important such as meeting and exchanging information with foreign officers at the National Guard Battalions.

What community or people do you usually associate your learning of English with?

- Personally, I usually view the British people as representing the English language.

How could you describe your attitude towards these people and their culture?

-I have already known some aspects of their life, because I have had contacts with them during my private abroad courses. They have much better reception and language students outside London. In general, they are not very willing to socialise and mix with foreigners. Their social life such as the family ties and marriage values are not good. *(Have these views influenced your attitudes towards learning English?)*
- No, even with some of these negative attitudes I still feel the importance of learning English, I feel that my learning is not affected by that. *(Can you explain that?)* I think because it has an important role in a lot of aspects in various fields, such as using it in travelling abroad, also, some hospitals in the Kingdom require English in order to communicate with their mostly foreign staff. There are hotels in the Kingdom that use English as well, and I think it has an important use in the military.

What is your view of the current English Course books in the Academy?

-The current textbook *Practical English* is suitable for most cadets; although some cadets think that it is difficult, I find it easy. It includes mostly military related topics and general ones that are useful for the cadets. There is information about the life and environment within the Academy, for example, it includes a conversation of a sergeant ordering a cadet to clean rooms; the cadet answers: 'Yes Sir'. "

Are there any specialised/military related topics you think could be included?
-Including military topics in the content of the English course could make it more difficult for cadets to cope with. As for the topics, some of the activities of the National Guard, *(any example)* such as using armoured vehicles, could be included as taught topics in English.

What will be the effect of these topics on your learning of English?
Maybe if it was simplified it would be a useful encouragement, but not a big one.

How do you see the current timetable of English in the academy, enough or more than enough hours?
- In my opinion, the current timetable is just enough and has suitable hours of English for most of the cadets.

Do you allocate any time for studying and revising English?
-Yes, I usually do have sometime to study and revise English, but not very much, because I feel it is not a difficult subject to study.

What do you think of the English teachers in the Academy?
-In what way?

(In general, what do you think of their way of lesson presentations, and how they deal with students)

-Generally they are good teachers and deal with students in a very nice way. But there are some shortages in some of their lesson presentations; I think it could be due to shortcomings in the textbooks. We would be more motivated to learn if teachers were native speakers: that would give more chance to practise and speak English.

How can the exams and marking system in the Academy help you in learning English?

Dividing the marks between the exam and the term work would be an excellent way to involve cadets in English and subsequently to get them to learn more English Also, having some fun in doing exercises would be useful and encourage us to learn.

Anything you would like to add?
- I think that's all what I can say.

Thank you for your participation.

A. 3.1 Questionnasire, Arabic version

Cover Letter

بسم الله الرحمن الرحيم

أخي طالب كلية الملك خالد العسكرية

السلام عليكم ورحمة الله وبركاته   وبعد :

إن الغرض من هذا الاستبيان هو بحث فهم و إدراك طلبة كلية الملك خالد العسكرية

لإحتياجات اللغة الإنجليزية في المجال العسكري، و كذلك ومعرفة نظرتهم ومواقفهم تجاه

تعلم اللغة الإنجليزية وشعوب وثقافة متحدثي هذه اللغة . وقد تم اختياركم بوصفكم أفضل

مصدر لتزويد هذا البحث بالمعلومات اللازمة وذلك بالإجابة الدقيقة و الصادقة على الأسئلة

الموضحة في هذا الاستبيان مع اتباع الإرشادات الموضحة أثناء الإجابة ، والمرجو منكم

أن تجيبوا على جميع الأسئلة بكل دقة وتأن . وللمعلومية فإن إجاباتكم لن تكشف ولن

تستخدم إلا من قبل الباحث ولغرض البحث فقط فهي على درجة من السرية .

وأخيراً جزاكم الله خيراً على حسن تعاونكم .

