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An analysis of the language needs of Social Science students at the University of the West Indies: Implications for assessment and teaching

Thèse

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RÉSUMÉ

La littérature qui existe sur l'analyse des besoins de langue indique que ces études devraient constituer la base du développement des programmes dans les contextes académiques où l'anglais est enseigné. En outre, la recherche sur la situation jamaïcaine souligne les besoins particuliers des locuteurs du créole jamaïcain. Les étudiants entrent dans l'enseignement de l'anglais standard de la Jamaïque dans des contextes d'enseignement supérieur. Le but de cette recherche est d'analyser les besoins des étudiants en sciences sociales de l'Université des West Indies, Mona, Jamaïque, afin de réviser le test d'entrée de l'université et le développement des cours. Les questions de recherche abordent les besoins en compétences de ces étudiants du point de vue de diverses parties prenantes et comme illustré dans les plans de cours. En plus, ils prennent en compte si le test d'entrée reflète ces besoins. L'étude a également exploré dans quelle mesure les besoins variaient selon les départements et les facteurs sociolinguistiques. Dans cette étude à méthodes mixtes, les données ont été collectées par de questionnaires et d'entrevues; les programmes de cours et le test de langue d'entrée ont également été obtenus pour l'analyse des documents. Les participants comprenaient 302 étudiants, 5 professeurs de langues, 8 professeurs de cours de contenu, et 7 membres de l'administration. Les données ont été analysées à l'aide du modèle de caractéristiques des tâches de Bachman et Palmer (2010) ainsi qu'un modèle d'analyse des besoins, axé sur la situation actuelle, la situation cible et l'analyse des écarts. Une analyse MANOVA a été réalisée pour faire un calcul des moyens des besoins linguistiques déclarés des élèves et pour déterminer la relation entre les besoins des élèves et des facteurs tels que le département, l'âge, le sexe, la situation géographique, et le statut socio-économique. Les résultats de l'étude ont indiqué que la lecture était la compétence la plus importante pour la réussite scolaire des étudiants et que la majorité des étudiants jugeaient leurs compétences inférieures aux attentes de l'université à leur égard. Les résultats ont également montré qu'il y avait une inadéquation entre le test d'entrée et la situation cible en termes de validité et un manque entre les attentes les professeurs de la langue et de sciences sociales. D'ailleurs, les besoins des étudiants variaient en fonction de leur département; les étudiants en tourisme ayant le plus grand écart entre leurs compétences et leurs attentes perçues par rapport aux exigences de l'université. Le sexe, la situation géographique, et le statut socioéconomique

peuvent prédire la compétence de l'élève dans certaines habilites linguistiques. Sur la base de ces résultats, nous recommandons qu'un test soit développé qui reflète plus précisément les besoins de la situation cible, ce qui peut être réalisé grâce à la collaboration du département de langue et de la faculté des sciences sociales.

ABSTRACT

The existing literature on needs analysis indicates that these studies should form the basis of curriculum development in contexts where English for Academic Purposes is taught. In addition, the literature on the Jamaican language situation underscores the particular needs of Jamaica Creole speakers entering Jamaica Standard English-medium instruction in higher education contexts. The purpose of this research is to analyze the needs of the Social students at the University of the West Indies, Mona, Jamaica in order to inform the university's entrance test and course development. The research questions address the skills-based needs of these students from the perspectives of various stakeholders and also as reflected in the course syllabi. Additionally, they take into account whether the language entrance test reflects those needs. The study also explored to what extent needs varied according to departments and sociolinguistic factors. In this mixed-method study, data was collected using questionnaires and interviews; course curricula and the university's entrance language test were also obtained for document analysis. The participants included 302 students, 5 language teachers, 8 faculty-specific teachers and 7 administrators. Data was analyzed using Bachman and Palmer's (2010) task characteristics model as well as a needs analysis model, which focused on the present situation, target situation and gap analysis. A MANOVA analysis was carried out to do a means analysis of the reported language needs of the students and to determine the relationship between student needs and factors such as department, age, gender, geographical location and socioeconomic status. The results of the study indicated that reading was the most important skill for the students' academic success and that the majority of the students rated their competences as being lower than the university's expectations of them. The findings also showed there was a mismatch between the entrance test and the target situation in terms of its construct validity and also a mismatch between the expectations of the language and the Social Science teachers. Additionally, the needs of the students varied according to their department with the tourism students having the largest gap between their competences and their perceived expectations of the university's requirements. Gender, geographical location and socioeconomic status were also predictors of the students' competence in certain language skills. Based on these results, we recommend that a test is developed that more accurately reflects the needs of the target situation, which

can be achieved through the collaboration of the department of language and the faculty of Social Sciences.

Key words: language needs analysis, Jamaican English, English for academic purposes, present-situation analysis, target-situation analysis, deficiency analysis

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DEDICATION

This thesis is dedicated to my mother, Edrienne Moodie, may I inherit half her strength.

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My entire life's journey has been based on the premise that if I put God first, then everything else will fall in place. Undoubtedly, the completion of this degree is testament to that promise. Therefore, I must firstly thank God for being with me every step of the way and for giving me the strength to persevere until the end. You have been constant in a period filled with uncertainties. There is no question in my mind that you, who had begun a good work in me, stayed with me until it was completed.

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INTRODUCTION

This mixed-methods study brings light to issues surrounding the language needs of university students in complex language situations. One such language situation exists in Jamaica, where the official language is English, but the language used most extensively by the population is Jamaican Creole (Ministry of Education, Youth, and Culture, 2001). According to a language competence survey carried out with 1000 participants in 2007, 17.1% of the participants reported that they were monolingual speakers of English, 36.5% were monolingual speakers of Jamaican Creole and 46.4% were bilingual speakers of both languages (Jamaica Language Unit, 2007). The Jamaican linguistic context is hard to fit into theories explaining the status of English worldwide (Kachru, 1985). In Jamaica, the majority of students enter primary school speaking Jamaican Creole (Barrett, 2011). This situation has implications for those wishing to pursue tertiary education who must demonstrate that they have a high level of proficiency in English. At the University of the West Indies, for example, those who do not have the required proficiency are expected to take an English Language Proficiency Test (ELPT). The main objective of this study is to explore the English language needs of Social Science undergraduate students at the University of the West Indies in Jamaica with the goal of informing course and test development for students without the required English proficiency for entry.

CHAPTER 1: RESEARCH PROBLEM

1.1 General context of the study

Jamaica is one of many countries in the Caribbean where English is spoken alongside an English-lexified Creole. Though English has official status in Jamaica, there is a wider context to explain the presence of English in the island. Several theoretical models have been used to explain the status of English worldwide. In his critical review of models of world Englishes, Kirkpatrick (2007) writes about the most recognized distinction used in language learning and teaching, which includes English as a native language (ENL), English as a second language (ESL) and English as a foreign language (EFL). In an ENL situation, English is the mother tongue or native language of the population. On the other hand, an ESL context is used to describe a situation where English is officially legislated but not the native language (such as is the case in Jamaica), while the EFL country is one in which English is not regularly used locally. However, Kirkpatrick notes that the ENL/ESL/EFL distinction has drawbacks in that it does not account for the many varieties of English worldwide and that it implies that one variety may be better than the other. Kirkpatrick, however, highlights that Kachru's (1985) influential model does not make these same questionable tacit assumptions.

Kachru (1985) proposes a model of world Englishes based on the historical context of countries and their relationship to processes of colonization. He describes the use and spread of English in terms of three circles: the inner circle, the outer or extended circle, and the expanding circle. Kachru's inner circle represents those countries where English is the main or primary language used and spoken as a native language by the majority of the population, which includes Australia, Canada, New Zealand, the United Kingdom and the United States. The outer circle is historically defined, to the extent that these countries were once colonized by countries within the inner circle. They are characterized by two criteria: (1) typologically, they are classified as bilingual or multilingual with English as a part of that linguistic makeup and (2) English holds official status in the language policy of the country. The outer circle includes countries such as India, Nigeria, Singapore, and Zambia. Finally, the expanding circle includes countries which use English for international uses. Some of

these countries include China, the, Indonesia, Greece, Israel, Japan, Korea, Nepal, Russia, Saudi Arabia, Taiwan, and Zimbabwe.

Kachru (1985) himself makes an association between the ENL/ESL/EFL theory and the theory of concentric circles: where the inner circle refers to ENL situations, the outer circle refers to ESL contexts and the expanding circle refers to EFL conditions. Kirkpatrick (2007) points out that:

> the great advantages of this model [Kachru's] over the ENL/ESL/EFL one are, first, that it makes English plural so that one English becomes many Englishes. Second, the model does not suggest that one variety is any better, linguistically speaking, than any other. (p.28)

These nuances emphasize that there are several varieties of English worldwide rather than one English and also that a language cannot be seen as inherently "better" than another. Despite these theoretical advantages that Kirkpatrick identifies in his review, Kachru's model has been heavily critiqued for assuming that all countries within the same circle possess parallel linguistic situations, while this is not accurate (Jenkins, 2003). For example, based on Kachru's three-circle model, the criteria provided regarding the bilingual/multilingual situation of the country as well as the inclusion of English in its official language policy suggests that Jamaica falls into the outer/extended circle or an ESL context. When we examine other countries classified as Kachru as belonging to the outer circle, we see that the linguistic situations are not the same. In Singapore, for example, English is spoken as one of the first languages, while in Jamaica, English is not spoken as a first language for most of the population. This shows that the language situation in countries placed in the same circle do not mirror each other.

Regardless of these inconsistencies, Kachru's model, in part, provides a way of situating Jamaica in the wider context of world Englishes by demonstrating how Jamaica shares similar historical contexts with other countries in the outer circle (in that it was colonized by an inner circle country). This model can be used to explain the status of English in the country. However, Kachru himself (1985, p. 14) notes that Jamaica is hard to fit into his model of world Englishes because of the complicated language situation there. In other

words, the primarily *historical* and *linguistic* focus of his model does not fully explain the sociolinguistic landscape of the Jamaican language situation today. While Kachru's model can serve as a historical explanation for the presence of English in Jamaica and the ENL/ESL/EFL model does account for the presence of English as a second language (ESL) in the territory, the language situation in Jamaica is too complicated to fit perfectly into either of these models. The mere fact that the language is generally not taught or treated as a second language, but rather a first language highlights the complexity of this issue.

1.1.1   Language situation in Jamaica

Jamaica possesses a unique and hard-to-define linguistic situation. Milson-Whyte (2013) highlights that there is a lack of consensus as to how the Jamaican language situation should be defined (p. 116). According to the Jamaican Language Education Policy (Ministry of Education, Youth and Culture, 2001), Jamaica is classified as being bilingual with Jamaican Creole (JC) as the mother tongue of the majority of the population and Standard Jamaican English (SJE) as the official language. JC is the first language of most Jamaicans, that is, the language which they learn or are exposed to at home. SJE is taught as a first language upon entering formal learning and is also the language of instruction for all other subjects. However, Milson-Whyte (2013) indicates that this teaching of English as a first language is only done because of the lexical similarities of the languages. She further points out that there are "blurred lines" between the two. Jamaican Creole is, indeed, an English-lexified Creole; however, they differ phonologically, semantically and syntactically.

The development of Jamaican Creole was promulgated by the lack of a mutual language amongst the slaves. Jamaica was first captured from the Amerindians by the Spanish in 1494, when Christopher Columbus discovered the island accidentally. In 1655, Jamaica was seized and colonized by the British, who had several slave plantations with slaves imported from the African region. Jamaica Creole is seen as the outcome of contact between these African slaves and English speakers (Patrick, 2007). JC came about out of a need for a mutually intelligible language amongst slaves, who had been taken from various regions in Africa. Therefore, it bears many similarities with English and other African

languages, and even some Spanish due to Jamaica once being a Spanish colony. JC is, however, predominantly an English lexified creole (Patrick, 2007, p. 127). The issue for many Jamaicans, however, is that English is not their mother tongue and cannot be seen as a foreign language to them either (Nero, 2014). This assertion reinforces Kirkpatrick and Kachru's assertion that English in Jamaica is represented by an ESL or outer circle situation, respectively. Nero further adds that this creates "a unique language learning/teaching typology" (p. 226). If English is neither the first language that children learn nor a language that is not familiar to them, then labelling it as a second language would be the most appropriate terminology.

The knowledge of Standard Jamaican English, or the lack thereof, creates several social challenges for the population. Jamaicans tend to be associated with particular social classes by the variety of English/language(s) that they choose to speak. Nero (2014) points out children from more affluent families (upper middle to upper class) have access to the best elementary level schools and also tend to have higher levels of proficiency in English. She further notes that these top-level schools provide them with the best tools to get ready for high stakes examinations (such as the Grade Six Achievement Test), which would guarantee their placement in the best secondary schools. The opposite is true for poor students who attend schools that are primarily government funded. These schools often operate over their recommended student capacity and so do not have many resources to invest into the preparation for these high-stakes tests. As a result, these students have low scores in these high-stakes tests and are not placed in traditional high schools, but rather in technical or vocational-based schools.

Interestingly, the problem does not only pose a challenge in the country itself, but in other countries where Jamaicans have travelled for work or study. Nero (2014) points out that for the last two decades, New York City teachers have struggled to find suitable programs for Jamaicans and other English-speaking Caribbean nationals, who identify as native-English speakers but fail to meet the required level for their academic pursuits. She further draws attention to the growing concern that:

> …to date, policy initiatives to address the language and literacy development of English-lexified Creole, nonstandard English, and World English speakers

within the US have been barely, inconsistently, or ineffectively implemented due to (a) confusion about whether to consider Creoles separate languages or dialects of English; (b) lack of resources and appropriate teacher training; and (c) insufficient knowledge of the language policies and practices to which Creole-speaking children are exposed in their home countries. (p. 222)

These sentiments also ring true for the Jamaican language situation where Jamaican Creole is not seen as a separate language from Jamaican English, where there is virtually no acknowledgement of the second language learning context and where language policies do not adequately address the needs of the population. In fact, the measures in the draft language education policy (MOEYC, 2001) were never accepted by the government because of the issues surrounding the acceptance of Jamaica as a bilingual state (Nero, 2014).

When government organizations do not acknowledge the true linguistic situation in a country, it presents great difficulties for the learner. Nero (2014) also stresses that her efforts to address the situation in New York were met with an unfavourable response by the State Education Department, and that this governmental response reflects negative sentiments in the wider population towards non-standard varieties of English. Moreover, educational policymakers do not understand the place non-standard varieties should have in schools. She states that:

…policies to address the linguistic needs of English-based Creole speakers in schools such as those put forth by New York State Education Department (2011) or the Hawaiian Board of Education (Hawai'i Board of Education 1987), both of which sought to recognize the validity of Creole and use it as a basis for literacy development, have also met with outright resistance, skepticism or under resourced implementation. (p. 225)

Even though the Jamaican government has, in theory, accepted the validity of Creole as a language, it has not accepted or implemented suggestions to incorporate Creole as a basis for literacy development.

Many language policies have been proposed in an attempt to address the dilemma faced by the predominantly Jamaican Creole speaker. In 2001, the Jamaican Language Unit (an organization within the Department of Language, Linguistics and Philosophy at the University of the West Indies (UWI)) proposed amendments to the Jamaican Charter of Rights, which would facilitate the use of both Jamaican Creole and Jamaican Standard English in public government facilities such as hospitals, banks, etc. They also brought to the fore that Jamaicans deserved to be educated in their territorial language, in this case, Jamaican Creole. However, the government of Jamaica has not, to date, accepted these amendments to the Bill of Rights. Therefore, if at the governmental and institutional level the attempts to rectify the situation are being rejected then the ripple effect for the population is that students will not be taught in the way which acknowledges their status as second language learners.

1.1.2   Attitudes toward Jamaican Creole and Standard Jamaican English

One of the major problems with JC and SJE in Jamaica is the lack of delineation between the two. Most persons who speak the former are of the opinion that they are just speaking the latter poorly. In fact, many Jamaicans see JC as bad English or a broken form of English (Christie, 2003). This inability to view the languages as two distinct systems of communication, as opposed to one being an unsophisticated/non-standard version of the other, presents severe challenges for the learning of SJE. Even though linguists can see that there are distinct lexical, phonological and syntactical differences between the two languages, these are nuances that the average Jamaican speaker may not be aware of because JC is so heavily English-lexified. According to Pollard (1986), the students [who speak JC] have the impression that they are speaking SJE. Consequently, they are not compelled to learn the standard because they feel that they are, in fact, speaking English. This lack of recognition of the bilingual situation poses a severe threat to the learner's success in the language. Seargeant (2008) emphasizes that when bilingual speakers are conscious of the fact that they are speaking two separate languages, it will help them to create more meaningful exchanges in both languages. However, he adds that, in contrast, a situation cannot accurately be labelled as bilingual where the speakers, themselves, do not

acknowledge that they are bilingual. Therefore, even though the ministry recognizes the language situation as bilingual, the reality of that description is arguable.

Issues surrounding Jamaican Creole do not affect only those on Jamaican soil. In Illinois, as a part of their Caribbean Academic Program (CAP) educators teach English to Caribbean students. One of the approaches of the CAP program is to confront these language attitudes by providing students with historical and linguistic information to substantiate the claim that these creoles are languages distinct from English though related to it (Adger, 1999). In this way, students will recognize that they are dealing with two separate languages. This approach can be applied to the Jamaican context. Widespread public education about Jamaican Creole would benefit Jamaican students as they would be able to move away from the perception that it is just 'bad English' and move towards a bilingual situation as defined by Seargeant (2008).

Educators such as Bryan (2004) posit that English is being taught in "a Creole-speaking environment" (p. 1). This means that JC is largely seen as an oral language, a point supported by Milson-Whyte (2013). However, in Jamaica, Nero (2014) highlights that most teachers are not trained to handle the peculiarity of the Jamaican language situation in order to facilitate the transition from their mother tongue, JC, to English, their second language. Even though English is not a foreign language to these JC learners, it still poses a significant challenge to them. English is the official language of communication in formal contexts such a parliament, radio, television, news, etc. According to Christie (2003), teachers in the Jamaican classroom often regard children who have not mastered English as being lazy or remedial learners. However, this perception stems from the teachers' failure to recognize that these students are first language speakers of JC and so should be taught as such. In addition, teachers, themselves, are often poor models of Standard Jamaican English (Barrett, 2011).

In the Jamaican population, generally, there are positive attitudes toward speakers of Standard Jamaican English and negative attitudes toward speakers of Jamaican Creole. In 2001, the Jamaica Language Unit conducted an island-wide Language Attitude Survey. It was distributed in English and Jamaican Creole to 1000 participants. According to this Language Attitude Survey (Jamaica Language Unit, 2005), most persons who participated in the survey felt that the English speaker was more intelligent and educated than the JC

speaker. Also, over 90% of the sample felt that an English speaker would have more money than a Patwa (Jamaican Creole) speaker. Therefore, we see that English speakers were viewed in a more positive light overall.

Notwithstanding, the survey reflected that speakers of Jamaican Creole were seen as being more friendly. This reflects that even though a speaker may be perceived as less educated or less wealthy, they were still viewed as more amicable than a Jamaican English speaker. Most of the respondents believed that Jamaican Creole is a language and should be made an official language of the country (Jamaica Language Unit, 2007). Currently, the sole official language of the country is English, even though JC is unofficially recognized worldwide through reggae music. A total of 71% of the respondents thought that a dual-language, JC and English school would be better for children than an English only school; however, it was not asked what that might look like in terms of the role allocated to each language. Most of the respondents (57.3%) did indicate that they would like to see JC in schoolbooks.

Despite these generally positive reported attitudes to JC, the literature also suggests there are some persons (especially men) who associate Standard Jamaican English with effeminacy. Craig (2006) adds that boys especially associate the standard with an oppressive, higher social class (p. 110). Jacobson (1977) points out that societal issues are clear when there are conflicting dialects in a country, to the extent that those who speak a particular one may be deemed as acceptable or unacceptable in certain social settings or classes. Years later, this observation is reflected in the Jamaican society (Craig, 2006, p. 266), where those who speak SJE are viewed as being of a higher social class.

1.1.3   Characteristics of the population

The language spoken by the Jamaican speaker is viewed as indicative of their social and regional background. In Jamaica, there is a creole continuum with the extreme varieties being the standard English (used in formal contexts) and an English-related creole (used mostly in informal contexts) (Patrick, 1999). According to Patrick (2007), the continuum

model comprises a chain of minimally distinct varieties stretching from the acrolect (Standard Jamaican English, SJE) to the most basilect varieties (those furthest from the standard, showing the greatest continuity with their African roots). The basilect has the least influence from SJE. However, the mutual intelligibility of the languages poses a severe challenge for the learners of SJE because the status of the child as a second language learner of the standard language is not clearly recognized (Craig, 2006, p. 109). Even though the grammars of JC and SJE are starkly different, the lexical similarities are enough to make the child feel that he/she is using SJE or that they are well-familiar with it (Craig, 2006, p. 109).

Jamaica is divided into two major divisions: the urban area, which is highly, metropolitan and the rural area, which is not as developed. Within these two divisions, there are upper-, middle- and lower-class settlements. There is a sharp and distinct demarcation between the upper and lower class; however, the middle class is not as clearly defined. The middle class is usually made up of civil servants such as teachers, nurses, policemen, etc. In 1981, Akers established that persons who are monolingual speakers of JC are usually found in isolated rural settlements, lack formal education and belong to the lowest socioeconomic class. Additionally, Christie (2003) points out that if used by the middle to upper class or educated, JC is usually employed for cultural or comical purposes (p. 2). Proficiency in SJE is associated with higher socioeconomic status and educational level (Akers, 1981, p. 8). Bilingual speakers of JC and SJE are capable of code-switching between the two in informal and formal contexts. Jacobson (1977, p. 271) describes a similar situation as bidialectalism, that is, the speaker's ability to use one of two dialects at will depending upon its appropriateness in each situation. However, the Jamaican context involves two separate languages: Jamaican English, which is a dialect of the English language, and Jamaica Creole, which is not a dialect of English. It is interesting to point out as well that according to Pollard (1986, p. 17), teachers' linguistic behaviour is sometimes no different from that of the larger population in that they predominantly use JC even in situations which do not require it.

1.1.4 Language requirements of school-age students in Jamaica

The Ministry of Education, Youth and Culture (MOEYC) (2001) has recommended in its language education policy that JC be used where possible to assist students in coming to an understanding of certain concepts in the classroom. This recommendation implies that the Jamaican government does not see the need for a transitional bilingualism approach to the teaching of Standard Jamaican English, where students would be taught English as a second language. There is no overt transition from the mother tongue (JC) to SJE when the students commence formal education. Barrett (2011) observed that the teachers assume that the children are first language speakers of SJE by using English as the language of instruction and only introducing Creole when a concept is unclear.