الباحث

عمر عبد الله السديس

لاستعمال الباحث فقط	

حدد اختيارك لكل فقرة بوضع علامة (✓) في المربع المناسب ، مع إجابة كل الفقرات.

القسم الأول: معلومات شخصية و عامة

١. السنة الدراسية في الكلية: إعدادي ☐   متوسط ☐   نهائي ☐

٢. درجتك في مادة اللغة الإنجليزية للفصل الماضي (الفصل الأول ١٤١٩/١٤٢٠هـ)

٣. العُمر: ١٨ ــ ٢٠ ☐   ٢١ ــ ٢٣ ☐   ٢٤ + ☐

٤. الجنسية : ــــــــــــــــــ

٥. إذا كنت سعودياً حدد المدينة أو القرية ــــــــــــــــــ

٦. أية مدرسة ثانوية تخرجت منها :

a. مدرسة ثانوية عامّة ☐

b. مدرسة ثانوية تجارية ☐

c. معهد علمي ☐

d. آخر حدده ....

٧. ما سبب التحاقك بالكلية ؟ (حدد اختيارك لكل فقرة بوضع علامة (✓) في المربع المناسب ، مع إجابة كل الفقرات)

	دائماً	غالباً	احياناً	نادراً	أبداً
a) للحصول على عمل أفضل	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
b) لرغبتي بأن أكون ضابطاً	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
c) لأن الضّابط يحظى بمكانة رفيعة المستوىُ في المجتمع	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
d) توجيه من أحد أعضاء العائلة	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
e) آخر، يُحدَّدُ ...					

٨. هل كنت تستمتع بدراسة الإنجليزي بالثانوية   ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

٩. هل تستخدم الإنجليزي خارج الكلية   نعم ☐   لا ☐

إذا كانت الإجابة (بلا) انتقل إلى سؤال ١١

١٠. إذا كانت الإجابة (بنعم) فما مجالات استخدامك للإنجليزية :

	دائماً	غالباً	احيانا	نادرا	ابدا
a. التسوّق	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
b. السفر ، السياحة	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
c. في عملٍ سّابقٍ	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
d. استماع لوسائل إعلام بالإنجليزية	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
e. قراءة لوسائل إعلام إنجليزية	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
f. التحدث والاختلاط مع إنجليز يعملون بالمملكة	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
g أخرى حددها ــــــــــــ					

١١ عندما تقدمت للكلية هل كنت تعرف بوجود مادة اللغة الإنجليزية .

نعم ☐ لا ☐

١٢. قَدَّرْ مقدرتكَ في الإنجليزيةِ بوضع علامة (✓) في المربع المناسب:

سيئ جداً   سيئ   معتدل   جيد   جيد جداً   ممتاز

☐   ☐   ☐   ☐   ☐   ☐

١٣. قَدَّرْ مقدرتكَ في مهارات اللغة الإنجليزية التَّاليةِ بوضع علامة (✓) في المربع المناسب :

a. القِراءة

سيئ جداً   سيئ   معتدل   جيد   جيد جداً   ممتاز

☐   ☐   ☐   ☐   ☐   ☐

b. الكِتابَة

سيئ جداً   سيئ   معتدل   جيد   جيد جداً   ممتاز

☐   ☐   ☐   ☐   ☐   ☐

d. الاستماع:

سيئ جداً   سيئ   معتدل   جيد   جيد جداً   ممتاز

☐   ☐   ☐   ☐   ☐   ☐

e. التحدث

سيئ جداً   سيئ   معتدل   جيد   جيد جداً   ممتاز

☐   ☐   ☐   ☐   ☐   ☐

١٤. ما المقياس الذي تستعمله في تقييمك لنفسك : حدد اختيارك لكل فقرة بوضع علامة (✓) في المربع المناسب ، مع إجابة كل الفقرات

	دائماً	غالباً	احياناً	نادراً	أبداً
a. الأداء في الامتحانات والواجبات	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
b. تقييم أحد متحدثي الإنجليزية الأصليين	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
c. تقييم المدرس	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
d. المقدرة على التعامل في حالة تتطلب التحدث بالإنجليزية	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
e. أخرى حددها	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

١٥. حدد كتاب الإنجليزية المستخدم الآن :

a. American Langauge course ☐

b. Command English ☐   c. Practical English ☐

١٦. هَل تَعتقدُ بأنَّ كتبكَ الدراسيةَ تُساعدك في إجادة المهارات اللغوية ؟

دائماً   غالباً   احياناً   نادراً   أبداً

☐   ☐   ☐   ☐   ☐

استعمال الباحث فقط	دائماً غالباً احيانا نادراً أبداً	القسم الثاني: احتياجات اللغة الإنجليزية
☐	☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐	١٧. هَلْ تُفَضِّلُ أن تكون موضوعَات مناهج الإنجليزية تَتعلَّقُ بالأمورِ العسكريةِ؟

١٨. إذا كانت الموضوعات تتعلق بالأمور العسكرية فإنه يُمكنُ أن :

☐	☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐	a. يُشجَّعكَ أكثرُ على التعلم
☐	☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐	b. يُثبِّطكَ
☐	☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐	c. لا فرق في ذلك
		d. أخرى حددها .. ..

حدد اختيارك لكل فقرة بوضع علامة (✓) في المربع المناسب ، مع إجابة كل الفقرات

١٩. بعد التَّخَرُّج من الأكاديمية، ما مهاراتُ اللغة الإنكليزيةُ التي تَعتقدُ بأنها أكثرُ فائدة :

	دائماً غالباً احيانا نادراً أبداً	
☐	☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐	a. قراءة الأسلحة وأوامرِ الجهازِ العسكريةِ الأخرى
☐	☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐	b. كِتابة الرّسائل العسكرية في مراسلةِ الوكالاتِ الأجنبيةِ، والضبّاط .
☐	☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐	c. الاتصال مع الضبّاطِ الأجانب .
☐	☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐	d. دراسة المواضيع العسكرية بالإنجليزي
☐	☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐	e. الحصول على دورات عسكرية خارجية باللغة الإنجليزية
☐	☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐	f. لاستخدامها في الاتصالات الدولية في ساحة القتال
☐	☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐	g. أخرى حددها .. ..

حدد اختيارك لكل فقرة بوضع علامة (✓) في المربع المناسب ، مع إجابة كل الفقرات

استخدام الإنجليزية في المجالات العسكرية

٢٠. معرفة الإنجليزية ضروريُ لإتقان المجالات التالية :

	دائماً غالباً احيانا نادراً أبداً	
☐	☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐	a) قواعد وأساليب القفز المظلي
☐	☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐	b) قواعد وأساليب عمليات إسناد القتال
☐	☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐	c) قواعد وأساليب العمليات القتالية
☐	☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐	d) قواعد وأساليب الاستخبارات
☐	☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐	e) قواعد وأساليب الملاحة الجوية والبحرية والأرضية
☐	☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐	f) قواعد وأساليب شرح الخرائط
☐	☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐	g) تشغيل واستخدام أجهزة الاستطلاع
☐	☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐	h) تشغيل واستخدام أجهزة الاتصالات
☐	☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐	i) تشغيل واستخدام العربات المدرعة
☐	☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐	j) تشغيل واستخدام الأسلحة (بنادق ، متفجرات ، وصواريخ)

☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	k) تشغيل واستخدام الذخيرة
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	l) إصلاح وصيانة أجهزة الاستطلاع
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	m) إصلاح وصيانة أجهزة الاتصالات
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	n) إصلاح وصيانة العربات المدرعة
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	o) إصلاح وصيانة الأسلحة
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	p) نقل وتموين الأجهزة ، الأسلحة ، الذخيرة
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	q) نقل وتموين الجنود
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	r) نقل وتموين الجنود المرضى والجرحى
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	s) الإشراف على توزيع وإدارة الأجهزة والأسلحة والذخيرة
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	t) الإشراف على سلوك وكفاءة الأفراد والعسكريين
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	u) الإشراف على التنسيق مع الخبراء الأجانب
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	v) الاحتفاظ بالسجلات والملفات والتقارير
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	w) التحقيق في وتقديم التقارير عن الحوادث والأخطار
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	x) أية إضافة أخرى -------------