An attempt was made by the Jamaica Language Unit to demonstrate the effectiveness of the use of Jamaican Creole alongside SJE in the classroom. This Bilingual Education Project (BEP) was led by Professor Hubert Devonish and Dr. Karen Carpenter between 2004 and 2008. This project involved one classroom in each of three primary schools implementing a 50% JC and 50% SJE bilingual dual immersion approach. After three years in the program, children's scores on measures of SJE literacy skills showed some improvement and they also expressed more positive attitudes towards JC. While at the end of four years, the BEP boys performed better than the non-BEP boys; the BEP girls did not do better than their non-BEP counterparts (Devonish & Carpenter, 2012). These results could lead towards the conclusion that such a project may be more effective with boys rather than girls because of the masculinity associated with the use of Jamaican Creole as opposed to the effeminacy linked with the use of the standard. Questions about the status consciousness of females as opposed to males arise as the girls may have rejected the teaching in Jamaican Creole because of the negative stigma attached to the language. However, the results of the study did not provide enough reason for the government to move toward the introduction of a transitional bilingual program in primary (elementary) schools. The conclusions of the Language Attitude Survey of 2001 that the participants in the study viewed English speakers as more educated, intelligent and wealthy, coincide with the idea that there is a level of status consciousness associated with the language.

1.1.5 The politics of testing in the Jamaican sociolinguistic context

The learning and teaching of English do not exist in a vacuum. As a result, several external factors affect the successful acquisition of the language. Seargeant (2008) stated that local dialects are not defined by their linguistic characteristics but instead by the existing societal norms. The Jamaican language situation epitomizes this point of view, as the status of languages in Jamaica are defined predominantly by social standards. As mentioned before in the thesis, even though linguists have attempted to show the distinctions between JC and SJE, there are still many Jamaicans who view Jamaican Creole as "bad English". Nero (2014) highlights that even though local linguists acknowledge that creoles are autonomous languages, most of the population does not, as a result of the historical and political contexts in which they came about (p. 222).

Standardized tests are created by the Jamaican Ministry of Education and must be strictly utilized at the secondary school level. These tests determine whether these students meet university regulations and requirements. Such testing practices in Jamaica are problematic considering critiques raised by scholars studying high stakes language testing in linguistically complex settings. Nero (2014) indicates that the language and format of standardized exams usually dictate the accepted writing style of the country. The result is that these "standardized tests become the de facto language education policy" (Nero, 2014, p. 239). Shohamy (1998) calls for critical language testing because it assumes that all language testing situations are influenced by factors peripheral to the academic context. In light of this recognition, language testing should be viewed as the outcome of cultural, social, political, educational and ideological parameters that impact the various stakeholders in the testing process. She further adds that

> …bureaucrats use tests to define and standardize language knowledge, to raise proficiency, to communicate educational agendas, and also to give an illusion of action and an excuse for no action. At the school level, principals use school-wide exams to drive teachers to teach, and teachers, in their turn, use tests and quizzes to motivate students to learn and to impose discipline. (p. 338)

Like Nero, Shohamy (1998) underscores that non-standardized languages, such as Ebonics in the United States, are often trumped by the imposition of standardized English tests. This imposition, of the "English-only movement" hinders bilingual education, when English tests are being used as gatekeepers for entrance into colleges. Likewise, in Jamaica, students are barely taught as second language learners much less tested as second language learners.

Educators argue that their personal recommendations for appropriate learning programs for their students are frequently trumped by bureaucratic red tape and government-issued language policies, which are not applicable to the present learning situation. As a result, educational policies often reflect that of the governing political ideology rather than the language needs of the students. This begs to question whether the linguistic needs are more important than the political ideologies of the country. Pennycook (1997) also highlights that "schooling has more to do with cultural politics than knowledge transfer" (p. 262). These issues underline the importance of informing language testing through thorough analysis of the needs from various stakeholders in the institution – not just the government, administrators, teachers or students. We will see that later in the review of the literature that the concept of needs analysis has evolved extensively since its inception. Pennycook (1997) and Benesch (1996) have argued that needs analysis must now have a more critical approach, one which considers factors external to the language learning classroom. These factors include, but are not limited to, the social, political, historical, ideological cultural and linguistic backgrounds in which they take place. Another important context to examine is the academic background of students who enter various institutions of study.

1.2 Specific context of the study (UWI)

The University of the West Indies is the primary tertiary institution in Jamaica, West Indies. Even though the university is home to several faculties, the students of the Faculty of Social Sciences are reported by faculty members as having the weakest performance in academic writing when compared to other faculties (Milson-Whyte, 2015). Student records also indicate that Social Sciences had a high number of students who did not satisfy the university's English entry requirements or who failed the university's entrance test. Of the

2101 Social Science students who entered the UWI in the academic year 2015-2016, approximately 684 of them were exempt from the ELPT and 520 sat the test and passed. However, 897 did not pass the ELPT with a satisfactory grade (Office of the Campus Registrar, personal communication, April 19, 2016). This figure indicates that only 32.6% of the entrants had the English skills required for entry. Craig (2002) cited in Dyche (2013) states that in the Caribbean, "low English proficiency [was] the most critical factor in low educational achievement" (p. 4). This problem is not unique to the Caribbean. For instance, Crossman and Pinchbeck (2012) also did a study on English language learning (ELL) students in Alberta, Canada who had finished high school, but had low proficiency in English reading and writing rendering them incapable of meeting the academic challenges at university.

Currently, the UWI requires that applicants to any faculty should possess "five CSEC [Caribbean Secondary Education Certification] subjects (General Proficiency Grades I-III) or GCE [General Certificate of Education] O'Level/BGCSE [Bahamas General Certificate of Secondary Education] subjects (Grades A-C) which must include English Language" (University of the West Indies, 2017). For the Faculty of Social Sciences, students with a Grade I or II (the equivalent of a letter Grade of A or B) in Cape Communication Studies or those who have passed the English Language Proficiency Test (ELPT) must take FOUN1013, while the others are required to take FOUN1019 (Faculty of Social Sciences, 2016). FOUN1019 is a year-long academic writing course which includes an introductory grammar component, while FOUN1013 is a semester long course, which focuses solely on academic writing. Students must pass one of these courses to be permitted to graduate. FOUN1019 is effectively a remedial English course.

The fundamental concerns of this study include the low achievement of students (less than a Grade I or II) in their English Language or Communication Studies examinations, even though the official language of the country is English. Also, another major concern is the provisions made for students who fail the ELPT and why these students are being allowed to enter the university without the requisite language skills as seen in Figure 1.1. Milson-Whyte (2015) points out that in the same way that the United States "relaxed" their requirements for entry into tertiary institutions between the 1960s and 70s, Jamaica has done

the same. She adds that this lowering of English proficiency matriculation requirements has opened the way for a new generation of entrants to the university who are predominantly Jamaican Creole speakers and not English speakers. Considering these shifting demographics, questions around how and to what degree the needs of Jamaican Creole speakers are being appropriately assessed at the UWI are of critical importance.
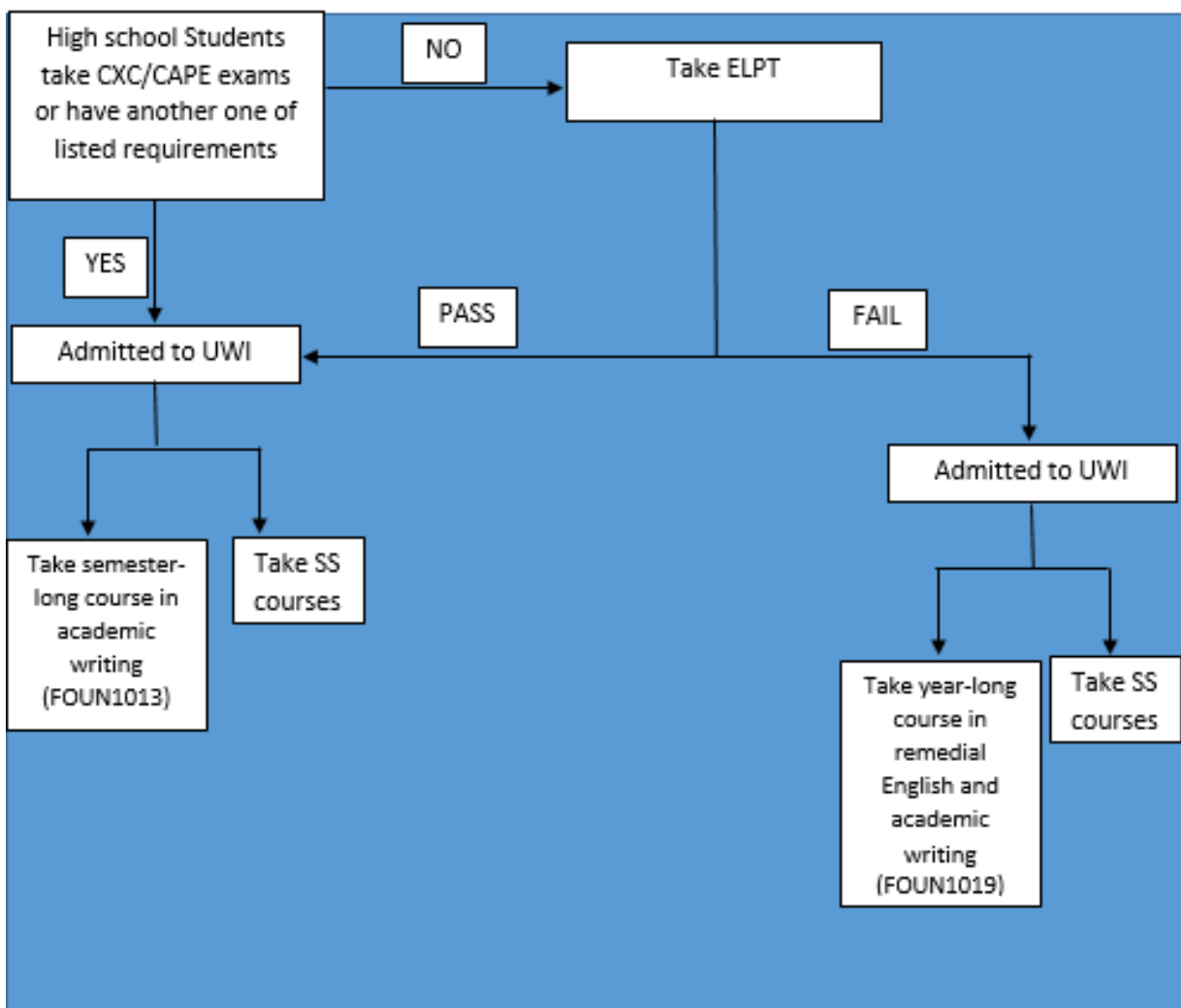
Figure 1.1 Entry path of Social Science students

1.2.1 The English Language Proficiency Test

Some of the standardized English language tests accepted by the university for admission include the Caribbean Secondary Examination Council (CSEC) English A

examinations, the Caribbean Advanced Proficiency Exam (CAPE) Communication Studies, the International English Language Testing System (IELTS), Test of English as a Foreign Language (TOEFL), and the Scholastic Assessment Test (SAT). In Jamaica, the CSEC English A examinations and CAPE Communication Studies are taken by all students in Grade 11 or 12 respectively. Students may leave high school in Grade 11, if they do not intend to pursue higher (tertiary) education. However, if they intend to go to UWI then they must go on to Grades 12 and 13, then graduate again at the end of the two years. These requirements can often be challenging for students whose mother tongue is Jamaican Creole and have not been able to make the appropriate transition between their mother tongue and English.

As seen in Figure 1.1, when students fail to meet English requirements for the University of the West Indies (UWI), they are required to take the English Language Proficiency Test (ELPT). The purpose of the test, as stipulated by the university, is "to assess whether persons applying to pursue undergraduate degree programmes at the UWI Mona campus possess a satisfactory level of writing and reading proficiency in English for academic purposes" (University of the West Indies, 2017). Since it is used as an assessment of the level of the candidates' English writing and reading skills, it can be viewed as a proficiency test as reflected in its name. The ELPT is administered to persons who do not otherwise have satisfactory scores in other standardized English tests. What this means is that if they were successful in passing any of these standardized tests, there would be no need to sit the ELPT as stipulated in the university's guidelines.

There are three (3) sections in the ELPT; they include grammar, reading and writing. Section A focuses on grammar and there are 40 minutes recommended for the completion of this section. Candidates are required to answer multiple choice questions on any or all of the following: grammar of the simple sentence, grammar of complex/compound sentences, idiomatic usage (diction & structures) and writing mechanics and spelling. Section B focuses on reading and there are also 40 minutes recommended for its completion. In this section, candidates are required to read at least one passage and respond to multiple choice questions on several related areas. These include main &/or secondary ideas, literal and figurative meaning, explicit and implicit meaning, the writer's primary

intention/attitude/tone and the organizational structure of the passage. The final part, section C focuses on writing. There are two 2 tasks in the section and this time, candidate have 80 minutes to respond. For the first task, the candidates are asked to write a 300-word essay on a general topic of interest. For the second task, candidates are required to write approximately 250 words describing numerical data contained in a table or in a graphical illustration. Approximately 15 minutes of the test time is reserved for administrative matters.

In 2012, the results of the test were used to determine whether the individual should gain entrance into the university even if their other requirements are met. This indicates that the test was a high stakes test as the decisions made from the test were "likely to have major impact on the lives of large numbers of individuals, or on large programs" (Bachman and Palmer, 1996, p.96). Persons could have either passed the test, failed it or be recommended for an additional course (UC010 – The Fundamentals of English) that will aid in the development of their academic writing skills. The test scores were therefore interpreted in the following ways:

1) A PASS result indicates that you have been successful in the English Language Proficiency Test. Should you not receive admission for the present academic year, this result remains valid for five (5) years.
2) A UC010 result indicates the need for remedial work and requires you to register for the 'Fundamentals of English' course upon entry. Should you not receive admission for the present academic year, and should you re apply for entry into the undergraduate degree programme, you will be required to re-sit the test.
3) A FAIL result indicates that you have not been successful in the English Language Proficiency Test. Should you re-apply for entry into the undergraduate degree programme, you will be required to re-sit the test.

(UWI, 2019)

English Language is a basic requirement for entry into any program. Therefore, the test was used for selection purposes, in that, it assists in deciding which candidates should gain entrance into the university. The secondary purpose is to place the test-takers in the appropriate language course that will aid in the development of their academic writing skills.

Even those who pass the test are required to do academic writing courses, but the test helps in determining at which level this should be done.

Since 2013, there have been changes to the interpretation of the test results. Instead of the possibility of passing or failing the test, students now receive a grade of 1 or 2. According to the ELPT website:

> A 1 result indicates that the English Language Proficiency prerequisite for UWI Mona English Language Foundation Courses has been SATISFIED. You are permitted to register for these courses and are not required to re-sit the ELPT. Should you not receive admission for the present academic year, this result remains valid for five (5) years. A 2 result indicates that the English Language Proficiency prerequisite for UWI Mona English Language Foundation Courses has NOT been SATISFIED and requires you to register for the 'Reading and Writing in the Disciplines' course (FOUN1019) upon entry. Should you not receive admission for the present academic year, and should you re-apply for entry into the undergraduate degree programme, you will be required to re-sit the test.
>
> (UWI, 2019)

This change in the interpretation of the results suggests that there are students who do not have the requisite level of English enrolled in the university's programs.

1.3 Research problem

The main objective of this study is to identify the English language needs of Social Science undergraduate students with the goal of informing test and course development, as well as overall teaching practices at the UWI. The research is necessary because, to date, there has been no systematic analysis of the needs of incoming Social Science students at this university. Therefore, this research explores unprecedented grounds where this is concerned. The Jamaican language situation is also reflective of the linguistic situations in several other Caribbean territories which were once under colonial rule. In these countries, the language of the colonial power remains the official language of the countries, but it exists alongside a creole which is more widely spoken. In Jamaica, even though the mother tongue of most students is Jamaican Creole, the language of instruction is English. Additionally, students must write academic papers and do advanced level reading in English.

There is a high rate of failure to meet the English requirements of the university in the Social Sciences. In fact, in 2016, 67% of Social Science entrants did not have the required English grades for entry (Office of the Campus Registrar, personal communication, April 19, 2016). As a result, these students who fail to meet these English requirements must take the ELPT. If they pass the ELPT, they are admitted into the regular program. If not, they must take an additional semester in remedial English. The ELPT is primarily used as a placement test, even though it is labeled as a proficiency test. This means that it is mainly used to ascertain if students will be required to do a semester-long course in academic writing or a year-long course in remedial English in one semester and, then, academic writing in the other. Whether or not the test is an accurate measurement of the skills that will be evaluated in the students' course of study is unclear. Neither is it apparent if those who pass the ELPT are then better able to meet the demands of the university context, in which they find themselves.

1.4 Research questions

Based on the foregoing, the current study seeks to identify the English language needs of Social Science students at UWI by answering six research questions.

1. What are the skills-based language abilities that undergraduate Social Science (SS) students need in order to be successful in their language and Social Science courses, according to the course syllabi?

2. To what extent does the ELPT measure the skills required in their language and SS courses?

3. What are the self-assessed language needs of FOUN1019 (entering) Social Science students at UWI?

4. What are the skills-based language abilities that undergraduate Social Science students need in order to be successful in their studies at the University of the West Indies (UWI)? As reported by:

    a)   Faculty-specific teachers

    b)   Language teachers

    c)   In-program (returning) Social Science students

    d)   Administrators

5. In what ways do these language needs differ across the various departments within the faculty of Social Sciences?

6. What is the relationship between the participants' age, gender, socioeconomic status, geographical location and the self-assessed language needs of the students?

CHAPTER 2 CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

The fundamental concern of this research is the language abilities that Social Science students at the UWI must possess to be successful in their course of study (the target situation). This issue brings to light the idea of language knowledge and what that entails. What students need to know can be examined from various perspectives; however, in this study, we take a communicative competence approach. Harding (2014) highlights that the "communicative approach has become the dominant paradigm in modern language testing" (p.188). Predominant models of language knowledge in the domain of second language research currently highlight the importance of communicative competence (Canale, 1983; Canale and Swain, 1980; Celce-Murcia et al, 1995; Hymes, 1972). I will, firstly, examine how the concept of communicative competence has evolved over the years, to justify the use of Bachman and Palmer's 2010 conceptualization of communicative competence as a fitting conceptual framework for the task-based approach to this study. Then, I will explore the historical development of needs analysis in order to arrive at a combination of present-situation, target-situation and gap analyses (the discrepancy between the present and target situation) as a means to justify the needs analysis approach.

2.1 Communicative Competence (CC)

The concept of competence was first introduced by Chomsky in 1965 when he made the distinction between competence and performance. He stated that competence refers to the "speaker-hearer's knowledge of his language" (p.4), while performance refers to "the actual use of the language in concrete situations" (p. 4). This view of competence proposed by Chomsky focused solely on grammatical competence. However, Hymes (1972) pointed out that Chomsky's notions of competence and performance did not account for the sociocultural context of the utterance. He argued that competence should not just be limited to grammatical knowledge, but must include four components – systemic potential, appropriateness, feasibility and occurrence. The latter three components focused on whether an utterance was acceptable, possible or present in specific contexts.

Beyond an understanding of the correctness or incorrectness of an utterance, Canale and Swain (1980) proposed that a definition of communicative competence must underscore the interaction of both a grammatical and a sociolinguistic component. They further outlined a conceptual framework for communicative competence, which included "rules of grammar, sociocultural rules of use, rules of discourse, probability rules of occurrence and communication strategies" (p. 40). This framework allows for not only the consideration of grammatical factors, but also extralinguistic factors such as the sociohistorical and political context.

Challenges to their model of communicative competence led Canale (1983) to classify communicative competence into four distinct categories: linguistic, pragmatic, strategic and discourse, emphasizing discourse competence as being a separate construct from mere knowledge of sociocultural rules because it highlighted the speaker's ability to interpret meaning beyond the surface level. Discourse competence relates to the cohesion and coherence of a string of utterances, while strategic competence describes the knowledge of how to apply communicative skills in the right context. Kramsch (1986) highlights that proficiency does not automatically lead to the interactional competence necessary to communicate effectively. Linguistic competence refers to knowledge of the lexical, morphological, grammatical and other aspects of the language. Pragmatic competence is mainly concerned with the relationship between the form and function of an illocution.

Celce-Murcia et al. (1995) introduced a model of communicative competence that was pedagogically motivated. This model put forward that communicative competence must include discourse, linguistic, actional, sociocultural and strategic competence. Discourse competence was viewed as being the most integral competence, while strategic competence encompassed the appropriate use of all the other competences in context.

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Chomsky          Hymes          Canale and Swain      Canale         Celce-Murcia et al.
(1957, 1965)   (1967, 1972)        (1980)             (1983)             (1995)
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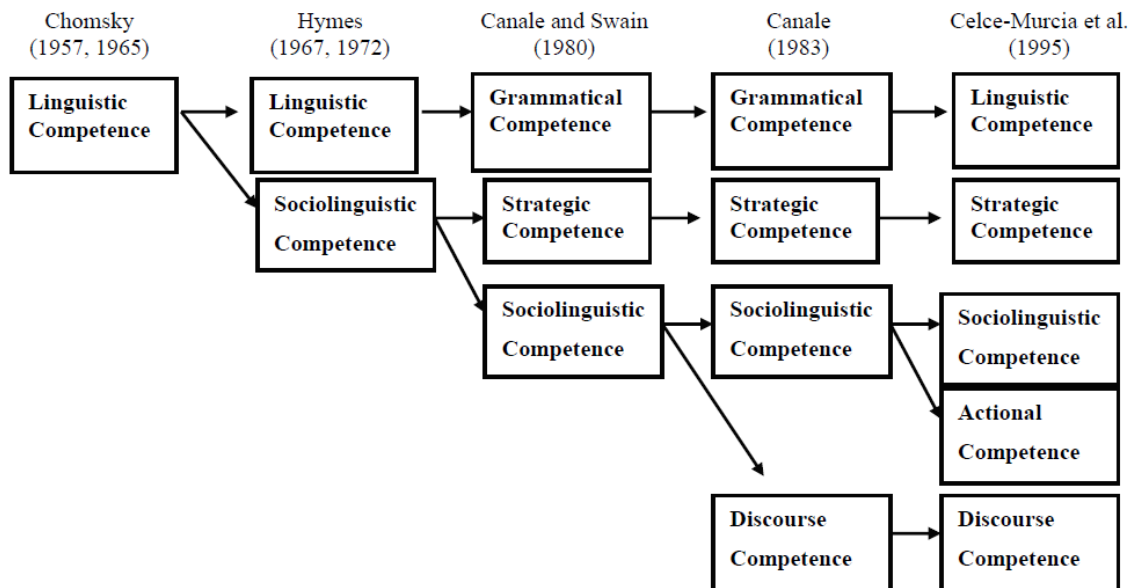
Figure 2.1 Chronological evolution of 'communicative competence' in Celce-Murcia (2007, p.43)

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Whether it was called linguistic or grammatical knowledge, grammatical knowledge is the common thread running through all models of communicative competence. What has changed over the years is the view of sociolinguistic competence and what it entails. Regardless, a view of communicative competence no longer relies on just linguistic competence but must also include extralinguistic factors as seen in the evolution of the concept in Figure 2.1.
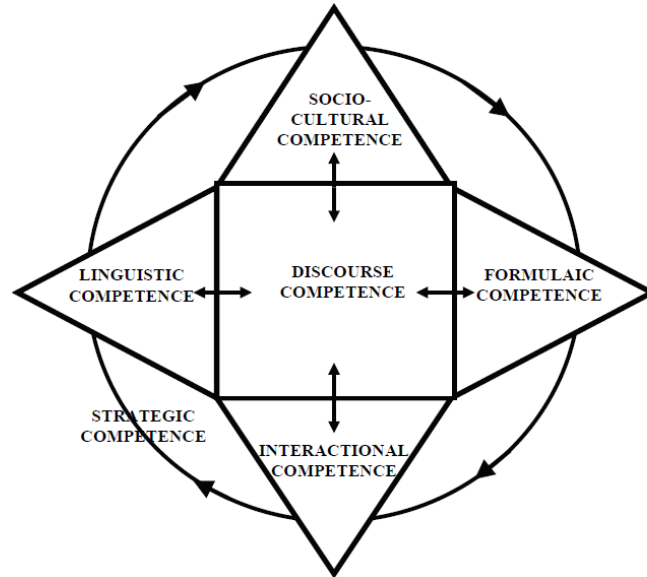
Figure 2.2 Revised schematic representation of communicative competence (Celce-Murcia, 2007, p. 45)

In this later model by Celce-Murcia (2007), actional competence is replaced by formulaic and interactional competence. Formulaic competence refers to the idea that speakers are required to use certain routine phrases in their everyday conversation which exhibit their competence in the language. Interactional competence actually includes both actional (knowledge of how to perform speech acts) and conversational competence (knowledge of appropriate turn-taking). These skills were necessary for the language learner to effectively communicate in various contexts.

While earlier discussions of communicative competence had been discussed within the context of language learning, in 1990, Bachman recognized the need to examine communicative competence from an assessment point of view. Bachman (1990) introduced the concept of communicative language ability, which is defined as "both knowledge, or competence, and the capacity for implementing, or executing that competence in appropriate, contextualized communicative language use" (p. 84). He categorized the framework into three segments: language competence, strategic competence and psychophysiological

mechanisms. He highlighted that strategic competence provided the link between our linguistic knowledge and the context of language use, for example in an academic context.

Bachman and Palmer's (1996) model of communicative language abilities further advanced the concept of communicative language ability and emphasized that language knowledge was focused globally on two different types of knowledge – organizational and pragmatic. Organizational knowledge included textual and grammatical knowledge, while pragmatic knowledge involved lexical, functional and sociolinguistic knowledge. What in an earlier model Bachman (1990) had referred to as strategic competence, Bachman and Palmer (1996) defined as (meta)cognitive skills. These metacognitive skills or strategies are used to appropriately interpret, and act based on input from a specific language use situation.

Organizational knowledge
(how utterances or sentences and texts are organized)

Grammatical knowledge
(how individual utterances or sentences are organized)

Knowledge of vocabulary
Knowledge of syntax
Knowledge of phonology/graphology

Textual knowledge
(how utterances or sentences are organized to form texts)

Knowledge of cohesion
Knowledge of rhetorical or conversational organization

Pragmatic knowledge
(how utterances or sentences and texts are related to the communicative goals of the language user and to the features of the language use setting)

Functional knowledge
(how utterances or sentences and texts are related to the communicative goals of language users)

Knowledge of ideational functions
Knowledge of manipulative functions
Knowledge of heuristic functions
Knowledge of imaginative functions

Sociolinguistic knowledge
(how utterances or sentences and texts are related to features of the language use setting)

Knowledge of dialects/varieties
Knowledge of registers
Knowledge of natural or idiomatic expressions
Knowledge of cultural references and figures of speech

Figure 2.3 Areas of language knowledge (Bachman and Palmer, 1996, p.68)

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Celce-Murcia's (2007) revision of the concept of communicative competence seems to focus on competence (see Figure 2.2), but not on the metacognitive skills necessary to transfer this competence into usable language skills. Bachman and Palmer's (1996, 2010) model of communicative competence provides this essential element that makes it the preferable conceptual framework for this study.

Bachman and Palmer (1996, 2010) also provide a means of analyzing task characteristics in assessment and testing. This detailed framework allows for an analysis of the characteristics of the setting, characteristics of the test rubric, and characteristics of the input. A detailed description of each component can be seen in the figure 2.4.

Task characteristics

Characteristics of the setting

Physical characteristics
Participants
Time of task

Characteristics of the test rubrics

Instructions

Language (native, target)
Channel (aural, visual)
Specification of procedures and tasks

Structure

Number of parts/tasks
Salience of parts/tasks
Sequence of parts/tasks
Relative importance of parts/tasks
Number of tasks/items per part

Time allotment
Scoring method

Criteria for correctness
Procedures for scoring the response
Explicitness of criteria and procedures

Characteristics of the input

Format

Channel (aural, visual)
Form (language, non-language, both)
Language (native, target, both)
Length
Type (item, prompt)
Degree of speededness
Vehicle ('live', 'reproduced', both)

Language of input

Language characteristics
Organizational characteristics

Grammatical (vocabulary, syntax, phonology, graphology)
Textual (cohesion, rhetorical/conversational organization)

Pragmatic characteristics

Functional (ideational, manipulative, heuristic, imaginative)
Sociolinguistic (dialect/variety, register, naturalness, cultural references and
figurative language)

Topical characteristics

Figure 2.4 Task characteristics (Bachman and Palmer, 1996, p. 49-50)

While the analysis of the task characteristics provides a basis for the analysis, it is Bachman and Palmer's evaluation of test usefulness which is used to indicate whether there is a match or mismatch emerging from the analysis. Bachman and Palmer's (1996) model of test usefulness consists of six components: reliability, construct validity, authenticity, interactiveness, impact, and practicality. Reliability has to do with the consistency of the test across each sitting. Construct validity is concerned with the interpretation and conclusions derived from the test scores and whether these conclusions are appropriate. Authenticity refers to the match or mismatch between the characteristics of the test task and the characteristics of the tasks required in the target language use situation i.e. the students' courses. Interactiveness explores the extent to which the test takers' individual characteristics i.e. their language and topical knowledge, metacognitive strategies, and affective schema are instrumental in the completion of the test. Impact can be viewed from two perspectives: the general context of the study (macro-level) and the specific context of the study (micro-level). This component has to do with the impact that the test results have on the society at large and the education system as opposed to the individual him/herself. Finally, practicality refers to the feasibility of implementing the test based on the resources available to the institution.

Bachman and Palmer (1996) emphasize that all these components should be taken into consideration in test development as they are complimentary. The challenge with this model, however, is that different stakeholders may place more emphasis on specific components of the model as opposed to others resulting in a highly subjective analysis, an issue which Bachman and Palmer also highlight. Therefore, the test developer is left to determine which aspects are more crucial for the particular context. For example, an institution may place great emphasis on authenticity, but practically may not have the resources to implement a truly authentic test. Another issue is washback (or backwash) which Hughes (2003) describes as "the effect of testing on teaching and learning" (p.1). Washback can be positive or negative, especially if there are concerns surrounding the validity of the test and how the results are interpreted and used. These considerations have a significant impact on the development and implementation of the test.

2.1.1 Conceptual framework of CC adopted in this study

While earlier models of communicative competence were useful in the examination of communicative competence in language learning (Canale and Swain, 1980; Canale, 1983; Hymes, 1972) and language teaching (Celce-Murcia et al, 1995), Bachman and Palmer's (1996, 2010) concept of communicative language abilities is directly related to assessment and testing. Therefore, this model is more appropriate for the examination of the course curricula and entrance test being examined in this study. It facilitates in-depth and detailed analysis of the language abilities and tasks necessary for academic success in the target language use domain, i.e. Social Science courses at the UWI. In addition, Bachman and Palmer (1996) evaluation of test usefulness will be used to assess whether the test constructs authentically represent the tasks required in the target language use situation. Buck (2001) proposes the use of a construct in which the test tasks reflect hypothesized competences (as cited in Harding 2014, p. 190). With that view in mind, this study examines the extent to which the entrance test reflects the competences needed in the university context. Bachman and Palmer (1996) define the target language use (TLU) domain as tasks that a test-taker, for example, will be required to come face to face with outside of the test situation i.e. in the target situation such as their content courses. They also categorize these skills in terms of macro-constructs i.e. overall abilities being measured and tasks in terms of micro-constructs, i.e. the specific characteristics of these abilities.

For the purpose of this study, the skills that will be analyzed include reading, writing, speaking and listening in various contexts, which Bachman and Palmer (2010) more aptly refer to as language use abilities. Micro-constructs will refer to the more precise abilities required in these macro-constructs. For example, a macro-construct such as reading academic papers will encompass several micro-constructs including knowledge of syntax, academic vocabulary, cohesion, rhetorical organization (structure) and so on. Harsch (2014) highlights that assessing sub-skills provides "fine-grained and meaningful feedback" (p.154). The relationship between testing and the target language use (TLU) context is that a test should reflect the skills that the test-taker will need to successfully navigate the target environment.

2.2 Needs Analysis

Just as no medical intervention would be prescribed before a thorough diagnosis of what ails the patient, so no language teaching program should be designed without a thorough needs analysis.

(Long, 2005, p. 1)

2.2.1 History of Needs Analysis (NA)

The term 'analysis of needs' in relation to language was conceptualised in the 1920s (West, 1997). In the 1970s, Munby (1981) advanced the work on needs analysis by coming up with the concept of communicative syllabus design. This communicative syllabus design included specific variables which assist the language learner in the attainment of his/her goals. In other words, the conduction of a needs analysis would serve a utilitarian purpose of informing course development. Dudley-Evans and St. John (1998, p. 121) also argue that a needs analysis is the "process of establishing the *what* and the *how* of a course". While this definition is limited in its scope, Brown (2009) further defines needs analysis as "the systematic collection and analysis of all information necessary for defining a defensible curriculum", which he defines as one which matches the needs of both the learner and the teacher (p. 269).

Five different concepts of needs analysis have evolved over the years: target-situation needs analysis, deficiency analysis, strategy analysis, means analysis and language audit (West, 1997, pp.71-72). These concepts have further been developed into 11 analysis options illustrated in Brown (2016). These include target-situation use analyses, target-situation linguistic analyses, target-situation learning analyses, present-situation analyses, gap analyses, individual-differences analyses, rights analyses, classroom-learning analyses, classroom-teaching analyses, means analyses and language audits.

Target-situation analysis dominated the 1970s and even extended into the 1980s. Target-situation needs analysis is one in which "the language requirements of the target

situation were identified by contemplating, questioning or observing those already in the situation" (West, 1997, p. 71). While an assessment of the target situation is essential, it is not a learner-centred approach. Dudley-Evans and St. John (1998, p. 124) also speak about the target-situation analysis (TSA); however, they add two other dimensions: the learning situation analysis (LSA) and the present-situation analysis (PSA). They highlight that "a TSA includes objective, perceived and process-oriented needs; an LSA includes subjective, felt and process-oriented needs; a PSA estimates strengths and weaknesses in language, skills, learning experiences" (p. 124). This view of needs analysis is currently represented as three different types of analyses in Brown (2016) where the target situation may be analyzed in terms of use of the language, linguistic features or learning features.

According to West (1997), deficiency analysis was introduced in the 1980s. Deficiency analysis addresses one of the main shortcomings of target-situation needs analysis. This inadequacy is that it did not take into consideration the level of proficiency of the learner. Therefore, the gap between the present need of learners and their target needs could not be measured (West, 1997, p. 71). Similarly, Berwick's (1989) discrepancy analysis describes the "discrepancy between what people know and what they ought to know" (p.53). He highlights, however, that one of the disadvantages of this approach is that areas that are difficult to measure are often omitted from the assessment. Brown (2016) refers to discrepancy analysis as gap analysis, as the name suggests, i.e. the gap between what the learners know and what they need to know is assessed.

Another type of needs analysis which became widespread in the 1980s is strategy analysis. In this type of analysis, one aims to "establish the learners' preference in terms of learning styles and strategies, or teaching methods" (West, 1997, p.71). This type of analysis can be likened to Brown (2016)'s individual differences analysis, which focuses on best learning practices for the individual.

The other type of analysis that emerged in this decade is means analysis. Under a means analysis, there is an examination of the teaching environment and an assessment of the potential opportunities and constraints (West, 1997, p.71). Brown (2016) further adds that means analysis involves not just analyzing the contextual constrains but also the strengths. Set-menu analysis was introduced later and is an approach in which there is a range of

learning options which learners can choose from based on a self-identification of their needs (West, 1997). In this way, learners are able to select the program that is most suited to their language needs. Computer-based needs analysis is another type of needs analysis which is simply a computerized target-situation needs analysis (West, 1997). This method became widely recognized in the 1990s and is still very prominent today.

The final type of analysis discussed by West (1997) is a language audit, which encompasses all these other types of language analyses. A language audit differs slightly from a needs analysis, in that, while a needs analysis "provides detailed information about the needs of individuals, and occasionally of much larger social groups, a language audit takes institutions or organizations as the unit of analysis and is usually conducted through a quantified general survey" (Long, 2005, p. 41). In addition, Brown (2016) indicates that language audits have the purpose of recommending which language policies should be implemented. West (1997) also points to the importance of examining how constraints or "external factors" (p. 4) such as culture and attitudes can impact the determination of language needs.

Stage	Period	Focus		Scope of analysis	Examples
1	early 1970s	ESP	EOP	target situation analysis	Richterich, 1971/1980 ELTDU, 1970 Stuart & Lee, 1972/85
2	later 1970s		EAP	target situation analysis	Jordan & Mackay, 1973 Mackay, 1978
3	1980s	ESP & general language teaching		target situation analysis deficiency analysis strategy analysis means analysis language audits	Tarone & Yule, 1989 Allwright & Allwright, 1977 Allwright, 1982 Holliday & Cooke, 1982 Pilbeam, 1979
4	early 1990s	ESP		integrated/computer-based analyses materials selection	Jones, 1991 Nelson, 1993

Figure 2.5 Chronological development of the scope of needs analysis (West, 1994)

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West (1994) also pointed out that, in the 1970s, needs analysis was examined from an English for Specific Purposes (ESP) approach. This refers to, for example, the use of English in a vocational or academic context such as a job or school. ESP was further broken down into two major sections – English for Academic Purposes (EAP) and English for Occupational Purposes (EOP), the former referring to the use of English in learning institutions and the latter to work-related uses (West, 1997). In the early 1970s, the focus was on English for Specific Purposes and more directly English for Occupational Purposes (West, 1997). By the late 1970s, the focus had shifted to include English for Academic Purposes. In later years, there was a general tendency for needs analysis to focus on the ESP approach. However, since this study takes place at a university, it will focus on an English for Academic Purposes approach.

According to Benesch (1996), an English for Academic Purposes approach is most appropriate for conducting a needs analysis in an academic setting. This approach involves a target-situation analysis, which is a subset of any deficiency analysis in that the target must be assessed before determining the linguistic gaps of the learner. Helmer (2013) also asserts that more often than not the appropriate diagnosis for the student is ascertained through a combination of present-situation and target-situation analyses. In these situations, the target situation allows for the target language use (TLU) context to define the diagnostic test constructs. In many instances, however, schools do not have the resources to test all the skills reflected in the target situation. Roever and McNamara (2006) point out that:

> […] it could be argued that academic language proficiency necessarily involves oral abilities, for example to participate in discussions and give in-class presentations. These skills are not [usually] part of the test, so the construct is not fully assessed, and inferences are not completely trustworthy. (p. 244)

This has severe implications for the construct validity of any proposed test. According to Bachman and Palmer (1996), construct validity refers to "the extent to which we can interpret a given test score as an indicator of the ability or constructs we want to measure" (p. 21). If the test does not measure the constructs of the target situation, the result of this is construct under-representation. This implies that a test is inadequate because it is "too narrow" and

lacks elements that accurately reflect the test construct (Messick, 1996). In essence, the test falls short in terms of what it should include.

Berwick (1989) observes that tests are often difficult to use to assess required language skills, to the extent that tests may measure grammatical competence, but not communicative competence. This is true as it is difficult to ascertain how the needs should be interpreted. It is also challenging when the TLU context has both oral and written components. This is the case for students enrolled in various programs at the UWI where they are not only tested through written final examinations and term papers, but also oral presentations which test their oral competence in the English language. With over 2000 students taking an entrance test, it may be quite an arduous task to test them all for oral language skills. These specifics of the context make language needs analyses challenging and highlight the importance that they are tailor-made to ascertain the specific needs of the environment.

Hwang (2011) points out that there are three fundamental key elements in needs analysis: "(1) the target group (2) their needs and (3) the situations in which they will use the foreign language" (pp. 138-139). Though Jamaica does not present a foreign language learning situation but rather a second language situation, this view of needs analysis is applicable because, much like a foreign language, JSE is used in very specific situations and for specific purposes. Therefore, the use of the English language in a student's daily life outside the classroom is typically quite limited.

2.2.2 Conceptual framework of NA adopted in this study

As seen in the previous section 2.2, there are several approaches to needs analysis; however, none of them individually are able to capture the depth and breadth of this study adequately. This research focuses on a combination of present-situation analysis, target-situation analysis, and discrepancy analysis. On its own, a present-situation analysis does not help to pinpoint the overall needs of the students as it can be subjective; however, when coupled with an analysis of the target situation and then examining the deficiency between

the two, a rigorous needs analysis will be done. A gap analysis is done of the students' perceived language skills and their target language skills, as reported by themselves and the teachers and administrators. This analysis helps to ascertain the gap between what the students believe they know and what they need to know.

There are many approaches to the implementation of a needs analysis, which are influenced by the theories surrounding needs analysis development. According to West (1994), for example, it is standard procedure to carry out the majority of the needs analysis before the start of the course, but the analysis must be done again throughout the duration of the course, so that it is seen as a continuous process. This approach argues for an examination of the present situation at the beginning of the course and also periodically throughout. In this way, it is possible to compare their present situation to the target they are expected to reach. This type of approach allows the researcher to identify the gap between what they have and what is needed to identify ways of filling this gap.

Though an assessment of the students' current skills and those they are required to have is germane to the needs analysis, there are also several other crucial factors to consider in conducting a needs analysis. These include the resources available and the various stakeholders in the institution. Hughes (2003) emphasizes the importance of assessing the needs from various stakeholders at the institution. McCawley (2009) also highlights elements to be included in a needs analysis in education, in no particular order. These include writing objectives, selecting the audience, collecting data, selecting a sample, picking an instrument, and analyzing data. After all these steps, the needs assessor is encouraged to follow up by implementing the recommendations of the needs analysis. Bachman and Palmer (1996) highlight that a needs analysis should take the following steps:

1.   Identify the stakeholders who are familiar with relevant language use situations, who can help identify the relevant domain and tasks
2.   Identify or develop procedures for gathering information about tasks
3.   Gather information on the domain and tasks in collaboration with stakeholders
4.   Analyze the task in terms of task characteristics
5.   Make an initial grouping of tasks with similar characteristics. (p.102)

These steps inform the procedure of the needs analysis for research questions 1 and 2 which include document analyses of the language and content course outlines, and the university's entrance test.

However, another set of procedures is used in the analysis of research question 3 to 6. Though an EAP approach is commonly used in academic settings, an ESP approach in more suitable for the present study. Hyland (2002) argues that ESP is an appropriate approach to language teaching because of the "identification of the specific language features, discourse practices and communicative skills of target groups, and on teaching practices that recognize the particular subject-matter needs and expertise of the learners" (p.385). Dudley-Evans and St. John (1998) uses an ESP approach to needs analysis in a professional environment; however, this approach can be adapted to an academic setting. They elaborate that the practice of needs analysis in ESP entails determining the following elements:

Table 2.1 Application of Dudley-Evans and St. John (1998) ESP approach to EAP context

Elements of NA in an ESP context (Dudley-Evans and St. John, 1998, p.125)	Application to EAP study
A) Professional information about the learners: the tasks and activities learners are/will be using English for	A) Academic information about the learners: requirements of content courses (target situation 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	B) Demographic information about the learners (age, geographical location, socioeconomic status, gender): external factors which may affect learning

C) English language information about the learners: what their current skills and language use are	C) Same as ESP context (Present situation analysis)
D) The learners' lacks: the gaps between (C) and (A)	D) Same as ESP context (Gap analysis)
E) Language learning information: effective ways of learning the skills and language in (D)	E) Language learning information: requirements of language courses
F) Professional communication information about (A): knowledge of how language skills are used in the target situation	F) Professional communication information about (A): knowledge of how language skills are used in the target situation from the perspective of the teachers and administrators
G) What is wanted from the course	G) Same as ESP context
H) Information about the environment in which the course will be run	H) Same as ESP context

Even though this set of procedures is applicable to a professional environment, certain aspects of this approach are relevant to needs analysis in an academic setting as seen in the right column. Component A involves identifying the target language use (TLU) context. For example, if the students are candidates for positions at the university, then language-related tasks required in such academic contexts should be identified and their characteristics defined. These tasks include, but are not limited to, listening to lectures, writing papers, doing presentations, reading academic material and collecting and analyzing data. This element is addressed in my study, which involves an examination of the course curricula and ELPT, highlighted in research questions 1 and 2. Component B refers to the external factors that may have an impact on learning. The personal circumstances of the learner define them. For example, if a learner has lived in a country where the target language also happens to be the

official language then this will have a significant impact on their success, as opposed to a situation where the target language is a foreign language.

Component C involves doing an assessment of the language skills that the learners have at their disposal. This includes what language (s) they use actively and what languages they know. These language skills are explored in research questions 3 and 4 which involves a task-based assessment of the needs of the students according to various stakeholders. Component D addresses the shortfalls between the target language situation, the present linguistic situation and the external constraints of the learner. This is the difference between what they need to know and what they actually know. Research question 3 focuses on this discrepancy. The external constraints such as their geographical location and socioeconomic status will be addressed in research question 6. Component E involves identifying what are the best language learning strategies to bridge the gaps between A and C. The teacher is responsible for determining what is the most suitable approach to address gaps in the learners' proficiency.