القسم الثالث: مواقفك واتجاهاتك :

> في الأسئلة ٢١ إلى آخر الاستبيان المطلوب بيان درجة موافقتك أو عدمها لبعض الأسئلة والبيانات بالشعوب التي تتحدث الإنجليزية وتعلم اللغة الإنجليزية . وليس من الضروري أن تكون قد تعاملت مع هذه الشعوب . فالهدف هو انطباعك عنهم.

. المقصود في الأسئلة التالية بالشعب الإنجليزي والثقافة الإنجليزية هم الذين يتكلمون الإنجليزية كلغة أم . لذلك حدد أي من هذه الشعوب والثقافات يرتبط بتعلم الإنجليزية لديك ،ضع علامة(✓) لاختيارك

⭘ الأمريكين   ⭘ البريطانيين   ⭕ الأستراليين والنيوزلنديين

{حدد اختيارك لكل فقرة بوضع علامة (✓) في المربع المناسب ، مع إجابة كل الفقرات}

أولا: نحو الشعوب التي تتحدث الإنكليزية

٢١. أعتقدُ أن هؤلاء الناس:

لا اوافق بشدة	لا اوافق	محايد	أوافق	أوافق بشدة	
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	a) خفيفو الظل
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	b) منحرفون أخلاقيا
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	c) كريمو الضيافة
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	d) جديرون بالثقة
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	e) متكبرون
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	f) واسعوا الأفق
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	g) اجتماعيون
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	h) متعصبون لجنسهم
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	i) من الصعب التعامل معهم
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	j) انتهازيون
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	k) قساة

l) ذووا تفكير علمي متقدم

m) أخرى حددها ---------- ------

ثانيا: ثقافة هذه الشعوب (حدد اختيارك لكل فقرة بوضع علامة (✓) في المربع المناسب ، مع إجابة كل الفقرات)

أوافق بشده   أوافق   محايد   لا اوافق   لا اوافق بشده

٢٢. ما نظرتك تجاه هذه الثقافة ؟

a) أصحاب هذه الثقافة متعصبون لجنسهم

b) هذه الثقافة متقدمة علمياً

c) هذه الثقافة فريدةُ ومحمودة

d) الناس في هذه الثقافة يستصغرون الحضارات الأخرى وينظرون لها كتابع لحضارتهم

e) أسلوب الحياة في هذه الثقافة جذاب

f) العلاقة الاجتماعية في هذه الثقافة قوية

h) الناس يَعانونَ من العديد من المشاكلِ الاقتصادية في هذه الثقافة

i) الروابط العائلية في هذه الثقافة منحلة

j) هذه الثقافة مستندة بقوة إلى المبادئ المادية

k) هذه الثقافة ذات كفاءة اقتصادية

l) يسهل على الآخرين تطبيق مبادئ هذه الثقافة والتكيف معها

m) إنها حضارة سطحية بلا جذور

n) أنا أوَدُّ أَنْ اَخْتلطَ مع الناسِ الناطقين بالإنكليزية

o) دراسة اللغة الإنجليزية مهمة لأن الآخرين يحترمون الشخص الذي يتكلمها

q) اللغة الإنجليزية هي مفتاحُ مهمُ إلى الحياةِ الحديثةِ

r) أخرى حددها -------------------------

استعمال الباحث فقط

ثالثا: اتجاهك نحو تعلم الإنجليزية

أوافق بشده   أوافق   محايد   لا اوافق   لا اوافق بشده

(حدد اختيارك لكل فقرة بوضع علامة (✓) في المربع المناسب ، مع إجابة كل الفقرات)