Component F involves tracing the direct link between the various language skills and the target situations in which they will be used. For example, when students are required to write a paper, they will have to use their reading and writing skills. Component G necessitates the determination of what is expected from the course by both the students and teachers. This information can be obtained from the course outline and directly from the participants' themselves. Component H refers to the setting or the physical conditions under which the course will take place. Physical conditions include whether the classes will be conducted via the internet or in a physical classroom, how many students will be present, among other characteristics. The needs analysis manager must determine the best methods to collect this information. While the sociopolitical context of the university setting is examined, this particular study does not focus on the physical setting of the courses and ELPT. This set of procedures is reflective of the underlying conceptual framework being used in this study and will be adapted to suit the specific target context.

CHAPTER 3 REVIEW OF LITERATURE

The present study focuses on needs analysis in a tertiary institution in the Caribbean; therefore, it is essential to examine recent and relevant literature related to needs analysis in higher education institutions in particular as pertaining to Caribbean contexts. In the first section, I critically review needs analysis methodologies, especially with regards to the primary data sources and data collection tools used in current research (3.1). In the second section, I examine the importance of different contextual factors in determining language needs (3.2). Undoubtedly, the social, political and academic context under which these analyses are undertaken have an impact on the determination of the needs of the students and, therefore, it is important to ascertain to what extent context has played a role in the determination of needs in previous studies, so the conclusions can be drawn for my research. Finally, in the third section, I explore which of the language skills have been viewed as most important for students in previous empirical studies (3.3). In doing so, I am able to compare the relative importance of these skills in various EAP contexts.

3.1 Key methodological issues in needs analysis

3.1.1 Data collection sources

Needs analysis studies employ the use of a variety of data collection sources. For instance, Chostelidou (2010) conducted a needs analysis with the aim of identifying the needs of the learners and introducing course design. This study targeted 395 accounting students between the ages of 20 and 22who were the only source of data: 62% of the participants were female and 38% were males. Chostelidou triangulated data from both qualitative and quantitative sources including questionnaires and semi-structured interviews. The results showed that writing was seen as the most difficult skill for the students. The data revealed a mismatch between present and future needs and also a mismatch between the students' expectations and their present situation. The conclusion indicates: (1) a need for a course focused on ESP and accounting, (2) the need for an English for Specific Academic Purposes (ESAP) and (3) a desire for flexibility in the ESP course design.

Similarly, Chovancová (2014) explored the self-perceived evaluation of needs and wants of legal students. The participants in the study included 128 current legal students who filled out questionnaires related to their expectations. The results of the study revealed that the majority of the students' perceived their wants and needs as being in the areas of speaking, and vocabulary and grammar. A few students spoke to the importance of writing for their courses, and some indirectly mentioned the need for reading. None of the students mentioned listening as an important skill for their academic pursuits. It is important to note that the study used open-ended questions; therefore, the four language skills (reading, writing, listening and speaking) were not given to them to rank or rate the importance. While this methodological approach may have been appropriate for the type of study being conducted by Chovancová, it poses a challenge for other researchers in terms of the replicability. Also, it is possible that important data may have been missed because the students had not thought of that aspect. In her conclusion, she points out that needs analysis research must "look beyond self-perceived needs of students by including the valid requirements and observations of other stakeholders -former graduates, the institution's requirements, as well as the instructor's own previous teaching experience" (p. 56). This conclusion is crucial to conducting a needs analysis.

In another study, Moiinvaziri (2014) investigated the self-perceived language needs of students for their general English course at a university in Iran. Questionnaires were issued to 171 students (103 males, 68 females) from different faculties with an average age of 21.55 years. The objectives of the study were to find out the students' opinions towards the various language components and skills, to ascertain if there is a difference between male and female opinions, to identify the students' preferred language strategies and find out the students' affective perspective. The findings of the study indicated that reading was perceived as the most important language skill; listening and speaking were the most problematic language skills; and vocabulary was most important for practice. The results also indicated that there was no significant difference between male and female opinions of the language components and problematic areas. Moiinvaziri noted that even though the results were not generalizable to other Iranian universities, they can be used to garner the attention of various stakeholders in the institution.

Sawaki (2017) examined the needs of Japanese students, but from the teachers' perspectives. Their study was done in Japan where English is promoted by the government as the medium of instruction in higher education, but Japanese is used *de facto*. The objective was to examine the views of faculty on the current course curriculum and proposals regarding a new university entrance test in order to inform a larger-scale needs analysis. Only two faculties were included in the study: mathematics and earth science. Data was collected using semi-structured interviews with 6 faculty members on the use of English and Japanese in class, as well of their perspectives on the use of an entrance test which assesses reading, writing, listening and speaking. Interviews were transcribed and explored for themes. Results showed that reading was the most important skill in the courses and other skills were minimally used across both faculties. Proposals were made for a test that assessed mastery of high school EFL curriculum and basic academic language ability necessary for university.

Salehi et al. (2013) were also interested in assessing the needs of students; however, their approach focused on both student and teacher perspectives. The objective of their study was to investigate the strengths and weaknesses of current ESP courses in order to make recommendations for the development of a course syllabus based on the needs of the engineering students in Iran. Questionnaires using a 5-point Likert scale were issued to 607 undergraduate students, and interviews were conducted with 20 undergraduate students, 6 graduate and postgraduate students, 7 non-specialised language teachers and 3 specialized language teachers. Descriptive analysis showed reading was the most useful language skill for these students followed by writing across all groups. Interviews were used to go into more depth regarding strengths and weaknesses of the current ESP program. Recommendations were given about how to improve the ESP program including coordination between teachers, consideration of students with low proficiency, addition of more courses and revamping of current curriculum.

While the previous studies had looked at language needs from the perspectives of students and their teachers, Bedoya et al's (2015) study examined these needs from the perspectives of students who were professors learning the English language. The aim of their study was to examine the needs of professors at the university who are expected to have a certain level of proficiency in English. These professors were required to do an EFL course

or program. The researchers used Hutchinson and Waters' (1987) framework of assessing these needs by looking at demands, interests and lacks. Their methods of data collection included a survey issued to 120 professors, 11 focus groups consisting of 6 professors each and 28 interviews with the English teachers of these university professors. Descriptive statistics were given on the quantified data based on percentages and numbers, while interviews were transcribed and analyzed in NVivo using emerging themes. The results were presented in three sections outlining the demands, strengths and weaknesses, and participants' suggestions. Results showed that the professors had specific preferences regarding best learning practices, lacked time to study, and thought the program should simulate real academic tasks. Conclusions of the study indicated that the professors viewed the program as instrumental, and that the university policy on their requiring a certain level of proficiency did not consider their initial proficiency, time available and individual learning strategies.

One of the key issues arising from this review of needs analyses methodologies is that these studies primarily involve asking students to assess their own needs (Chostelidou, 2010; Chovancová, 2014; Derwing & Rossiter 2002; Evans & Morrison, 2011; Moiinvaziri, 2014; Nafissi et al, 2017; Rose & Sookraj, 2015; Yates & Wahid, 2013; Zohoorian, 2015), or teachers to assess the needs of their students (Deutch, 2003; Sawaki, 2017), or asking both students and teachers to assess the needs of the students (Akyel & Ozek, 2010; Bedoya et al, 2015; Gözüyeşil, 2014; Rostami & Zafarghandi, 2014; Salehi et al, 2013). Long (2005) points out that very often in needs analysis research, the students are the predominant or only sources of information. While the studies with one primary data source can be viewed as focusing on subjective needs, those which focus one several data sources tend to be more objective in the determination of needs. According to Sönmez (2019), subjective needs refer to the "learners' attitudes, perceptions and expectations about language", while objective needs refer to the "accumulation of knowledge about learners' language learning skills" (p.9). These two definitions point to different sources for the determination of needs: subjective needs from learners and objective needs from a number of sources including documents and other stakeholders.

A primary methodological concern in needs analysis is that many of these studies have focused on ascertaining needs from the perspective of the students only. They primarily involve quantitative data analysis and examine relatively large cohorts of students that are representative of the target population. For example, Chostelidou (2010) issued questionnaires to 395 accounting students in order to identify the needs of accounting students. Other studies are aimed at comparatively smaller numbers such as Chovancová (2014) which focused on 128 students, Moiinvaziri (2014) which investigated 171 students and Zohoorian (2015) which looked at the language needs of 66 students. Derwing and Rossiter (2002) also focused on the needs as reported by 100 adult ESL learners attending an English immersion program in Canada. The challenge with self-reported needs is that they only represent the students' perception of their needs which may be subjective. Additionally, students may not be best able to determine what are the needs of the target situation especially if they are in the first year of their program. In their study, Chovancová (2014) not only examined the needs of the learners from the current students, but also recent graduates. Salehi et al (2013) also examined not just undergraduate, but graduate and postgraduate students. Even though these reported needs are still subjective, they permit a more, balanced view from students with past experience.

Similarly, when teachers are asked to give their perception of the needs, these needs can be subjective. However, their perceptions are often based on more wholistic judgments since they are the ones who design the course syllabi and course tests/exams. Several studies have asked both students and teachers to report on the needs of the students (Akyel & Ozek, 2010; Bedoya et al, 2015; Gözüyeşil, 2014; Rostami & Zafarghandi, 2014; Salehi et al, 2013). Green (2014) examined the needs of prospective high school students from the perspectives of the students themselves and university teachers, but also from those of selected high school teachers. In this multi-school study, Green included 3868 students, 423 high school teachers, and 19 university teachers. These high school teachers were able to give an idea of current practices in courses designed to prepare the students for university, while the university teachers were able to report on the expectations of the university context. These studies point to the importance of examining various stakeholders when conducting a needs analysis as Hughes (2003) emphasizes.

In one small-scale needs analysis, teachers were the sole data source consulted in the study. Sawaki (2017) conducted semi-structured interviews with 6 faculty members. However, their goal was to use the results of this study to create a larger need analysis; otherwise, using teachers as the dominant and sole data source is not the norm in needs analysis. From the preceding literature, we see that needs analyses in the field have employed different data sources and in the next section, we will see that they also involve various methods.

3.1.2 Data collection method

Using a variety of sources and methods provides the most accurate analysis of the needs of the students. Sönmez (2019) conducted a content analysis of needs analyses carried out between 2002 and 2017 using the general screening model. In her study, she examined the frequency, effectiveness, and functionality of the various models of needs analysis. The results of her study highlighted that there are four main models of needs analysis: mixed, survey, descriptive and experimental. However, mixed methods have been the second most preferred method in needs analysis over the past 15 years, second to the survey model. Sönmez also notes that mixed methods, though "very effective", are not used enough (p.12).
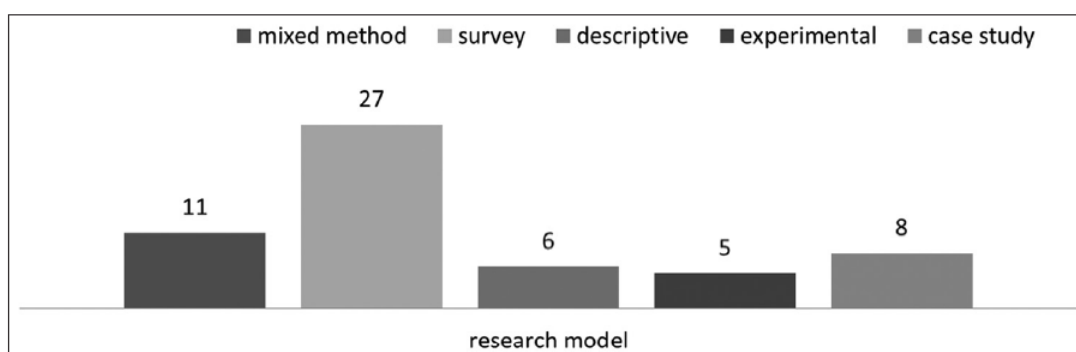
Figure 3.1 Research models in needs analysis between 2002 and 2017 (Sönmez, 2019, p. 11)

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These results point to the subjectivity of needs analysis in the field. If the survey model is the predominant model, then most needs analyses may rely heavily on perception.

In their study, Nafissi et al. (2017) conducted an investigation into the language needs of undergraduate statistics students at a university in Iran. Their aim was to use the results of this study to develop an appropriate EAP course. The data collection method included issuing a questionnaire to a convenient sample of students which asked them to assess the strengths and weaknesses of the current EAP course. Descriptive statistics were used to analyze the results obtained from the questionnaire data. The results showed that the main strength of the course was the material, and the main weakness was the pace of the course. Their study concluded that the course must be designed based on a needs analysis and that more time should be allotted for the EAP course. Green (2014) also used questionnaires to find out about the language needs of the high school students on the verge of entering university in Japan. They issued questionnaires to high school students and teachers, and university teachers. The results showed that there was heavy emphasis on reading at the university level, and the EAP classes focused mainly on writing rather than speaking skills. These two studies, Nafissi et al. (2017) and Green (2014), are indicative of another key methodological issue: there is heavy reliance on questionnaires as a means of data collection.

Both Long (2005) and Sönmez (2019) explain that in English as second language (ESL) teaching, particularly, most needs analyses involved interviews and questionnaires as the primary means of data collection. In a content-based analysis of 57 NA studies between 2002 and 2017 using the general screening model, Sönmez (2019) noted that questionnaires were "the most widely used tools" (p. 10). Some studies used questionnaires as their only means of data collection (Chovancová, 2014; Green, 2014; Moiinvaziri, 2014; Rose & Sookraj, 2015; Rostami & Zafarghandi, 2014). On the other hand, there are studies which rely on a combination of both questionnaires and interviews (Ayek & Ozek, 2010; Bedoya et al, 2015; Chostelidou, 2010; Gözüyeşil, 2014; Salehi et al, 2013; Yates & Wahid, 2013; Zohoorian, 2015). While Nafissi et al (2017) used questionnaires to collect data for their study, they also used pre- and post-tests to evaluate the students' present competences.

In less frequent cases, interviews are used as the primary source of data collection. One example of this is Sawaki's (2017) mini-needs analysis described in section 3.1.1 which

was a precursor to a larger needs analysis to be conducted. Yates and Wahid (2013) also conducted a study in Australia on the needs of international students using only interviews. They traced the students over a period of 18 months and conducted semi-structured interviews at different intervals to assess their needs. The interviews were transcribed and analyzed using NVivo software. The conclusion of the study indicated that speaking is not adequately treated, which highlighted their assertion that speaking is not seen an essential language skill.

Evans and Morrison (2011) also used interviews to trace the development of 28 first-year students at a Hong Kong university. The participants were all second language learners of English but their education in English was not homogenous; many of them had had English-based instruction, while others had had Chinese-based instruction in secondary school. After interviewing the students at "regular intervals" for a period of 3 years, they issued a questionnaire informed by the interview findings to 3,000 students. The results from the questionnaire showed that the students reported having difficulties with: "(1) understanding technical vocabulary, (2) comprehending lectures, (3) achieving an appropriate writing style, and (4) conforming to the specialised culture and conventions of the academic community to which they now belonged" (p. 203). These findings highlight the importance of an understanding of the skills examined in the target situation. The case of Hong Kong is particularly of importance to this study as it is a country which falls in the outer circle of Kachru's model as Jamaica does. Derwing & Rossiter (2002) also used interviews to collect the information regarding the needs of the students themselves. These two studies focused on utilizing one method of data collection rather than a variety of methods.

Other studies use a combination of both questionnaires and interviews. Zohoorian (2015) conducted a mixed-methods study in an EAP context. They issued questionnaires to 66 students and then conducted interviews with 8 randomly selected students. The qualitative and quantitative data were analyzed separately and then triangulated. While the quantitative data was analyzed using SPSS, the qualitative data was analysed using the emergent inductive method. The results showed that speaking was the main skill needed by the students, followed by writing and listening; reading was the least needed skill. The study

concluded that there was a mismatch between the EAP textbooks and the expectations of the course.

Deutch (2003) analyzed the English language needs of Israeli law students by conducting semi-structured interviews with both discipline-specific teachers and issuing questionnaires to current lawyers. He did not think that law students would have been able to accurately report or ascertain their needs in English, according to a target-situation analysis approach. He found that it was necessary to separate the global needs of the law discipline (since most legal jargon is in English) from the individual or immediate needs of the academic setting. It may appear that students themselves may not be the best judges of their own linguistic needs, even though they provide first-hand account of these needs. Therefore, his conclusion was that students' perspectives should be coupled with the perspectives of other stakeholders such as teachers and administrators.

Lepetit and Cichocki (2002) also conducted an analysis of the foreign language needs of health professional students at Clemson University in South Carolina, United States using mixed methods. Their study consisted of interviews with a small, unspecified number of participants. The responses from these interviews were then used to create a questionnaire for distribution to a wider population. These questionnaires were issued to 165 randomly selected students. After doing descriptive statistical and factor analyses, they found that there was a great need to learn Spanish as a foreign language to meet the demands of their job and that oral skills in that language were the most important. This study demonstrated that even though English is the official language used, there was need for some amount of oral proficiency in Spanish and, to a lesser extent, their writing skills to meet the needs of the increasing Hispanic population in the state.

Finally, the results of needs analyses are not normally generalizable but provide useful information for stakeholders. This speaks to the very nature of a needs analysis as it speaks to the needs of the particular situation whether it is ESP, EOP or EAP. The context in which the needs analysis is conducted has a significant impact on the determination of the needs. This methodological issue of context is the focus of the literature reviewed in the next section.

3.2 Importance of context in defining needs

Another issue emerging from needs analysis studies is the importance of examining the context, social and academic, in which the needs analysis is conducted. The social context can include any surrounding physical, social or political constructs that may affect the determination of the needs, while academic context refers to the university or departmental requirements that affect needs. Holliday (1995), for example, stresses the importance of having knowledge of the educational system of the country in which the needs analysis is to be carried out. He argues that a thorough needs analysis must take into consideration the students' background in English and the possible social factors which may affect their success. Holliday's point about the importance of context is evident in Evans and Morrison's (2011) Hong Kong study which is presented in the previous section 3.1. They found that the needs of university students at schools where the language of instruction was Chinese were significantly different from those at English-based schools. They found that students from English-based schools had challenges in adjusting to university life, which was further compounded by the fact that English was the medium of instruction. Considering that Hong Kong is ranked as being a part of the outer circle or ESL context, it stands to reason that parallels can potentially be made with the Jamaican situation. Much like the Hong Kong Chinese-speaking university students from English-based schools, Jamaican students who predominantly use Jamaican Creole in their everyday lives could also have difficulties, not only meeting university requirements but also mastering their second language. However, unlike the Hong Kong university students, Jamaican students do not currently have the possibility of studying in Jamaican Creole.

Hyland (2013) highlights that each discipline has a distinct way of interacting with colleagues and presenting their arguments. Indeed, many studies demonstrate that the linguistic needs of students vary based on their field of study. Molle and Prior (2008) conducted a genre analysis to evaluate the driving force behind an English for Academic Purposes (EAP) course for international graduate students at an American university. They focused on four different disciplines: music, psychology, engineering, and architecture. These departments were selected based on the number of students taking the EAP course and also for a variety of disciplines. Their methods included a genre analysis specific to each

course of study, in-depth interviews with students and faculty, as well as an analysis of course material and students' responses to written assignments. They looked at:

> the organization, style, and purpose of each assignment (as a whole) and its components (sections and paragraphs), as well as any connections between the writing assignments, other course documents (such as syllabi and model samples), classroom observations, and oral and written instructor comment. (p. 546)

They highlighted that the language requirements of content courses and EAP courses differed to the extent that the former did not place equal importance on language skills. This point again demonstrates that the students' program of study had an impact on their language needs.

In another study, Terraschke and Wahid (2011) conducted a comparative analysis of Australian university students who did an English for Academic Purposes (EAP) course before their admission (group 1) and those who were automatically admitted to their programme (group 2). The first group consisted of 7 recruited participants, while the second group consisted of 12 voluntary participants. All the EAP students were international students from non-English speaking backgrounds and the majority of students in both groups came from China. The researchers interviewed students about their "language use and perceived problems with English both inside and outside the classroom" (p. 175). Participants' responses were coded and analyzed using NVivo8 software. While both groups reported relatively parallel performance in listening, speaking and reading, the EAP students were (1) more capable of discussing their use of learning strategies, (2) more confident in academic writing and (3) better able to understand their course requirements. This showed how the academic background of the students had an impact on their needs. Even though the context of each needs analysis differs, some general conclusions can be made about the language needs of students in higher education. For example, needs vary based on the students' social background and their program of study.

3.3 Contrasting views on most important skill for university success

Many needs analysis have been done in higher education contexts worldwide. These needs analyses report varying views on what is seen as central to university students' academic success. Studies conducted in EAP programs in Iran (Moiinvaziri, 2014; Rostami & Zafarghandi, 2014) and in Japan (Sawaki, 2017) showed that reading was rated as the most important skill for learners. In Rose and Sookraj's (2015) study, reading was also rated most important overall by most faculties. However, two faculties thought that writing was the most important skill for their success – natural sciences and humanities. Reading and writing were the most useful language skills for engineering students; however, reading was ranked higher than writing. So, while some studies report that writing is the most important skill for the students, in others reading is seen as most important or a combination of the two. This reinforces that needs are heavily based on the context of the target situation.

In other studies, listening and speaking were seen as important skills for the students' success. In both Akyel and Ozek's (2010) study and Gözüyeşil's (2014) study, teachers rated reading and listening as the most important skills. Students, on the other hand, regarded speaking and listening skills for their success in both studies. Interestingly, in Moiinvaziri (2014), speaking and listening were also seen as the most problematic language skills for the students. The self-perceived wants and needs of legal students in Chovancová (2014) indicated that instruction in speaking was most needed. Yates and Wahid's (2013) study also indicated that speaking was not being adequately treated in the international students' EAP courses.

Alsout (2013) carried out a study of the language needs of first-year pre-medical students at the University of Sebha in Libya, which also emphasized the importance of listening and speaking. Alsout issued questionnaires to 50 students between the ages of 19 and 20 years old, who had been randomly selected. He also interviewed 3 teachers who gave language courses to these premedical students. The study took an ESP approach; more specifically, English for Medical Purposes. They were asked several questions regarding the importance of English for their jobs, as well as their use of the language. One of the questions asked which language skill they considered most important: reading and writing, listening and speaking, vocabulary, and grammar. However, this question assumes that vocabulary

and grammar are not required in the first two skillsets. This would skew the results to the extent that choosing either of the last two options would inadvertently be a choice for one of the first two. The data was analyzed using content analysis and the analysis revealed that the needs of the students included listening and speaking. These studies indicate the importance of not just reading and writing, but also listening and speaking when considering the varying needs of higher education students.