٢٣ يَجبُ أَنْ يُخصّص وقت أكثر لتدريس اللغة الإنجليزية في الكلية

٢٤. أنا لا أُريدُ ولا أرغب في تعلم الإنجليزية ولست مهتماً بذلك

٢٥. إذا كانت لغتي الإنجليزية أحسن سوف تكون مكانتي أفضل

٢٦. أخصص وقتا لدراسة و مذاكرة مادة اللغة الأنجليزي

٢٧. عندما أترك الكلية سأوقف تعلم الإنجليزية فوراً لأني غير مهتم بها

٢٨. بعد مغادرة الكلية أنا عازم على استغلال أية فرصة متاحة لتعلم الإنجليزية

حدد اختيارك لكل فقرة بوضع علامة (✓) في المربع المناسب ، مع إجابة كل الفقرات

٢٩. تعلم اللغة الإنجليزية مهم بالنسبة إلى :

a. لأني أحتاجه لاجتياز امتحان الكلية

b. لأنه من الممكن أن أحتاجه في حياتي العملية في المستقبل

d. لأنه مطلوب في المجال العسكري

e. إنه لَيسَ مهماً أبداً بل مضيعة للوقت

ر. أخرى حددها ... ... □ □ □ □ □ □

٣٠ . أريد تعلم اللغة الإنجليزية بالكلية ولو كانت غير إلزامية □ □ □ □ □

٣١. إنني أستمتع بدراسة اللغة الإنجليزية □ □ □ □ □

حدد اختيارك لكل فقرة بوضع علامة (✓) في المربع المناسب ، مع إجابة كل الفقرات

٣٢.حدد مدى تأثير نظرتك لتعلم الإنجليزية بالأشياء التالية :

أ. حبك للمعلم أو كرهك له	□	□	□	□	□
ا. حبك أو كراهيتك لمفردات المنهج	□	□	□	□	□
ج. اهتمامك باللغة الإنجليزية أو عدمه	□	□	□	□	□
د. احتياجك للغة الإنجليزية أو عدمه	□	□	□	□	□
هـ. الرغبة بالدرس أو الشرح من عدمها	□	□	□	□	□
f.أخرى حددها	□	□	□	□	□

شاكراً لكم حسن تعاونكم و صبركم، مع تمنياتي لكم بالتوفيق و النجاح إن شاء الله

A.3.2 Questionnaire English Copy
Cover letter

In the name of Allah the Most Gracious the Most Merciful

Dear King Khalid Military Cadet,

The aim of this questionnaire is to investigate the perceptions of King Khalid Military Cadets of their English language needs within the military field and their attitudes towards the people and culture, as well as learning the English language. You have been chosen as the best available source to provide us with valuable information. So, could you give your honest and truthful answers to the questions, and answer in an accurate and concise way? I would like to assure you that the answers will be confidential and will be used only for the purpose of the research.

The Researcher

Omar Alsudais

Please indicate your answer by ticking (ˇ) in the appropriate box, and answer all items

For researcher use

Section I: Background and general information

1- Which year in the Academy: first ☐   second ☐   third ☐   ☐

2- Your grade in English last term:
90-100 (excellent. ☐   89-80 (v.good. ☐
79-70   (good. ☐   69-60 (pass. ☐
59- (fail.   ☐   ☐

3- Age: 18-20 ☐   21-23 ☐   24+   ☐   ☐

4- Nationality: Saudi ☐ Gulf state   ☐   ☐

5 If Saudi, specify city, town or Village: ......

6- Graduated from which

   secondary school:

a. General secondary school   ☐

b. Commercial secondary school   ☐

c. Islamic studies secondary   ☐

   school   ☐

d. Other, specify

Please specify your answer by ticking (ˇ) in the appropriate Box, and answer all items:

For researcher use

	Always	often	s.times	rarely	never	
7- Why did you join the Academy?						
a. to find a better job	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
b. interested in the military to be an officer	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
c. because an officer has a prestigious status in society	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

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d. instructed by member(s.

   of the family ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐   ☐

e. other, specify...................

Always often s.times rarely never

8- Did you enjoy studying

English in secondary school ? ☐   ☐   ☐   ☐   ☐   ☐

9. Have you ever used English outside the Academy?

     Yes ☐   No ☐   ☐

If your answer is (NO. go question 11

10. If your answer is (YES., What are the aspects you used

English for?

a. shopping :   ☐ ☐   ☐   ☐   ☐   ☐

b. travel, tourism   ☐ ☐   ☐   ☐   ☐   ☐

c. socialising with ex-patriot

    English speakers: ☐ ☐   ☐   ☐   ☐   ☐

d. at previous work: ☐ ☐   ☐   ☐   ☐   ☐

e. listening to English

    language media: ☐ ☐   ☐   ☐   ☐   ☐

f. reading English language media: ☐ ☐   ☐   ☐   ☐   ☐

g. other, specify..........

11. When you were applying to the

    Academy, did you know that there was an English course?

     Yes ☐   No ☐   ☐

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12. Rate your ability in English by ticking the appropriate box:

very bad ☐   bad ☐   moderate ☐   good ☐

very good ☐   excellent ☐

☐

13. Rate your ability in each of the following skils:

a. **Reading**

very bad ☐   bad ☐   moderate ☐   good ☐

very good ☐   excellent ☐

☐

b. **Writing**

very bad ☐   bad ☐   moderate ☐   good ☐

very good ☐   excellent ☐

☐

c. **Listening**

very bad ☐   bad ☐   moderate ☐   good ☐

very good ☐   excellent ☐

☐

d. **Speaking**

very bad ☐   bad ☐   moderate ☐   good ☐

very good ☐   excellent ☐

☐

	Always	often	s.times	rarely	never	
14. What criteria do you use to rate your ability?						
a. performance in exams and tasks	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
b. native speaker feedback	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
c. teacher's feedback	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
d. ability to cope in English language situation	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
e. other, specify..........						

15. Please choose the titile of your current Coursebook in English:

a. *ALC* ☐   b. *Command English* ☐

c.*Practical English* ☐   ☐

16. Do you think that your

textbook is helping you in these skills?

☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐   ☐

Second Section: English Language Needs

Please indicate your answer by ticking (˅) in the appropriate box and answer all items

	Always	often	s.times	rarely	never	
17. Do you prefer topics in the coursebooks to be related to military matters?	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

18 Do you think that if the topics are mostly related to

the military field, that:

	Always	often	s.times	rarely	never	
a. encourages you more to learn	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
b. discourages you	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
c.does not make a difference	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

d.Other, specify...........

19. After graduating from the Academy, what English

skills do you think will be most useful?

	Always	often	s.times	rarely	never	
a. Reading weapons and other military equipment instructions.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
b. Writing military letters in correspondence with foreign agencies, officers etc	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
c. Communicating in spoken conversations with other foreign officers, etc.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
d.Studying military matters in English studying military courses overseas in English	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
e. For use in international battlefield communication	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

f. Other, specify..........

English in military activities

20. A knowledge of English is necessary

for me in order to master the:

	Always	often	s.times	rarely	never	
a. principles and techniques of parachute operations	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
b. principles and techniques of fire support operations	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
c. principles and techniques of combat operations	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
d. principles and techniques of intelligence operations	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

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e. principles and techniques of land navigation	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
f. principles and techniques of map interpretation	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
g. operation and use of surveillance equipment	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
h. operation and use of communication instruments	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
i. operation and use of armored vehicles	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
j. operation and use of weapons (guns, explosive,and missiles.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
k. operation and use of ammunition	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
l. repairing and maintaining surveillance equipment	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
m. repairing and maintaining communication equipment	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
n. repairing and maintaining armored vehicles	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
o. repairing and maintaining weapons	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
p. transportation and supply of equipment, weapons, and ammunition	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
q. transportation and supply of troops	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
r. transportation and supply of sick and wounded soldiers	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