To date, there is only one known needs analysis study in a similar Caribbean context where English is the official language and there is the presence of an English-lexified creole. Rose and Sookraj (2015) conducted a language needs analysis in a Guyanese university. As in Jamaica, students are required to take academic writing courses in English in their first year. Rose and Sookraj sought to determine the perceived language needs of university students across several faculties from the students themselves. Their needs were defined as the language skills required for success at the university. These included reading, writing, speaking and listening. Questionnaires were issued to 204 students selected purposefully to have equal representation across the six faculties. The results showed that students in most of the faculties, including Social Sciences, rated reading as the most important skill needed in their academic tenure. Two faculties, Education and Humanities, and Natural Sciences, listed writing as the most important language skill. One limitation of the study is that only students were questioned. It would be interesting to see how teachers would have noted the needs. These findings indicate that it is possible the needs of students will vary across the five departments in the Social Sciences at UWI. It may also emerge that there is an overarching language need for Social Science students, in general.

Even though, to my knowledge, no study has been published that describes needs analysis in higher education in Jamaica, Dyche (2013) examined the relationship between writing competence and academic success. The specific objective of the study was:

> To determine whether there are differences between the academic outcomes of UWI Mona students who majored in History and in Zoology who passed the UWI Mona English language proficiency tests and courses and those who failed, and whether English language proficiency might be a contributory factor to students' academic outcomes. (p.11)

Data was obtained through students records from the university and the necessary information was extrapolated including gender, program, ELPT results, course results (pass or fail) and course percentages. The data was then analysed using SPSS. Results from this study showed that writing proficiency may influence the academic performance of History majors; however, the results were inconclusive for the Zoology majors. These results indicate that low writing proficiency may have varying impacts depending on the program in which a student is registered.

3.4 Conclusion

The existing literature reveals that there is no consensus on what seems to be the universally accepted approach in conducting these analyses. Current research on needs analysis indicates that a significant number of these studies involve asking students to assess their own needs (Rose & Sookraj, 2015) or asking students and teachers to assess their own needs and the needs of the students respectively (Derwing & Rossiter 2002; Hwang, 2011; Seedhouse, 1995). Resultingly, these needs analyses tend to focus on subjective (Brindley, 1989) rather than objective needs. The existing literature reveals that there is a heavy reliance on the survey model for analysis, which uses questionnaires as the sole method of data collection. Mixed methods are not used extensively. This study uses the mixed methods model, which aims to provide a more robust analysis of the language needs of the students by coupling self-reported needs from students at various levels and departments in the program to the needs as indicated by social science teachers, language teachers, administrators as well as the course outlines and entrance test.

Very little research has been done on language needs in the Caribbean (Rose & Sookraj, 2015) and no known research has been done on needs analysis in higher education in Jamaica. One issue emerging from the literature is the importance of examining the social context in which the needs analysis is conducted as the needs of the learners do not exist in a vacuum. The study also intends to discuss the sociopolitical and academic contexts in which the needs analysis is being conducted to have a more, comprehensive view of the students' needs.

Even though little research has been done in the Caribbean related to the most important language skills needed for academic success in university, several needs analyses done elsewhere in the world reveal that reading appears to be the most needed skill at the university level (Moiinvaziri, 2014; Rostami & Zafarghandi, 2014; Sawaki, 2017). Therefore, the present research seeks to add to the existing body of knowledge in this area.

CHAPTER 4 METHODOLOGY

The research methodology employed in this research is reflective of the overarching objective of this study, which is to determine the needs of these Social Sciences students based on a discrepancy analysis of their communicative competence. In order to determine the gap (discrepancy) between what students know (present situation) and what they need to know (target situation) to be communicatively competent in this EAP setting, a variety of quantitative and qualitative sources were analyzed.

4.1 Research design

As indicative above, the present research design is both quantitative and qualitative. The study was conducted in two phases: 1) document analysis and (2) questionnaires and interviews with key stakeholders. The first phase involved a strictly qualitative data analysis of course syllabi and the university's entrance test. However, the second phase employed a mixed-method design. The purpose of this mixed-methods approach is to deepen the understanding of the results derived from the primary quantitative data source (questionnaires) by using the qualitative data (interviews) as a further probe into these results. Dörnyei (2007) describes nine different typologies in speaking about mixed-methods studies: QUAL+QUAN, QUAL+quan, QUAN+qual, QUAL →QUAN, QUAN→QUAL, QUAL→quan, qual→QUAN, QUAN→qual, and quan→QUAL (p. 169). These typologies are defined based on the relative importance or dominance of one particular type of data (quantitative or qualitative) and the way in which the data is treated whether sequential or concurrent. Of those nine typologies, this research uses a QUAN→qual design, which means that quantitative data has prominence in this research and is followed by qualitative data, which has relatively less importance in this study. Using various sources and methods allows the different data to complement each other and compensate for each other's weaknesses in terms of perception and reality (Dörnyei, 2007). In this study's design, the quantitative methodology allows the collection of data from a large number of participants; however, it fails to provide in-depth analysis of the questionnaire responses. Thus, the qualitative data provides a more detailed view of the needs of the students from their own perspective and

other stakeholders (including teachers and administrators). The research schedule is detailed in Appendix A. In brief, the research design includes:

a. analysis of two language-related course syllabi, eight faculty-related course syllabi and the December 2016 version of the ELPT;
b. questionnaires on perceived language needs from Social Science first-year students required to take the ELPT (FOUN1019 students), students already in their programs (in-program students), and language and faculty-specific teachers;
c. interviews with a sample of Social Science students already in their programs;
d. interviews with language-specific faculty teachers on perceived language needs;
e. interviews with a sample of Social Science faculty teachers on perceived language needs; and
f. interviews with administrators in the Faculty of Social Sciences.

4.2 Participants

Five different groups participated in this study. These groups included in-program students, FOUN1019 students, language-specific teachers, faculty-specific teachers and administrators. These groups were targeted in order to have a comprehensive view of all the stakeholders involved in the determination of the language needs of the Social Science students. This study used a form of purposeful sampling (Dörnyei, 2007), which involved targeting participants who were included in the study based on the criterion that they were Social Science teachers, students or administrators.

4.2.1 In-program students

The in-program students are those students who have already been admitted to their Social Science programs and are taking courses. 240 students were targeted; however, only 239 students responded to the questionnaire. One of the students handed in a blank questionnaire. The targeted figure is representative of approximately 11% of the 2101

students admitted to the Social Science in the academic year 2015-2016. This number allowed for statistically generalizable results and conclusions about the overarching needs of the Social Science students. Even though the study sought to target 80 students from each of the 3 years of study, the sample consisted of 125 first-year students, 60 second-year students, 39 third-year students and 15 fourth-year students (part-time students).

Table 4.1 Profile of in-program students

Age		Gender		Area		SES		Department		Year of study	
18-20	115	F	165	U	154	1	31	BUS	112	1	125
21-22	62	M	74	R	81	2	63	ECON	44	2	60
23-25	39			NR	4	3	55	GOV	36	3	39
26-30	13					4	62	PSYCH	35	4	15
>30	9					NR	28	TOUR	11		
NR	1							NR	1		
Total = 239		Total = 239		Total = 239		Total = 239		Total = 239		Total = 239	
*NR – No Response											

4.2.2 FOUN1019 students

The FOUN1019 students are those students who have already been admitted to their Social Science programs but are required to do a year-long language course. Even though students do not have the English requirements to pursue their studies, they may do the course at any point in their university tenure before graduating. They would be required to take FOUN1019 because they would have taken the English Language Proficiency Test (ELPT) and failed. FOUN1019 is a year-long course with the first semester focusing on grammar and the second semester focusing on academic writing. Even though 85 students were targeted, which is representative of approximately 9% of the 897 students who failed the ELPT in the academic year 2015-2016, only 63 students responded to the questionnaire.

Table 4.2 Profile of FOUN1019 students

Age		Gender		Area		SES		Department	
19-20	16	F	41	U	46	1	19	BUS	27
21-22	28	M	22	R	15	2	12	ECON	15
23-24	14			NR	2	3	15	GOV	2
25-26	0					4	11	PSYCH	15
27-28	3					NR	6	TOUR	4

NR	2				
Total = 63	Total = 63	Total = 63	Total = 63	Total = 63	
*NR – No Response					

The total number of students from both groups to be targeted (n=325) was ascertained using Krejcie and Morgan's (1970) method of determining sample size. This seminal method in statistics establishes the sample size by calculating the population size and the confidence (the likelihood of the results being correct) and interval (the permissible number of errors) levels required by the study (Manno, 2013). According to Krejcie and Morgan's table, a population size of 2200 would have a sample size of 327, and a population size of 2000 would have a sample size of 322 students. Therefore, with a population size of 2,101 students (as is the case in this study), the appropriate sample size would be approximately 325 students. Unfortunately, due to the students' availability, only 302 students participated in the study, which increases the margin of error from 5% to 6%.

4.2.3 Language-specific faculty teachers

At the time of the study, five sections of the academic writing courses were being offered to the students of the Social Sciences (FOUN1019), so these 5 teachers were asked to participate in the study. One of the current teachers was unavailable for the interviews; therefore, a teacher who had given the course in the past was asked to participate in the study.

Table 4.3 Profile of language course teachers

ID	Age	Gender	Area	SES
LANGTEACH A	>50	F	U	4
LANGTEACH B	59	F	U	NR
LANGTEACH C	35-45	M	U	4
LANGTEACH D	NR	F	U	4
LANGTEACH E	46	F	U	4
*NR – No	Response			

4.2.4 Social Science faculty teachers

There are five departments in the Faculty of Social Sciences. These include: 1) Economics; 2) Government; 3) Sociology, Psychology & Social Work; 4) Tourism & Hotel Management; and 5) the School of Business & Management. This research sought to focus on two teachers from each department within the faculty; thus, a total of 10 Social Science teachers were targeted. Unfortunately, the Tourism and Hotel Management department is based in the Bahamas and none of the teachers responded to the various emails requesting their participation in the study. Therefore, only eight teachers (2 from each of the four departments based on the UWI, Mona campus), participated in the study.

Table 4.4 Profile of SS course teachers

ID	Age	Gender	Area	SES	DEPARTMENT
SSTEACH A	49	F	U	4	PSYCH
SSTEACH B	47	F	U	4	GOV
SSTEACH C	37	F	U	4	GOV
SSTEACH D	63	M	U	4	BUS
SSTEACH E	64	F	U	4	BUS
SSTEACH F	25	F	R	2	ECON
SSTEACH G	45	F	U	4	PSYCH
SSTEACH H	63	M	U	4	ECON
*NR – No	Response				

4.2.5 Administrators

Seven administrators participated in the study including the heads of the five departments in the Social Sciences, the head of the language section, the head of the faculty of Social Sciences and the head of university admissions.

4.3 Instruments

Instruments used for data collection included documents (course outlines and an ELPT sample), questionnaires and interviews. Questionnaires were administered to 239 Social Science students already in the program, 63 students who failed the ELPT, as well as

five language and eight faculty teachers. Interviews were carried out with a sample of 10 Social Science students, five language and eight faculty-specific teachers, and administrators. Those lecturers who participated in the study were asked to send copies of their course outlines by email. The coordinator of the ELPT was also asked via email to send a copy of the test. These instruments are described in detail in the following sub-sections beginning with the questionnaires and then the interview protocols.

4.3.1 In-program student questionnaire

The in-program students' perceptions of their language needs were gathered by means of a questionnaire (Appendix B). This questionnaire used a 5-point Likert scale, asking students to assess the extent to which the listed language skills were perceived as necessary for their course of study. The measurements were as follows: 1 – Not at all important; 2 – Not very important; 3 – Neutral; 4 - Very important; 5 – Extremely important.

Questions 1 to 9 provided data about the background of the participants: their age, gender, geographical location and socioeconomic status. This is useful for answering research question number 6. Question 10 provided information about the participants' department of study, which supplied useful information for research question number five. Questions 11 and 12 asked the students to rate the importance of the four language skills (reading, listening, speaking, writing) for their success in their social science courses, individually and collectively. These questions address research question 3 and tie into the target-situation analysis of their needs. Question 13 asked them to assess their competence in itemized language tasks, i.e., the present-situation analysis. Question 14 required that the students outline the importance of each of the same itemized language tasks for their Social Science courses. This question ties in with the target-situation analysis. Both questions respond to research question 4. Question 15 sought to find out about the students' language use and how it relates to their needs, macro- and micro-constructs in questions 13 to 14. This question ties in with the target-situation analysis. Both questions responded to research question 6. Question 15 sought to find out about the students' language use with the view of coming to a better understanding of their socioeconomic background and how it relates to

their needs, while question 16 addressed the attitudes of the students toward the use and status of Jamaican Creole (research question 6).

4.3.2 FOUN1019 student questionnaire

The FOUN1019 students' questionnaire (Appendix C) is like that of the in-program students with a few exceptions. Firstly, the FOUN1019 students were not asked about their current year of study as it was given that they were in the first year of their program. However, this turned out not to be true as students could take the course at any point in their university tenure. Secondly, they were not asked about their English language qualification for entry into the university since they did not meet the English language requirements.

4.3.3 Questionnaires for language and SS teachers

The teachers were also asked to fill out questionnaires related to the language needs of the students (Appendix D). Questions 1 to 6 provided data about the background of the teachers: their age, gender and other pertinent information. This was useful in answering research question number 6. Question 7 provided information about the teachers' department. Questions 8 and 9 asked the teachers to rate the importance of the four language skills (reading, listening, speaking, writing) for their students' success in their social science courses, individually and collectively. Question 10 required that the students rate the requirements of the social science courses in itemized language macro- and micro-constructs. This question ties in with the target-situation analysis. Question 11 sought to find out about the teachers' own language use with the view of coming to a better understanding of their background and how it relates to their interpretation of the students' needs, while question 12 addressed the attitudes of the teachers toward the use and status of Jamaican Creole.

4.3.4 Interviews with language and faculty-specific teachers

During the semi-structured interview, the teachers were asked a series of questions related to their perceptions about the language skills required for the students' academic success (Appendix E). The interview questions were modeled based on Atai and Shoja's (2011) Iranian study and modified to include questions about attitudes.

Questions 1 to 3 provided information about the teachers and helps to garner data about their socioeconomic background and their interpretation of the students' needs. Question 4 supplied information about the needs of the students from the teachers' perspective, which addresses research question 4. Question 5 addressed the strengths and weakness of the various students and helps to answer research question 5 about their needs based on the departments in which they are studying. Question 7 ascertained how much they know about the language-related course curricula and addresses research question 1 about the requirements of the language courses. Questions 8 to 11 questioned their knowledge and analysis of the ELPT, with the view of answering research question 2. Questions 12 to 13 examined their language use and questions 14 to 16 looked at their attitudes toward the use of Jamaican Creole.

4.3.5 Interviews with administrators

A sample of administrators were interviewed to get a view of the needs from another institutional perspective. Questions 1 to 2 provided background information to come to a better understanding of their interpretation of the needs of the students. Questions 3 to 6 examined their knowledge and analysis of the ELPT, with the view of answering research question 2. Questions 7 to 8 explored the language needs of the students from the administrators' perspective, addressing research question 4 about the needs from the perspective of various stakeholders. Question 9 probed how much is known about the language-related courses given to the social science students, which relates to the answering of research question 1. Finally, questions 10 -12 explored the language attitudes of the administrators to better understand how they view the needs of the students.

4.3.6 Interviews with in-program students

The in-program students were asked a series of questions related to their perceptions of their language needs, as evidenced by their experience in the program (Appendix G). Questions 1 to 3 solicited background information about the students and are basically tailored to break the ice or reduce Observer's paradox. Question 4 addressed their perception of their own language needs, which addresses research question 3. Questions 5 and 6 examined the reported language use of the students, in order to establish any relation between their language use and language needs (research question 6). Questions 7 to 12 examined the language attitudes of the students and how these attitudes may influence how their needs are viewed.

4.4 Data collection procedures

The data was collected between April 2018 and January 2019 as outlined in the research schedule (Appendix A). Before the official collection of data, a pilot of the project was carried out in December 2017 with past students, administrators and past teachers in the faculty of Social Science Questionnaires were administered to 10 students between the first and third year of their program (in-program students). Because of the relatively small number of teachers to be included in the overall study, only one SS faculty-specific teacher was asked to participate in the piloting of the teacher questionnaire and interview. Administrators were not asked to participate in the pilot study. The other administrators for the actual study have been specifically chosen at the university and not faculty level, therefore it would have been hard to pilot the study with that population without compromising the integrity of the study. The pilot was helpful in identifying potential challenges with the instruments such as tasks listed in the questionnaire that were not applicable to the faculty of Social sciences. The interviews were conducted at the lecturer's choice of location based on convenience and availability.

The results of the pilot revealed two discrepancies on the student questionnaire: (1) a gap in the age group and (2) a lack of neutrality on the Likert scale. An additional range

was added to correct this gap in the age group and a more appropriate Likert scale descriptor was adopted that more accurately represented the possible responses from the participants. These changes are reflected in the final version of the questionnaire presented in Appendix B and C. Ethics approval was gained from Laval University and also from the local university where the study was to be conducted. When approval was gained, emails were sent to teachers asking them to participate in the study and also requesting permission to issue questionnaires in their classes; however, only 3 teachers responded even though the study required at least 10 teacher participants. This was problematic because the researcher could not otherwise access the lectures where students would be asked to participate without the teachers' participation. Because of this hindrance, questionnaires were not only issued to students in their compulsory courses, faculty-specific courses, but also in common lounging areas. After completing the questionnaire, the student was asked to volunteer for a follow-up interview; 10 students obliged. Next, the questionnaires were examined for questions to be further discussed in the student interviews. The student interviews were conducted in an air-conditioned room in the local university's language lab.

Before conducting the teacher interviews, the teachers were provided with an electronic copy of the interview questions for the opportunity to review the language needs of the students and a questionnaire to be completed by the day of the interview. This was sent to them as soon as they responded affirmatively, consenting to be a part of the study. The interviews were audio-recorded after their permission was gained. These interviews were expected to last for approximately 20 to 30 minutes each but ranged from 12 to 47 minutes with both the Social Sciences teachers and language teachers. Administrators also received the questions for their interview beforehand, but they were not asked to complete the questionnaire as it goes into detail about classroom-related expectations with which they may not have been familiar. The interviews with the teachers and administrators were conducted at their convenience in their offices or a booked seminar room. These interviews were expected to last for 20 to 30 minutes; however, they ranged from 9 to 32 minutes.

4.5 Data analysis procedures

This study used a variety of data sources; therefore, different analyses were utilized. Bachman and Palmer's (2010) framework of task analysis was used for the document analysis. Rather than quantitizing the qualitative data (Dörnyei, 2007; Saldaña, 2015) and using it to quantify the results, we used the qualitative interview data to provide further explanation of the results derived from the quantitative data. The quantitative data was analyzed using the Statistical Analysis System (now SAS) software, while the qualitative data was analyzed using NVivo software.

4.5.1 Course curricula and ELPT

The document analysis for this research is twofold, including (1) an analysis of the skills-based language abilities that undergraduate Social Science students need in order to be successful in their language and SS courses, according to the course syllabi (research question 1) and (2) an analysis of the skills-based language abilities being tested on the ELPT (research question 2). The latter analysis was done in view of assessing the extent to which the ELPT measures the skills required in the students' language and SS courses. The course syllabi and ELPT were requested from the teachers and received by email.

Firstly, there was an analysis of the tasks listed on the course syllabi for the two (2) language-related courses for the Social Sciences - FOUN1013: Critical Reading and Writing in the Social Sciences and FOUN1019: Critical Reading and Writing in the Disciplines. In addition, 5 Social Science course syllabi were analyzed from the same faculty-specific teachers to be interviewed. Two of the SS syllabi came from the economics department, two from the business department and one from the psychology department. No course syllabi were received from the departments of government or tourism. Bachman and Palmer's (2010) framework of task analysis was used to analyze the characteristics of each target language use task.

Secondly, the December 2016 version of the ELPT was examined for general skills being tested. As in the first phase, the tasks were analyzed using Bachman and Palmer's

(2010) framework of task analysis. Each section of the test was described in detail, then the tasks were extrapolated from these descriptions.

Then, Bachman and Palmer's (1996) model for the evaluation of test usefulness was used as the framework for the analysis of the ELPT. The notion of authenticity, which refers to "the degree of correspondence of the characteristics of a given language test task to the features of a TLU [Target Language Use] task" (p. 23), was especially useful for the analysis. This was used to assess the degree to which the tasks in the SS courses match the tasks on the ELPT. After analyzing the tasks from the course and the ELPT, a table was used to compare the results of each analysis (See Table 5.5).

4.5.2 Questionnaires

All the responses from the questionnaires were entered into a Microsoft Excel spreadsheet. Various aspects of the data were coded differently (Appendix H). Gender was coded alphabetically with M representing males and F representing females. The participants' ages were entered as the numerical figure they provided. Their geographical location was coded as R for rural area and U for urban area. The responses to the questions about language needs were reported according to the numerical figure given on the questionnaire. The results of student questionnaires were compared to their language needs as assessed by faculty and language-specific teachers - using a multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) analysis using the Statistical Analysis System (now SAS) software version 9.4. A MANOVA analysis allowed for the comparison of several independent and dependent variables at once. The demographic information (gender, age, region, income) were coded, as explained above, and various combinations of data were run repeatedly to examine the relationship, if any, between the socioeconomical background and their linguistic needs addressing research question 6.

Because the gap analysis required a calculation of the difference between the present-situation analysis and a target-situation analysis of the students, a mean score was created for these two analyses and then the two scores were compared to see if there was a gap between

what the students know (present situation) and what they are expected to know (target situation).

For research questions 3 and 4, a repeated measure Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) was used to ascertain the needs of the students. In research question 4, specifically, the analysis was done among and across the various stakeholders. For research question 5, a means procedure was used to determine the mean score for the present-situation, target-situation and gap analyses. After this step, a repeated measure ANOVA was carried out to determine if there was a difference in the language needs of the various departments within the faculty. For research question 6, which examined the relationship between various sociolinguistic factors and language needs, a multiple regression analysis was used. Unfortunately, when I met with the statistician, we realized that there was no statistically sound means of establishing a correlation between the language attitudes and use with the students' language needs given the data set available. Therefore, only the data which represented dominant views emerging from the literature was presented using descriptive analysis to provide information about the in-program students' attitudes as a context for better understanding their potential language needs.

4.5.3 Interviews

The qualitative data obtained from student, teacher, and administrator interviews was transcribed verbatim. During the transcription, the researcher noted the patterns i.e. "repetitive, regular, or consistent occurrences of action/data that appear more than twice" (Saldaña, 2015, p.5) from the interviews related to the key concepts evident in the review of the literature, such as gap analysis, language attitudes and use, and language abilities. After transcribing all the interviews, they were uploaded to the NVivo software where they were once again analyzed for patterns and categorized according to codes. There were twelve predetermined codes based on the literature review and three unexpected codes emerged from the analysis of the data based on the frequency of their occurrence. Figure 4.1 explains how the interview data was treated in this study.
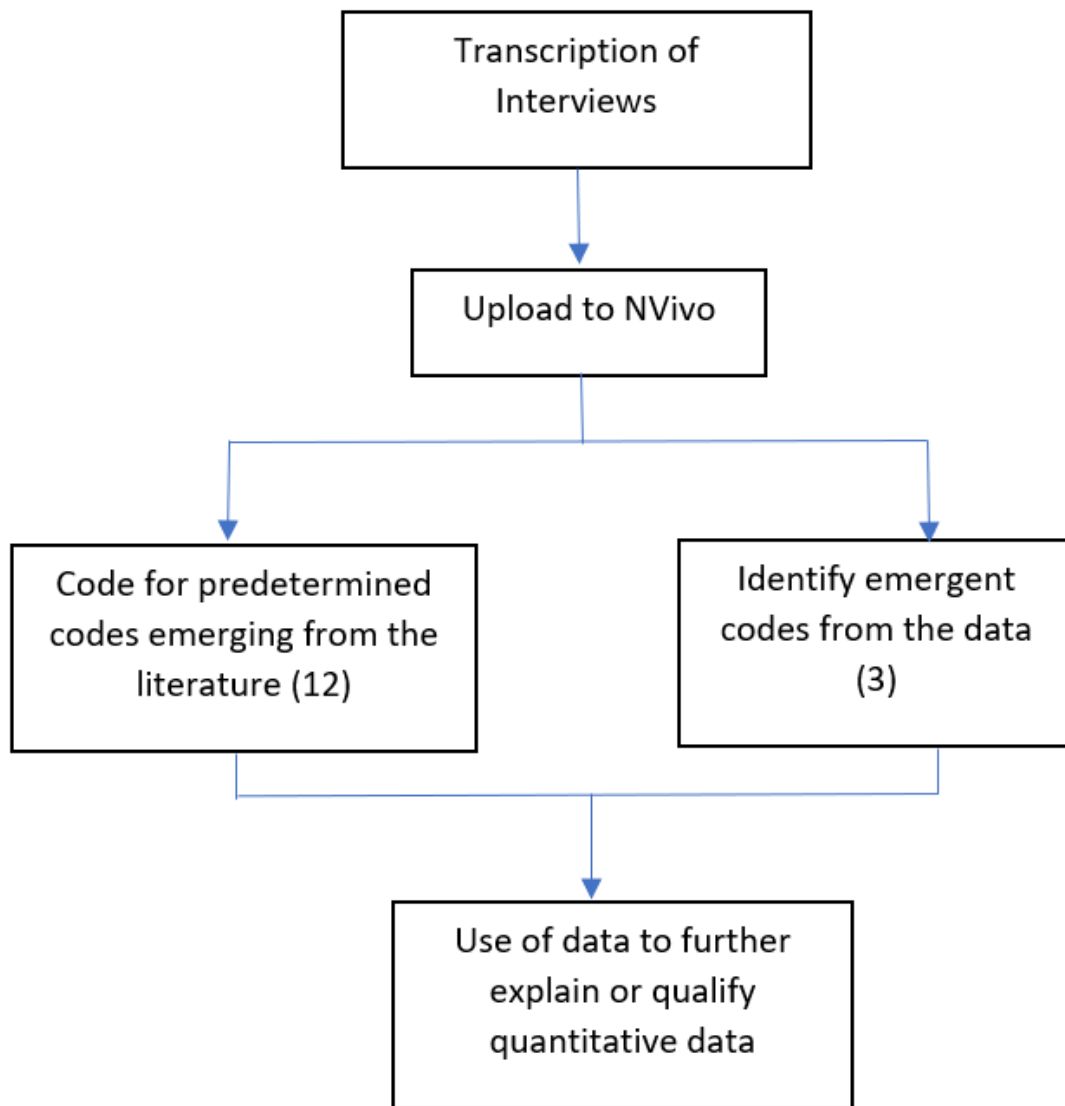
Figure 4.1 Analysis of qualitative data in this study

The 15 codes and the reason for inclusion are illustrated in the Coding Manual found in appendix I. These fifteen codes were organized according to three themes: language attitudes and use, challenges in learning and teaching, and language needs as illustrated in figure 4.2.
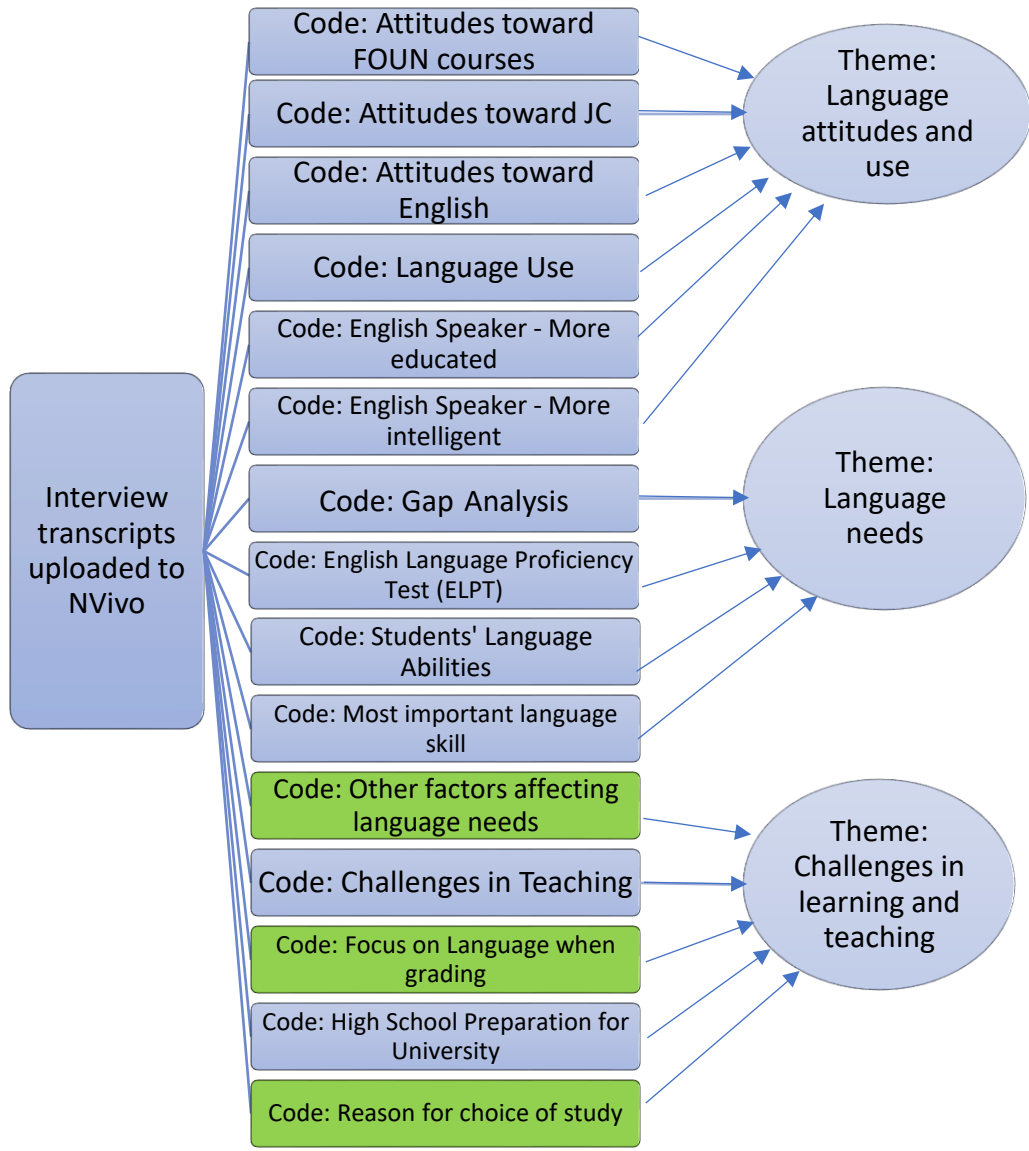
Figure 4.2 Process of arriving at themes from qualitative data

Predetermined codes

Emerging codes

CHAPTER 5: RESULTS

In chapter 5, I present the results of the data analysis in order to respond to the six research questions posed in chapter 1. The section is organized into seven parts which correspond with the questions being answered in this research, plus a final section which examines the general insights from the qualitative data according to the themes presented in section 4.5.3. The first two sections of the chapter examine the language needs from a target situation analysis perspective. Section 5.1 presents the language needs as interpreted from the language and SS course outlines, while section 5.2 considers the language needs based on the requirements of the ELPT. Sections 5.3 and 5.4 assess the language needs of the students from various stakeholders including students, teachers and administrators. These two sections combine present-situation, target-situation and gap analyses. Sections 5.5 and 5.6 examine how the needs identified in sections 3 and 4 vary across departments and across various sociolinguistic factors. Each section commences with an analysis of the various primary data sources, i.e. the course outline, ELPT and questionnaire (quantitative) data, and ends with a discussion of the insights coming from the interview (qualitative) data.

5.1 Analysis of course syllabi

In this section, I directly address research question 1 which examines the language abilities needed by the students in order to succeed in their language and SS courses. In doing so, I examined course outlines from the language foundation courses, FOUN1013 and FOUN1019, as well as course syllabi from the SS courses. The course outlines are not included in order to protect the anonymity of the lecturers.

For this stage of the research, I used Bachman and Palmer's (2010) characteristics of target language use tasks to analyse the skills-based abilities that undergraduate Social Science students are expected to have based on their course outlines. These skills-based abilities are reflective of the target situation (the university courses) in which the students are engaged. Therefore, in doing this characterization of tasks, I was able to do a target-situation analysis (Brown, 2016; West, 1997) of the students' needs. The tasks were ascertained by

listing them from the course outlines provided by the teachers. Tasks that were given to the students more than once throughout the course of the semester were not duplicated, and those that could be subsumed under another were not mentioned twice. For example, being able to write an essay assumes that the student would also be able to write an essay draft and, consequently, the characterization of these tasks would be the same.

5.1.1 Language courses (FOUN1013 & FOUN1019)

Students in the Social Sciences are required to do one of two language courses (FOUN1013 or FOUN1019) based on their performance in the ELPT. The researcher was provided with a copy of the 2016-2017 version of the FOUN1019 course outline and the 2017-2018 version of the FOUN1013 outline. Both course outlines were examined, and the tasks listed. Apart from the fact that FOUN1013 is a semester-long course and FOUN1019 is a year-long course, the difference between the tasks outlined for each course was minimal. In both language courses, students are required to attend lectures, participate in discussions, read handouts, read scholarly material (articles, books and handouts) then do summaries and paraphrases, watch videos, do peer and self-reviews, do oral presentations, write an essay (including drafts) and write a reflective paper at the end of the session. The most notable difference between the two courses is that in FOUN1019 students are required to do an in-course test in the first semester of the course consisting of a timed summary-writing activity, while FOUN1013 does not have this requirement.

For the analysis, the tasks listed above are grouped under four language skills (reading, writing, speaking and listening), then tasks which can be subsumed under each language skill were removed. All tasks are not listed, as explained above. In some instances, for example when students are required to read scholarly material, the scholarly material is the input and therefore, the expected response to this input may be in the form of a summary (written) or a class discussion (oral).

Table 5.1 Characteristics of Target Language Use Tasks for language courses

	Task 1: Writing an essay	**Task 2: Reading academic material**	**Task 3:** Doing oral presentations	**Task 4:** Listening to lectures
		(journal articles, textbooks)		
Language of input				
Organizational characteristics				
Grammatical	Technical and general vocabulary; varying grammatical structure; comprehensible graphology	Same as Task 1	Technical and general vocabulary; varying grammatical structure; comprehensible phonology	Same as Task 1
Textual	Cohesion	Same as Task 1	Same as Task 1	Same as Task 1
Pragmatic characteristics				
Functional	Ideational, manipulative (i.e. instrumental)	Same as Task 1	Same as Task 1	Same as Task 1
Sociolinguistic	Standard English Register: formal	Same as Task 1	Same as Task 1	Standard English Register: formal and informal
Topical characteristics	Academic or technical (specialized) topics	Same as Task 1	Same as Task 1	Same as Task 1
Characteristics of the expected response				
Format				
Channel	Written	Written/Oral	Oral	Same as Task 3
Form	Language based	Same as Task 1	Language and non-language-based (pictures, diagrams, illustrations, charts, PowerPoint, videos, or cartoons)	Same as Task 3

Language	Target (Standard English)	Target (Standard English); First (Jamaican Creole)	Same as Task 2	Same as Task 2
Length	Relatively long (1200 words)	Relatively short (summary or paraphrase)	Relatively short	Same as Task 3
Type	Extended response	Selected or limited response	Same as Task 1	Same as Task 2
Speededness	Not speeded (Done at home over a 14-week period)	Not speeded in general (Relatively speeded in the case of the in-course test given in FOUN1019)	Relatively speeded	Same as Task 3
Language of expected response				
Organizational characteristics				
Grammatical	General and technical vocabulary; variety grammatical structures,	Same as Task 1	Same as Task 1	Same as Task 1
Textual	Cohesion; rhetorical organization	Rhetorical (summary) or conversational (discussion) organization	Rhetorical (academic presentation) or conversational (discussion) organization	Conversational organization
Pragmatic characteristics				
Functional	Ideational	Same as Task 1	Ideational, heuristic	Same as Task 3
Sociolinguistic	Standard Jamaican English Register: formal	Standard Jamaican English Register: formal and informal	Both dialects, mostly standard Jamaican English Register: formal and informal, natural language	Same as Task 3

Topical characteristic	Academic or technical (specialized) topics	Same as Task 1	Same as Task 1	Same as Task 1
Relationship between input and response				
Reactivity	Non-reciprocal	Reciprocal and adaptive (discussion) or non-reciprocal (summary or paraphrase)	Reciprocal and adaptive	Same as Task 2
Scope of relationship	Narrow	Broad	Same as Task 1	Same as Task 2
Directness of relationship	Indirect	Direct	Indirect	Indirect

In the language courses, there were several different tasks that the students which the students must carry out. However, Table 5.1 breaks them into 4 major tasks, which basically would encapsulate all the other tasks that the students are required to do. The table, for the most part, reflects that for the input, the characteristics are generally the same. In terms of language, SJE was used as well as technical or specialized vocabulary. In terms of the expected responses, the language needs were different. One way in which they were different is the length required for the expected responses. For task one, the students were required to produce extended responses of at least 1200 words. In contrast, tasks two to three required limited responses which were mostly verbal. Another way in which the input differs from the expected response is the formality of the language or the register used. In task 1, the input and expected response is always SJE, but in tasks 2 to 3, the language of the expected response can be either SJE or JC. When students are having discussions or oral presentations, they may use SJE or a less formal variety.

Overall, the two language courses were similar in that both emphasised the academic writing process. One of the most evident differences between the two courses is that FOUN1019 is a year-long course and FOUN1013 is a semester-long course. As stated earlier, students were required to do this year-long course because they did not meet the university's English requirements for entry. Another major difference is that the students who did

FOUN1019 were required to do a timed summary writing activity at the end of their first semester doing the course.

5.1.1.1 Contextualizing insights from qualitative sources

The language courses were instituted in order to teach SS students how to read and write critically for their discipline. However, in the interviews, the SS teachers noted several issues regarding the implementation of these courses. One of the major challenges is that students were permitted to take their required foundation course (FOUN1013 or FOUN1019) at any point in their academic tenure. One psychology lecturer highlighted that:

> it makes no sense if this course is supposed to be helping them to express
> themselves, the whole issue of logic, the whole issue of critical thinking then
> it has to be done or it should- it's best going to serve them and us and the
> university if they do it earlier rather than later.

Several of the lecturers interviewed stated that there were students in the final year of their studies who were not permitted to graduate because they had not passed their language foundation course. However, this does not stand to logic as the foundation course is supposed to help them to prepare for writing at an academic level.

Another major challenge is that students had a negative attitude towards taking the foundation courses. One SS student commented that "I don't see the need of it in my career choice". Others described it as hard or difficult and some of the students had taken it more than once. One of the language teachers stated that, in general,

> the biggest challenge comes at the beginning of the course because there's so
> much resistance to doing this course. People start that first week being very
> afraid because they have heard a lot of bad news about the course. They had
> been told all sorts of negative things. Some of it not true at all.

Therefore, some students begin the course thinking that they might fail. The same psychology lecturer mentioned earlier suggested that maybe if the course were offered

by the students' own department of study, they would be more inclined to take it earlier in their studies.

The head of the government department also stated that he was not confident that one foundation course would be "sufficient for students doing different degrees". However, he could not comment in detail as he had never seen the course. The deputy head of the faculty of Social Sciences highlighted that they thought the foundation courses taught valuable things, but the students often forgot what they had been taught immediately after. Another government lecturer stated that they also had never seen the course. This begs the question as to whether or not the language courses were created with the needs of the SS courses in mind or in collaboration with the SS faculty.

5.1.2 Social Science courses

Only three of the five departments in the faculty of Social Sciences responded to the request to send a copy of their course outlines. These departments include Economics; Sociology, Psychology & Social Work; and the School of Business & Management. The departments of Government and Tourism & Hotel Management did not submit copies of their course outlines. This poses a potential problem for the comparison of the data from these two departments. As a result, only the three departments for which there are course outlines will be included in the comparative analysis of the language needs from the various sources. The names of the courses are not mentioned in order to preserve the anonymity of the lecturers, who are usually associated with particular courses at the university.

5.1.2.1 Economics courses

Two course outlines were submitted from the economics department. As indicated in Table 2, both courses had final examinations which required extended responses, as well as shorter writing assignments throughout the course. Compared to the language courses, the weekly requirements (tasks) of the course were not outlined in detail. The listed tasks

including reading textbooks, attending lectures and tutorials, doing in-course quizzes, writing final examinations, writing short 2-page essays and answering problem sets. One limitation of this analysis is that the course outlines were received after the interviews, so the researcher was not able to probe further regarding the nature of the tasks that were outlined on the syllabus.

Table 5.2 Characteristics of Target Language Use Tasks for economics courses

	Task 1: Writing mid-term and final examinations	**Task 2:** Reading academic material	**Task 3:** Participating in tutorial discussions	**Task 4:** Listening to lectures
		(textbooks)		
Language of input				
Organizational characteristics				
Grammatical	Technical and general vocabulary; varying grammatical structure; comprehensible graphology	Same as Task 1	Technical and general vocabulary; varying grammatical structure; comprehensible phonology	Same as Task 3
Textual	Cohesion	Same as Task 1	Same as Task 1	Same as Task 1
Pragmatic characteristics				
Functional	Ideational, manipulative (i.e. instrumental)	Same as Task 1	Same as Task 1	Same as Task 1
Sociolinguistic	Standard English Register: formal	Same as Task 1	Same as Task 1	Standard English Register: formal and informal
Topical characteristics	Academic or technical (specialized) topics	Same as Task 1	Same as Task 1	Same as Task 1

Characteristics of the expected response				
Format				
Channel	Written	Oral	Same as Task 2	Same as Task 2
Form	Language based	Same as Task 1	Same as Task 1	Same as Task 1
Language	Target (Standard English)	Target (Standard English); First (Jamaican Creole)	Same as Task 2	Same as Task 2
Length	Varied length (examination vs. in-course essay)	Relatively short	Same as Task 2	Same as Task 2
Type	Extended response	Limited response	Same as Task 2	Same as Task 2
Speededness	Speeded	Not speeded	Same as Task 2	Same as Task 2
Language of expected response				
Organizational characteristics				
Grammatical	General and technical vocabulary; variety grammatical structures,	Same as Task 1	Same as Task 1	Same as Task 1
Textual	Cohesion; rhetorical organization	Conversational (discussion) organization	Same as Task 2	Same as Task 2
Pragmatic characteristics				
Functional	Ideational	Ideational, manipulative	Same as Task 1	Same as Task 1
Sociolinguistic	Standard Jamaican English Register: formal	Both dialects, mostly standard Jamaican English Register: formal and informal,	Same as Task 2	Same as Task 2

		natural language		
Topical characteristic	Academic or technical (specialized) topics	Same as Task 1	Same as Task 1	Same as Task 1
Relationship between input and response				
Reactivity	Non-reciprocal	Reciprocal and adaptive (discussion)	Same as Task 2	Same as Task 2
Scope of relationship	Narrow	Broad	Narrow	Same as Task 3
Directness of relationship	Indirect or Direct (in-course quizzes)	Direct	Direct	Direct

Like the language courses, there was a difference between the input and the expected responses for the SS courses. While input was received in SJE, students were often permitted to respond in a less formal variety of English or JC for tasks 2 to 4.

5.1.2.2 Psychology course

Only one course outline was submitted from the Psychology Department. The tasks represented include reading academic material, writing final examinations, writing academic papers and participating in discussions. The characterization of tasks would be the same as the Economic courses.

5.1.2.3 Business courses

There were two course outlines submitted from the business department. The tasks for these courses include reading textbooks, magazine articles and newspapers, writing multiple-choice examinations and final examinations, listening to lectures, participating in

discussions and doing oral presentations. One of the differences between the business courses and the other aforementioned courses is that there are multiple-choice examinations used a means of assessing the students. The analysis of the language tasks for business courses is provided in the Table 5.3.

Table 5.3 Characteristics of Target Language Use Tasks for business courses

	Task 1: Writing examinations	**Task 2:** Reading academic and non-academic material	**Task 3:** Doing oral presentations	**Task 4:** Listening to lectures
		(newspapers, articles, textbooks)		
Language of input				
Organizational characteristics				
Grammatical	Technical and general vocabulary; varying grammatical structure; comprehensible graphology	Same as Task 1	Technical and general vocabulary; varying grammatical structure; comprehensible phonology	Same as Task 1
Textual	Cohesion	Same as Task 1	Same as Task 1	Same as Task 1
Pragmatic characteristics				
Functional	Ideational, manipulative (i.e. instrumental)	Same as Task 1	Same as Task 1	Ideational
Sociolinguistic	Standard English Register: formal	Same as Task 1	Same as Task 1	Standard English Register: formal and informal
Topical characteristics	Academic or technical (specialized) topics	Same as Task 1	Same as Task 1	Same as Task 1
Characteristics of the expected response				

Format

Channel	Written	Written/Oral	Oral	Same as Task 3
Form	Language based	Same as Task 1	Language and non-language-based (pictures, diagrams, illustrations, charts, PowerPoint, videos, or cartoons)	Same as Task 3
Language	Target (Standard English)	Target (Standard English); First (Jamaican Creole)	Target (Standard English); First (Jamaican Creole)	Same as Task 3
Length	Relatively long (final examination); Relatively short multiple-choice questions (MCQs)	Relatively short	Relatively short	Same as Task 3
Type	Extended response (final examination); Limited response (MCQs)	Selected or limited response	Same as Task 1	Same as Task 1
Speededness	Speeded	Not speeded in general	Relatively speeded	Same as Task 3
Language of expected response				
Organizational characteristics				
Grammatical	General and technical vocabulary; variety grammatical structures,	Same as Task 1	Same as Task 1	Same as Task 1
Textual	Cohesion; rhetorical organization	Conversational (discussion) organization	Rhetorical (academic presentation) or conversational (discussion) organization	Conversational organization
Pragmatic characteristics				
Functional	Ideational	Same as Task 1	Ideational, heuristic	Same as Task 3
Sociolinguistic	Standard Jamaican English Register: formal	Standard Jamaican English	Both dialects, mostly standard Jamaican English	Same as Task 3

		Register: formal and informal	Register: formal and informal, natural language	
Topical characteristic	Academic or technical (specialized) topics	Same as Task 1	Same as Task 1	Same as Task 1
Relationship between input and response				
Reactivity	Non-reciprocal	Reciprocal and adaptive (discussion)	Reciprocal and adaptive	Same as Task 1
Scope of relationship	Narrow	Broad	Narrow	Same as Task 2
Directness of relationship	Indirect	Direct	Indirect	Indirect

In summary, the results of the target situation analysis based on the course outlines reveal that the SS courses generally required the same types of tasks. In some cases, it was hard to determine from the course outlines what was specifically required of the students. The nature of the written assignments in the psychology course is not outlined, but it can be assumed that it varies in terms of the requirements. While the economics students were required to answer problem sets, the business students were not asked to do this type of task. The business students, however, were asked to give oral presentations, which was not a requirement in the psychology or economics courses included in the study. Students were required to do oral presentation in both language courses.