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s. supervising the conduct and quality

of military personnel ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐   ☐

t. supervising the distribution and

   control of equipment,

   weapons, and ammunition ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐   ☐

u. supervising and coordinating

   with foreign advisors ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐   ☐

v. maintaining files, records and

   reports ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐   ☐

w. investigating and reporting errors ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐   ☐

x. anything to add, please specify......

Third section: Your attitudes

Part I: towards English people,

From questions 21 onwards, you are asked to state the degree to which you agree or not on some questions and statements about English people, their culture and learning English; it is not necessary that you have met or dealt with these people to answer the questions, we are looking only for your attitudes.

English people and English culture, means are

those who speak English as a native language. Choose

from the three choices the people and the culture that you

associate with learning English

21.A. Americans ☐   British ☐   Australians & New Zealanders ☐   ☐

Choose your appropriate answer by ticking the appropriate box, and answer all items.

	Strongly Agree	agree	neutral	disagree	strongly disagree	
21. I think English people are:						
a. lighthearted	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
b. immoral	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
c. hospitable	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
d. trustworthy	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
e. arrogant	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
f. broadminded	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
g. sociable	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
h. ethnocentric	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
i. hard to deal with	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
j. opportunistic	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
k. cruel	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
l. scientifically-minded	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

n. other, specify ....

Part II To the English Culture

Choose your appropriate answer by ticking the appropriate box, and answer every item.

22. What is your attitude toward this culture?

	Strongly Agree	agree	neutral	disagree	strongly disagree	
a. The people of this culture are ethnocentric	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
b. This culture is scientifically advanced	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

	Strongly Agree	agree	neutral	disagree	strongly disagree	
c. This culture is unique and admirable	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
d. The people of this culture look down on other cultures as inferior	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
e. The life style in this culture is ideal	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
f. The family ties in this culture are strong	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
h. The people suffer from many economic problems in this culture	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
i. Family ties in this culture are loose	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
j. This culture is based on sheer materialistic principles	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
k. This culture is economically efficient	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
l. It is easy for foreigners to adapt to this culture	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
m. It is a superficial culture with no roots	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
n. I would like to mix with English speaking people	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
o. Studying English is important because other people respect the person who speaks it	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
p. English language is an important key to modern life	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
q. Other, specify………						

Part III: Towards Learning English

Strongly / agree/ neutral / disagree/ strongly
Agree   disagree

23. More time should be allocated for English language

instruction in the academy ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ | ☐

24. I do not want or wish to learn any

English, I am not interested ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ | ☐

25. The better my English is, the better

my status will ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ | ☐

26. I allocate time to revise and

study English ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ | ☐

27. When I leave the Academy I would

like to stop studying English becaue

I will not need it ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ | ☐

28.I plan to learn as much English as

possible after leaving the Academy ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ | ☐

29. Learning English is important
   to me because:

a.   I need it to pass exams in the

   Academy ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ | ☐

b. I could need it in my future

   job ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ | ☐

c. It will be required within the military

environment ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ | ☐

d. It is not important at all ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ | ☐

e. other, specify ....

	Strongly Agree	agree	neutral	disagree	strongly disagree	
30 I would want to learn English in the Academy if it was not compulsory	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
31. I enjoy learning English	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

32. Assess the importance of the following in your attitude towards learning English:

a. liking/disliking your teacher	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
b. liking/disliking the content of the content of the coursebooks	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
c. the fact that you are not interested in the English language	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
d. the fact that you feel that you need English	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
e. the interest/non-interest in the lesson	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

f. other specify ....

Thanks a lot for your patience and cooperation.

I wish you the best achievement and success in life

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