Despite the presence of multiple-choice questions and non-academic reading material in the business courses, the language courses and the Social Sciences courses generally have the same tasks for their students. One major difference between the SS and language courses is that the writing components of the SS courses tended to be speeded, while in the latter the written evaluations were not speeded. The only exception was the in-course test that the students were required to do in the year-long FOUN1019 course.

In the next section, the results of this characterization of the tasks on the course outlines will be compared with the analysis of the test tasks in the ELPT. This comparison

will answer research question 2 which examines the extent to which the ELPT measures the skills needed in the faculty and language courses.

5.2 Analysis of the English Language Proficiency Test

As described in Chapter 1, the purpose of the English Language Proficiency Test is "to assess whether persons applying to pursue undergraduate degree programmes at the UWI Mona campus possess a satisfactory level of writing and reading proficiency in English for academic purposes" (UWI, 2016, p.1). This, in essence, labels the test as a proficiency test. However, it must be noted that the test is used to determine whether students will take a year-long (FOUN1019) or semester-long (FOUN1013) course with the language department. This suggests that even though the test is primarily used as an assessment of proficiency, it is also used as a placement test.

5.2.1 Characteristics of the test tasks

This section provides information about the macro- and micro-constructs being tested on the ELPT, in order to ascertain the extent to which the ELPT corresponds to student language needs as identified in the task analysis of the course outline (i.e., target-situation analysis). It will start by examining the characteristics of the setting of the test, the rubrics of the test and, finally, the input and expected response of the test according to Bachman's (1990) framework of test characteristics (Bachman and Palmer, 1996).

5.2.1.1 Characteristics of the setting

In this section, we examine the physical circumstances under which the test is being taken. This is done in order to determine whether or not the physical exigencies of the test setting may have an impact on the test-takers' success.

Physical Setting

The test is administered at the University of the West Indies in one of the main examination halls which can accommodate several hundred students. There is a minimum level of noise as the building is enclosed. However, if the room becomes hot, then the doors will be opened which allows for some amount of noise in the form of students or cars that are passing the examination hall. Signs are placed outside of the examination room which indicate to passers-by that there is an examination in progress. The candidates are only allowed to take their writing implements to the exam, that is, pens, pencils, erasers and correction fluid.

Participants

In the examination room, there are several test-takers and invigilators. The test-takers are from varying backgrounds and are trying to gain entrance to different faculties within the university, not just the faculty of Social Sciences.

Time of Task

The test lasts for three hours, that is, 180 minutes. Approximately ten to fifteen minutes of this time is used for test administration.

5.2.1.2 Characteristics of the test rubrics

In this section, we scrutinize the structure of the test. According to Ellis (2003), the rubric of a test specifies the objective of the task and what the test-taker must do to reach those objectives.

Instructions

The instructions of the test are given in Standard English as English is the official language of the country of Jamaica. These instructions are provided on each test paper and are also read aloud by the invigilator. Therefore, they are given both aurally and visually.

Specification of Procedures and Tasks

There are three (3) sections: grammar, reading and writing. According to the test format given online, the following details the requirements of each section:

Section A: Grammar (Time recommended: 40 mins.)

Candidates will be required to answer alternative/multiple-choice questions on any or all of the following:

1. Grammar of the Simple Sentence

2. Grammar of Complex/Compound Sentences

3. Idiomatic Usage (diction & structures)

4. Writing Mechanics & Spelling

Candidates will not be tested on their knowledge of formal grammar, but on their ability to distinguish between correct and incorrect structures.

Section B: Reading (Time recommended: 40 mins.)

Candidates will be required to read one or more passages and to answer alternative/multiple-choice questions on any or all of the following:

1. Main &/or secondary ideas

2. Literal and figurative meaning

3. Explicit and implicit meaning

4. Writer's primary intention/attitude/tone

5. Organizational structure (paragraph/text)

Section C: Writing (2 Tasks – Time recommended: 80 mins.)

<u>Task 1</u> (45 mins.) This will require candidates to write a 300-word essay in which they provide information and ideas on a topic of general interest.

<u>Task 2</u> (35 mins.) This will require candidates to write approximately 250 words describing numerical data contained in a table or in a graphical illustration.

(N.B. 15 mins. Of the duration of the test will be reserved for test administration)

(UWI, 2017)

Structure

The test contains three sections (as seen before). In each section, there are clearly distinguished parts with separate tasks, which test different areas of language ability. The paper is sequenced in such a way that there are two multiple-choice sections pertaining to Grammar & Comprehension, then two essays in the last section. There are several tasks that the test-taker must undertake. In the first section (Grammar), there are fifty (50) multiple-choice questions. In the comprehension section there are 20 multiple-choice questions and in the final section there are two (2) essays.

Time allotment

The ELPT is a 3-hour test, and it is recommended that the candidates writing the exam use 40 minutes each for sections A and B. Section C is to be done in 80 minutes.

Scoring Method

Criteria for correctness is ensured especially for the multiple-choice section because they are objective; answers are either right or wrong. The essays are marked based on a mark scheme but are still open to subjectivity. The procedures for scoring the response are papers are collected then shared among the markers, they are then second marked to ensure reliability before the final grades are decided upon. The scoring criteria and procedures are explicitly outlined in the test preparation booklet.

5.2.1.3 Characteristics of the Input

Format

The input is provided in the form of a visual channel, that is, the test paper. The form is language only utilizing the target language which is Standard Jamaican English. The length of the input in Section A is very short; there are only single sentences. In Section B, the input consists of two to four paragraphs. Finally, in Section C the input consists of sentences and statistical data from which the test-takers will have to generate essays.

Type of Input

In section A, there are prompts. However, in sections B and C, there are items. With respect to the degree of speededness, the test is speeded as there are three (3) hours to complete three (3) sections. The vehicle through which the input is provided is reproduced material.

Construct Definition

In Section A, the macro-construct being measured is grammar and the micro-construct is the students' knowledge of syntax. Section B measures reading comprehension,

but there are other micro-constructs being measured such as reading, textual knowledge, and comprehension. Lastly, in Section C, the macro-construct being measured is essay writing. However, various micro-constructs are being assessed including punctuations and mechanics of writing, vocabulary, rhetorical organization, cohesion and grammar. The students' textual, functional and sociolinguistic knowledge are also being tested.

5.2.2 Analysis of Test: Relationship between TLU and test tasks

Comparing table 5.4 with the TLU, namely the task characteristics of the language courses (see Table 5.1), we see that one of the significant differences between the language courses and the ELPT is the length of the expected response. In sections A and B of the ELPT, students respond using MCQs. However, this is not the format of the expected response for any of the SS courses except the business course included in the study. For section C of the test, even though students were required to provide extended responses, these responses were limited to only 300 words. This is in no way reminiscent of the length of the writing tasks that the students would have to do in their language courses. However, it can be likened to the short answer responses that some of the SS courses required.

Table 5.4 Characteristics of Target Language Use Tasks for ELPT

	Task 1: Section A (Grammar)	Task 2: Section B (Reading Comprehension)	Task 3: Section C (Writing)
	Grammar (MCQ)	Reading comprehension	Writing Essay
Language of input			
Organizational characteristics			
Grammatical	Technical and general vocabulary; varying grammatical structure; comprehensible graphology	Same as Task 1	Same as Task 1
Textual	Cohesion	Same as Task 1	Same as Task 1
Pragmatic characteristics			
Functional	Ideational, manipulative (i.e. instrumental)	Same as Task 1	Same as Task 1
Sociolinguistic	Standard English	Same as Task 1	Same as Task 1
	Register: formal		
Topical characteristics	General topics	Same as Task 1	Same as Task 1
Characteristics of the expected response			
Format			
Channel	Written	Same as Task 1	Same as Task 1
Form	Language based	Same as Task 1	Same as Task 1
Language	Target (Standard English)	Same as Task 1	Same as Task 1
Length	Short (MCQ)	Short (MCQ)	Relatively short (300 words)
Type	Limited response	Same as Task 1	Extended response
Speededness	Speeded	Same as Task 1	Same as Task 1
Language of expected response			
Organizational characteristic			

Grammatical	General and technical vocabulary; variety grammatical structures,	Same as Task 1	Same as Task 1
Textual	Cohesion	Same as Task 1	Cohesion; rhetorical organization
Pragmatic characteristics			
Functional	Ideational	Same as Task 1	Same as Task 1
Sociolinguistic	Standard Jamaican English Register: formal	Same as Task 1	Same as Task 1
Topical characteristic	General topics	Same as Task 1	Same as Task 1
Relationship between input and response			
Reactivity	Non-reciprocal	Same as Task 1	Same as Task 1
Scope of relationship	Narrow	Same as Task 1	Broad
Directness of relationship	Direct	Same as Task 1	Indirect

In the Table 5.5, there is a more detailed comparison of the tasks listed in the ELPT against the tasks required in the target language situation i.e. the language and SS courses. Rather than looking at an isolated task which may not be represented in the ELPT but not the TLU, I looked globally at the language abilities required for the various types of tasks present in the test and those in the TLU. In this table, we see that the language abilities required by the tasks in the ELPT generally correspond with those of the TLU. However, there is poor alignment between the test tasks and the TLU tasks in terms of knowledge of phonology, conversational organization, communication intentions, dialect, natural or idiomatic expressions and cultural references. This may be because there is no oral component as part of the ELPT where these elements may be more evident.

Table 5.5 Language abilities required by ELPT tasks vs. TLU tasks

Type of analysis	The Test Tasks (ELPT)	TLU Tasks: SS Courses	TLU Tasks: Business Courses*	TLU Tasks: Language Courses
ORGANIZATIONAL KNOWLEDGE				
Grammatical knowledge				
Knowledge of vocabulary	✓	✓	✓	✓
Knowledge of syntax	✓	✓	✓	✓
Knowledge of phonology	✗	✓	✓	✓
Textual knowledge				
Knowledge of cohesion	✓	✓	✓	✓
Knowledge of conversational organization	✗	✓	✓	✓
PRAGMATIC KNOWLEDGE				
Functional knowledge				
Objectives of communication goals	✓	✓	✓	✓
Sociolinguistic knowledge				
Knowledge of genres	✗	✓	✓	✓
Knowledge of dialects/varieties	✗	✓	✓	✓
Knowledge of registers	✓	✓	✓	✓
Knowledge of natural or idiomatic expressions	✗	✓	✓	✓
Knowledge of cultural references and figures of speech	✗	✓	✓	✓

(Adapted from Bachman & Palmer, 2010, pg. 45)

*N.B. Business courses are listed separately because they include multiple-choice questions, which are not characteristic of the other SS courses.

To conclude this section, I present an overall assessment of the ELPT according to the six qualities of test usefulness as defined by Bachman and Palmer (1996) and as previously presented in section 2.1.2. In terms of reliability, only one sample of the test was analyzed, so it is not possible to determine if the test is reliable from one sitting to the next. The construct validity of the test is not apparent as it is not clear if passing the test equals more competence. The evaluation of the test also revealed that it is lacking in terms of its authenticity. This is particularly evident in the comparison Table 5.5. The test tasks do not match the TLU tasks; therefore, the ELPT is not an accurate measurement of the type of tasks required by the target situation. In terms of the interactiveness, we see that there is limited interaction between the TLU tasks, test tasks and the test taker. No topical knowledge is required for the successful completion of the test. In fact, the same test is given to potential students from all faculties and departments within these faculties.

The impact of the test is very minimal on the test-taker. Whether or not they pass the test, they will be admitted to the university. However, if they fail, they will be required to do a year-long academic writing course. If they pass, they will only have to do a semester-long writing course. In terms of the societal impact, the objective of the ELPT to assure an acceptable level of competence in English is in line with the overall values of the education system. As evidenced from the Jamaican language attitude survey, even though the majority of Jamaicans speak Jamaican Creole, the use of English was seen by the majority of the participants as the mark of the educated (Jamaica Language Unit, 2005). Finally, in terms of practicality, since the students pay for the test, there are limited implications for the institution in terms of the utilization of its resources. However, if a speaking component is added, it will demand more human resources from the university for the implementation of the test.

5.2.3 Contextualizing insights about the ELPT from qualitative sources

The ELPT is called a proficiency test, but as one language lecturer pointed out it functions as a proficiency test, a diagnostic test and a placement test. The test is primarily used to separate students into two main groups in the university system: those who must take

a year-long course - FOUN1019 and those who must take a semester-long course - FOUN1013. The head of the psychology department noted that "it's a single evaluation and the problem with any kind of single evaluation is that it measures things at one particular point in time. I am much more excited about time series kinds of evaluations". This suggests that students may not be best evaluated in one test setting, resultingly, they may be placed in the wrong language course. While some teachers agree that the test is quite effective in placing students in the appropriate course, others lament that they often find students in FOUN1013 who should be in FOUN1019. One language teacher even ventured to say that the opposite may very well be true.

The purpose of the ELPT as a proficiency test is not clear as the students are admitted to the university even if they do not pass the test or illustrate that they have the basic writing skills needed to function at this level. Compounded with the fact that students may take the FOUN courses at any time in their academic tenure, this may prevent students from being able to write effectively in their other courses. A psychology lecturer pointed out that the fact that some students have passed all their other courses and only need the FOUN course to graduate "either means that they haven't done as well as they could have or whether three years ago because they haven't gone through this training or that this course really isn't all that useful". Another SS lecturer in the business department stated that one year the valedictorian of the graduating class "murdered the English language", which suggests that even though they have been the highest achieving graduate in that year they had not mastered the English language. In the SS, the interview data suggests that mastery of SJE may not affect their grades as the SS teachers do not place heavy emphasis on language, but as one lecturer pointed out, it may affect them in the workplace. One psychology teacher recommended that the students be obligated to take the FOUN course within the first semester of being accepted into the university.

Even though the ELPT tests basic grammar and writing skills, one language teacher pointed out that way more is expected of them in their foundation courses. If this is so, it leads us to wonder why this test is used as the benchmark for determining whether or not the students will be able to meet the language needs of the university. One SS lecturer remarked

that the word limit for section C of the ELPT can be likened to an abstract and should not be classified as an essay.

In the analysis of the test task characteristics using Bachman and Palmer's framework, we noted that multiple-choice questions were used to assess the students' grammar and comprehension. The head of the business department pointed out that this was not appropriate as "English is a very nuanced language"; therefore, it required more than just a choice between three of four options. Additionally, they highlighted another issue, which is that the majority of students required to take the test are Jamaicans. He stated, "The fact that we're using it for a country, which should have English as a native tongue […] That…to me is a true story.". This indicates that those who are required to take the test did not meet the requirements listed above for entry into the university. The head of the psychology department added that "I'm very strong on the idea that people are who are graduating from a purportedly English-speaking university ought to at a minimum demonstrate that they have the capacity to speak and write English".

In concluding, the results indicate that the ELPT should reduce the number of MCQs items used. If they are used, they should have more possible answers that would reduce the possibility of students guessing the right answer. The length of the writing section of the ELPT also does not reflect the target situation at the university where the students are required to produce much longer pieces of writing and do oral presentations. In the first two sections, we have assessed the target situation for the SS students through an analysis of their courses and the ELPT. In the next sections, we will look at the present-situation, target-situation and calculate the gap as shown by the questionnaire and interview data.

5.3 Self-assessed language needs of FOUN1019 students

In this section, we present the results of the questionnaire data about the self-perceived language needs of the FOUN1019 students. The students were asked to assess their own competences in the four major language skills (reading, writing, speaking, listening) and communicative language abilities. Then, they were asked to rate the importance of these skills at the university level (the expectations) on a 5- level scale ranging from 'not at all important' to 'extremely important' (Appendix C).

5.3.1 Descriptive statistics on the importance of abilities and their order of importance for FOUN1019 students

The results of the analysis of data obtained from the questionnaire, reveal that the respondents overwhelmingly rate 'all' four skills as *extremely important* for their success in their Social Science courses, with *reading* having the highest percentage (71.43%) followed by *writing* (67.7%), *listening* (58.7%), and *speaking* (56.5%) skills. See Table 5.6 for the detailed frequency counts for each skill.

Table 5.6 Descriptive Statistics for Q9 (Importance of skills for FOUN1019 students' success)

	Q9_A	READING	Q9_B	LISTENING	Q9_C	SPEAKING	Q9_D	WRITING
	Freq.	Percent	Freq.	Percent	Freq.	Percent	Freq.	Percent
2	1	1.59	1	1.59	2	3.23	1	1.61
3	2	3.17	6	9.52	6	9.68	6	9.68
4	15	23.81	19	30.16	19	30.65	13	20.97
5	45	71.43	37	58.73	35	56.45	42	67.74

(Freq. – Frequency)

5.3.2 Descriptive statistics on the order of importance of abilities for FOUN1019 students

The FOUN1019 students were also asked to place the four language skills in order of importance for their success in their Social Science courses. Students were also permitted to

assign the skills the same number if they thought that they were equally important, with 1 listed as the most important and 4 as the least important. The results of the analysis of data obtained from the questionnaire reveal that the respondents ranked reading as the most important skill of all the four language skills the most times (68.85%), followed by writing (48.28%) and listening (37.29%). On the contrary, speaking was ranked the most important skill the least number of times of all the language skills (36.67%). See Table 5.7 for the detailed frequency counts for each skill.

Table 5.7 Descriptive Statistics for Q10 (Order of importance of skills for students' success)

	Q10_1 READING		Q10_2 SPEAKING		Q10_3 LISTENING		Q10_4 WRITING	
	Freq.	Percent	Freq.	Percent	Freq.	Percent	Freq.	Percent
1	42	68.85	22	36.67	22	37.29	28	48.28
2	9	14.75	12	20.00	16	27.12	20	34.48
3	8	13.11	12	20.00	9	15.25	8	13.79
4	2	3.28	14	23.33	12	20.34	2	3.45

(Freq. – Frequency)

5.3.2 Gap analysis for FOUN1019 students

To answer RQ3, a comparison of the means of the questionnaire's results with respect to the learners' *expectations* as well as their self-assessment of their *competence,* reported above, was conducted. Table 5.8 summarizes the outcome of the MEANS procedure:

Table 5.8 Results of MEANS procedure for FOUN1019 students for gap analysis

The MEANS Procedure							
Analysis Variable: score							
Ability	Aspect	N Obs	N	Mean	Std Dev	Minimum	Maximum
Communicative	Expectation	63	58	4.07	0.67	2.33	5.00
	Competence	63	62	3.51	0.62	2.00	5.00
Listening	Expectation	63	59	4.27	0.62	3.00	5.00
	Competence	63	63	3.86	0.71	1.80	5.00
Reading	Expectation	63	62	3.99	0.53	2.83	5.00

The MEANS Procedure							
Analysis Variable: score							
Ability	Aspect	N Obs	N	Mean	Std Dev	Minimum	Maximum
	Competence	63	63	3.68	0.57	2.00	5.00
Speaking	Expectation	63	59	4.18	0.74	2.75	5.00
	Competence	63	63	3.71	0.95	1.50	5.00
Writing	Expectation	63	59	3.99	0.57	2.67	5.00
	Competence	63	63	3.57	0.64	2.20	5.00

As can be seen from the Table 5.8, for all language ability areas (i.e., reading, writing, listening and speaking), the students' expectations are higher than their self-assessed competencies based on the mean score. To determine whether the differences between the competences and expectations in different language ability areas were significant, a test of Analysis of variance (ANOVA) was run. The results revealed that the differences were significant ($p \leq 0.05$) for all ability areas. The largest gap amongst the five skills assessed was found amongst the communicative language abilities followed by listening, reading, speaking, then writing which had the lowest gap.

5.3.3 Contextualizing insights about most important skill for FOUN1019 students from qualitative sources

Overall, the students rated reading as being an extremely important skill for their success in their courses the greatest number of times. The results also suggest that the FOUN1019 students are aware that their overall self-assessed competences in the various language skills are below their self-reported assessment of the expectations of the university. Students do not seem to have the requisite language skills to function in an academic setting. This information was corroborated by the interview data. One head of department remarked:

I don't believe our students are adequately prepared for language, in terms

of being able to manipulate language, reading comprehension, [or] using it

is as a tool. I'm very concerned. So outside of a handful, literally of high

scholars, it's a lottery as to what you'll get. Whether or not they have the required […] English at CXC, CSEC or CAPE.

This suggests that very few students are adequately prepared for the language demands of the program. He also highlighted that it was entirely possible for students to pass through the entire educational system without being a fluent English speaker. One language teacher noted that there is a noticeable decrease in grammatical errors, but a general weakness in the structure of the students' arguments. This was supported by the same head of department previously mentioned. Another Social Science lecturer stated that there were no issues with grammar and sentence structure, but in how the students communicated in writing.

5.4 Language needs of in-program students

5.4.1 Profile of in-program students

In the literature, scholars point to the importance of examining the attitudes of the participants in order to determine how these attitudes may influence the language needs of the individuals. In this section, we commence by looking at the students' language use.

5.4.1.1 Language use

In question 15 of the in-program student questionnaire, students were asked to give a percentage for JC and another for SJE totaling to 100% that describes their language use in different situations. These percentages were then converted to codes: a percentage of over 50% in one language as opposed to the other meant that the student spoke that language in the situation for the majority of the time. For example, if the student indicated that they spoke English 70% of the time, it would be coded as ENG. Conversely, if they had a majority percentage for Jamaican Creole, it would be coded as JC. If the percentage was 50%, it would be marked as EQUAL.

The results indicated that 58% of the students used Jamaican Creole at home. This result illustrates that for most students, JC was their home language. 26% of the students reported that they used English mostly at home. 15% stated that they used the languages equally at home and 1% did not respond.
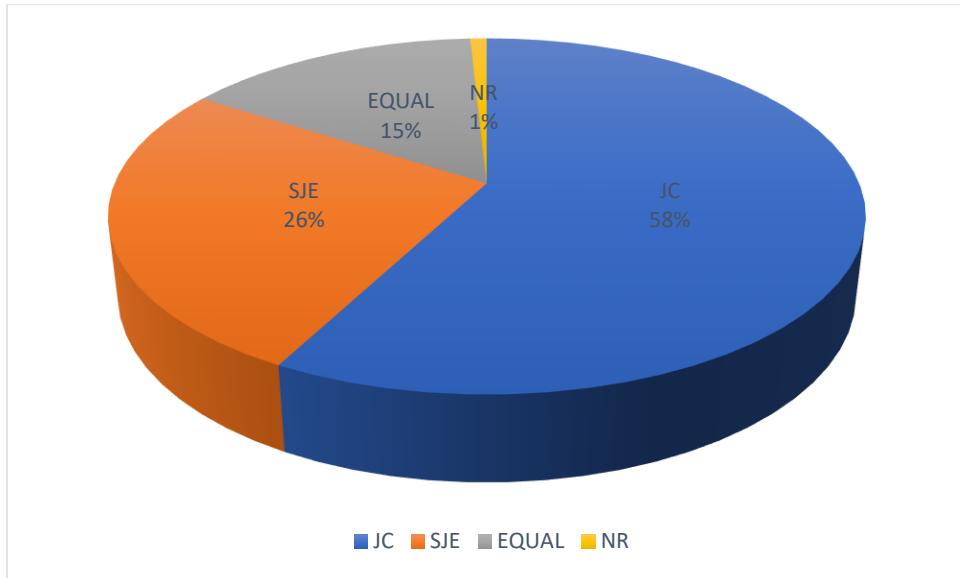
Figure 5.1: In-program students' language use at home

The results also showed that the majority of the students (52%) used Jamaican Creole when speaking to their friends off-campus. Half of that number (26%) used English in the same situation, while 21% percent reported that their usage of the language was equal. 1% of the participants did not respond.
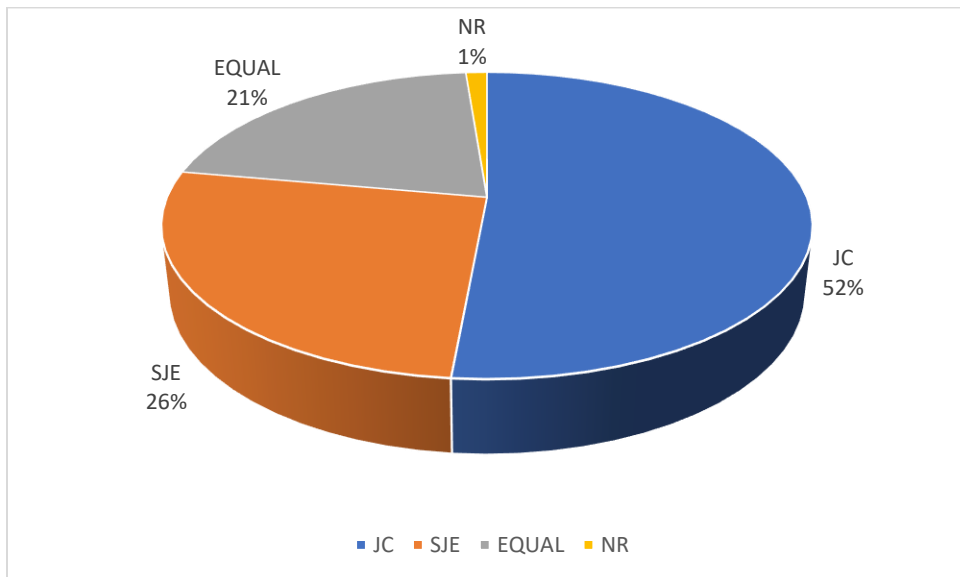
Figure 5.2: In-program students' language use with friends off-campus

When the students spoke to their teachers, the majority (n=211) did so in SJE. This could be because they perceived this to be a formal situation.

n=239
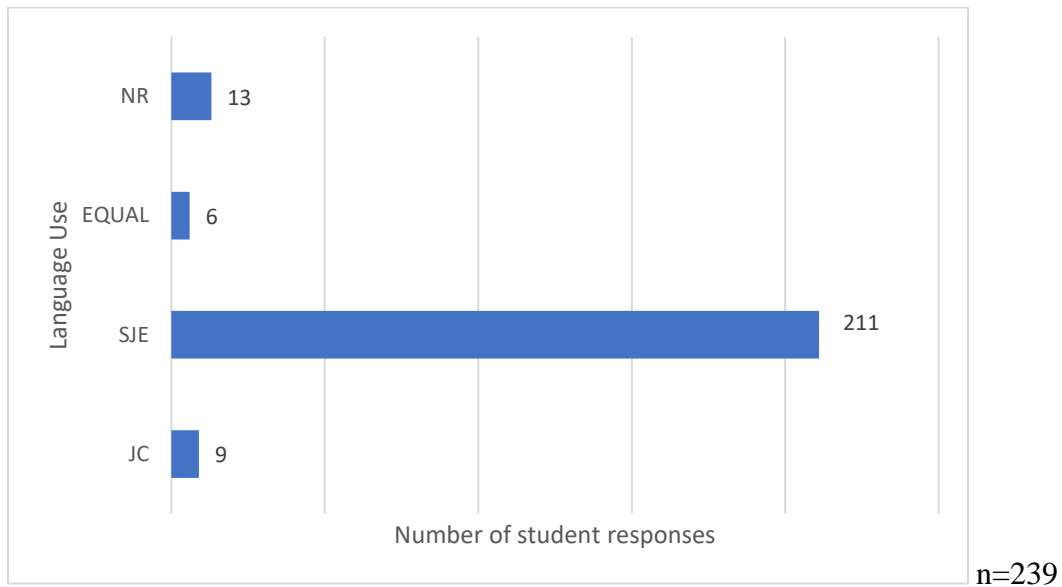
Figure 5.3 In-program students' language use when talking to teachers

Students also tended to use English when doing presentations in class. Most of the students (n=225) used English, a slightly higher number than those who spoke to their teachers in English.
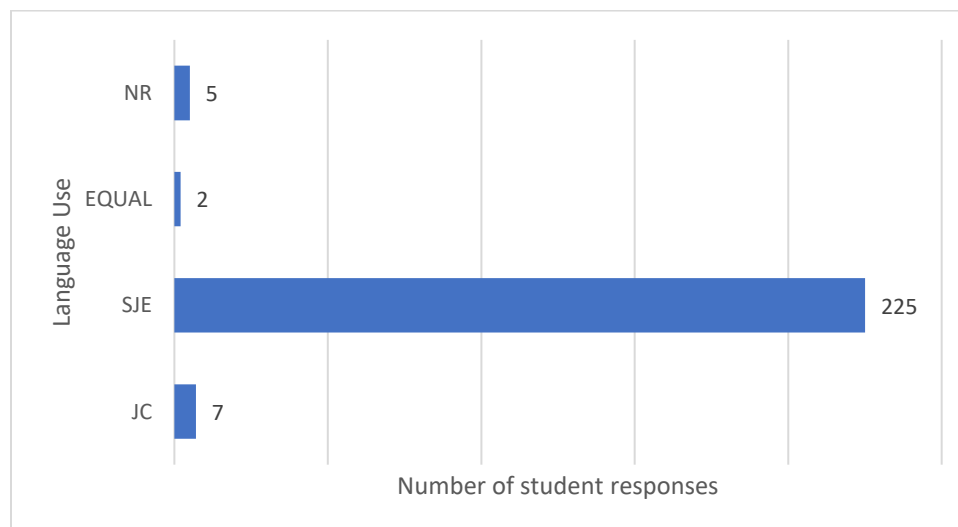
Figure 5.4 In-program students' language use when doing a presentation in class

Overall, the majority of the students reported that they used JC at home or with their friends off-campus, which could be perceived as when they are most comfortable. In the interviews, one student reported that he felt more relaxed in Creole. In formal situations, such as talking to their teachers and doing class presentations, the students used English. In both of these situations, nonetheless, there were a few students who spoke JC when talking to their teacher (n=9) and doing a class presentation (n=7). Even though a minority, it could indicate that they are predominantly JC speakers. In fact, some lecturers pointed out that some of their students were incapable of speaking English. The head of the business department noted "We're not getting students who are comfortable in English. We're getting students who are treating English almost as a foreign language. They can't express their ideas well in English, sometimes you see them getting frustrated and lapsing into Patois". The head of the business department's comment about Patois, otherwise known as Jamaican Creole, indicates that students were not adequately proficient in English. One student highlighted that there were times when "I can't spell this word and I realized that I changed the whole sentence because I can't spell a certain word which I should know how to spell". This student's remark points to one of the challenges for the students who are attempting to use English in the academic university setting.

5.4.1.2 Language attitudes

Another factor which may have an influence on the needs of the students is their attitudes toward JC and SJE. In this section, I present an overview of some of these attitudes particularly related to the formality, femininity and of JSE, which will be discussed further in chapter 6 to examine how these may influence their needs. 52% of the SS students (n=124) strongly disagreed with the statement that Jamaican Creole is not a language. These results indicate that they are cognizant of the fact that it is indeed a language. 14% of the SS students (n=33) remained neutral or undecided about whether or not Jamaican Creole is a language, which may indicate that they are not certain of the status of the language. Only 8% of the students (n=18) agreed that Jamaican Creole was not a language and 6% (n=15) strongly agreed that it was not a language.

n=239
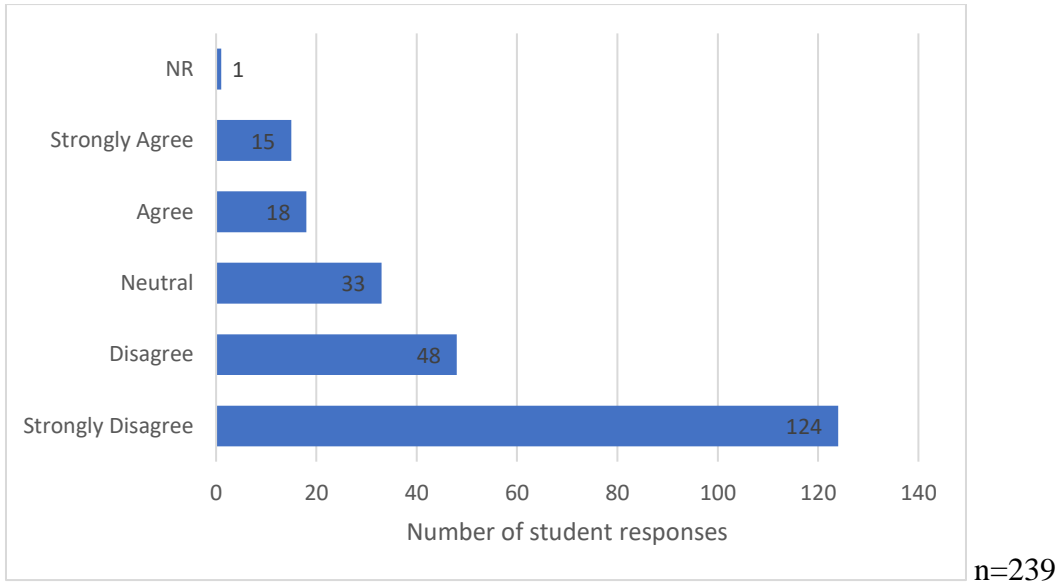
Figure 5.5: In-program students' response to statement "Jamaican Creole is not a language."

When asked to respond to the statement 'Jamaican Creole is bad English', the majority of the students (n=97) strongly disagreed. 54 of the 239 disagreed with the statement and 46 were neutral about the importance of the skill. 24 of the participants agreed that it was bad English, and 17 students strongly agreed with the statement.
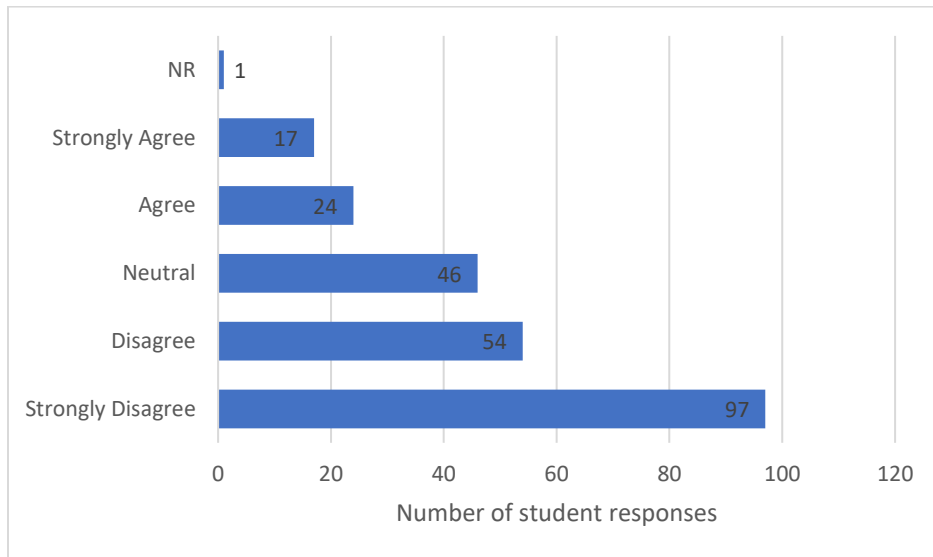
Figure 5.6 In-program students' response to statement "Jamaican Creole is bad English"

Finally, as seen in Figure 5.7 when asked about whether or not speaking Jamaican English was effeminate, most of the students also disagreed.
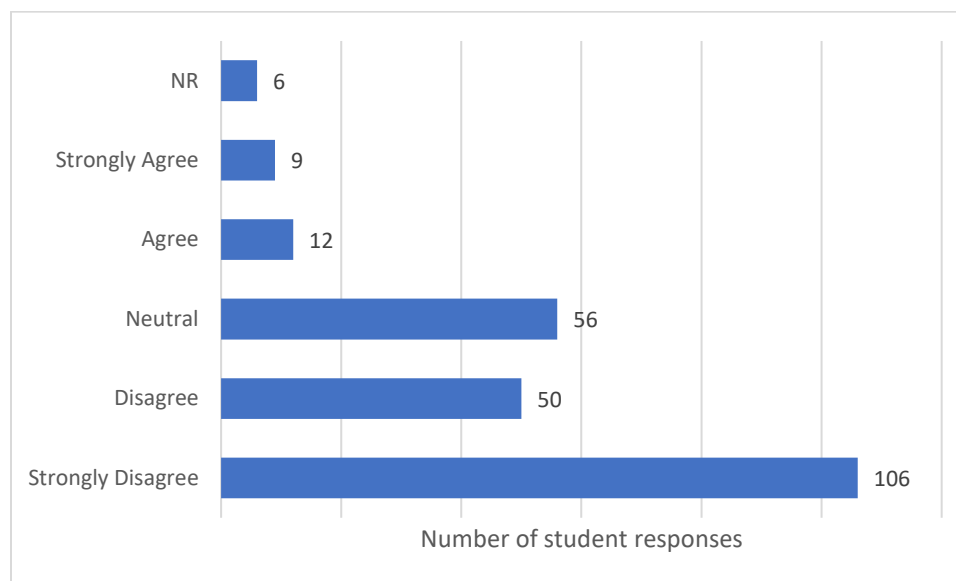
Figure 5.7: In-program students;' response to statement "Speaking English is effeminate."

If we compare these findings to those of the Language Attitude Survey (2007), we see that there may be changing attitudes toward the views of Jamaican Creole, at least amongst university students or those who are more educated. Even though, in the past, Jamaican Creole was not seen as a language or was seen as bad English (Christie, 2003), the results here indicate that there is more widespread acceptance of Jamaican Creole as a language in its own right.

5.4.1.3 Contextualizing insights about attitudes from qualitative sources

Based on the results of the quantitative data analysis, there seems to be an evolution in the way JC is viewed by Jamaicans. While some older Jamaicans believe that JC is not a language, others believe that it is. According to one administrator, "Creole is not an

international language. They cannot communicate and write an essay in Creole. So therefore, the standard should be set…We have the Creole already, we need to be proficient in English Language, it takes us places.". Both SS and language lecturers argued that there are changing attitudes and more acceptance and recognition of it as a language.

One business lecturer pointed out that the necessity and use of JC vary based on the setting. He argued that:

> English is necessary in a professional environment…Wen mi go pon ruod
> [When I go on the road] an mi a pass people pon the road. I'm going to
> interact with people we sell coconut and all dem sitn de [who sell coconuts
> and other things], mi an dem a taak Patwa [I speak Patois with them].
> There's no need for English.

Therefore, he believed that English was instrumental in professional settings such as work and school. However, when he interacted with street vendors, this situation did not necessitate the use of English.

The same business lecturer highlighted that the use of English can have certain social connotations in the Jamaican context. He stated:

> I'm of the view that many young men in particular think that speaking English
> is effeminate. You speaking English, they think- not effeminate, they think
> you're a homosexual. So that's different from being effeminate, but I suppose
> there's a combination. You're effeminate on one hand, a woman ting dat [that's
> a female thing] and so the notion that man a thug [men are thugs] and man
> must be rough neck and must behave coarse and sound coarse has seeped into
> our language, into our culture and the man primarily do it, but women too.

This view has serious implications for male students who may refrain from using English in order to not be labelled as effeminate. Another female business teacher remarked that studying in general is supposedly viewed as feminine or homosexual. With these societal views regarding education and language, the linguistic needs of men may be significantly affected.

5.4.2 Target-situation analysis for in-program students

In order to determine the language needs of the students in terms of the target-situation analysis, a score was given based on the mean score of the expectations in each language ability. The administrators were not given questionnaires; therefore, these scores are from the faculty-specific (Social Science) teachers, language teachers and in-program students.

As seen in table 5.9, in-program students had the highest mean score of 4.09 for communicative language abilities, which indicates that the students held these skills in higher regard than the language and Social Science teachers. Listening received the highest mean score from the Social Science teachers i.e. 4.3. This demonstrates that the social science teachers believed that listening was more important than the in-program students and language teachers thought. Language teachers had a higher mean score than the in-program students and faculty teachers in the areas of speaking and writing. However, they had more or less the same average score as the in-program students in the area of reading.

Table 5.9 Results of MEANS procedure for teachers and in-program students

Analysis Variable: score								
Group	**Ability**	**N Obs**	**N**	**N Miss**	**Mean**	**Std Dev**	**Minimum**	**Maximum**
in-program	Communicative	239	229	10	**4.09**	0.66	1.25	5.00
	Listening	239	229	10	4.23	0.68	1.80	5.00
	Reading	239	230	9	**4.05**	0.61	2.00	5.00
	Speaking	239	229	10	4.10	0.77	1.75	5.00
	Writing	239	229	10	3.88	0.62	1.83	5.00
lang-teach	Communicative	5	5	0	3.90	0.61	3.00	4.50
	Listening	5	5	0	4.36	0.82	3.00	5.00

Analysis Variable: score								
Group	Ability	N Obs	N	N Miss	Mean	Std Dev	Minimum	Maximum
	Reading	5	5	0	**4.05**	0.68	3.00	4.67
	Speaking	5	5	0	**4.40**	0.84	3.00	5.00
	Writing	5	5	0	**4.05**	0.73	3.00	5.00
ss-teach	Communicative	8	8	0	3.75	0.72	2.33	4.83
	Listening	8	8	0	**4.43**	0.58	3.40	5.00
	Reading	8	8	0	3.91	0.87	2.17	4.80
	Speaking	8	8	0	3.94	0.75	2.50	5.00
	Writing	8	8	0	3.73	0.64	2.33	4.33

5.4.3 Present situation and gap analysis for in-program students

In all language skills, the expectations of the in-program students were always higher than the self-assessed competences of the students except for communicative language abilities where they were relatively equal. This indicates that, in general, the students have assessed their present situation as lower than what is required of them in their Social Science courses.

Table 5.10 Gap analysis for in-program students

Analysis Variable: score							
Ability	Aspect	N Obs	N	Mean	Std Dev	Minimum	Maximum
Communicative	Expectation	239	238	3.64	0.66	1.33	5.00

Analysis Variable: score							
Ability	**Aspect**	**N Obs**	**N**	**Mean**	**Std Dev**	**Minimum**	**Maximum**
	Competence	239	238	3.64	0.66	1.33	5.00
Listening	Expectation	239	229	**4.23**	0.68	1.80	5.00
	Competence	239	239	3.63	0.75	1.00	5.00
Reading	Expectation	239	230	**4.05**	0.61	2.00	5.00
	Competence	239	239	3.79	0.68	1.67	5.00
Speaking	Expectation	239	229	**4.10**	0.77	1.75	5.00
	Competence	239	239	3.45	0.90	1.00	5.00
Writing	Expectation	239	229	**3.88**	0.62	1.83	5.00
	Competence	239	239	3.45	0.60	1.50	5.00

5.4.3.1 Contextualizing insights about gap analysis from qualitative sources

The quantitative data reveals that there is a significant gap in the students' self-evaluation of their competence in all the language skills and their perception of the university's expectations, except in communicative language abilities. The qualitative data also supports this conclusion. Both students and teachers reported in the interviews that there seems to be a gap in between the expectations of the students and their present competences. One student described it as a "huge gap", while a Social Science teacher described it as an "enormous gap". Even administrators pointed out that there seemed to be a gap. One language teacher highlighted that:

> […] they come in with deficiencies in writing. And this is not- I think we
> have to be honest and realistic; we cannot fix it. We are supposed to be

building on what they've come with. I'm not saying they don't come with anything. I'm not saying that. Sorry. But there are some things that you would assume that they would have come in with, but- And I also don't think it's necessarily the fault of the secondary education. I really believe it starts at the primary level.

One student corroborated this view:

As it relates to English, some of the things that I am learning and it's not just high school because some of the things we should ever learned from like primary school and stuff. And I guess it's the schools that I went to, but I was not aware of some other things like-. Since doing the [FOUN] course, I realized that I have a major problem with like grammar and subject verb agreement.

The material taught in high school does not seem to adequately prepare the students for the language demands of the academic university setting. This can, in part, explain why there is this gap between their competences and expectations. According to Figure 5.8, 44.4% of the students (n=106) reported that they thought that high school adequately prepared them for university; however, 39.3% thought that it did not and 15.5% believed that it only prepared them in part. Interestingly, the combined number of students who thought that it did not adequately prepare them (n=94) or only prepared them in part (n=37) slightly exceeded the number of students who thought that it did. This indicates that overall, the majority of the students thought that they were not sufficiently or only partially prepared for the language demands of their program.
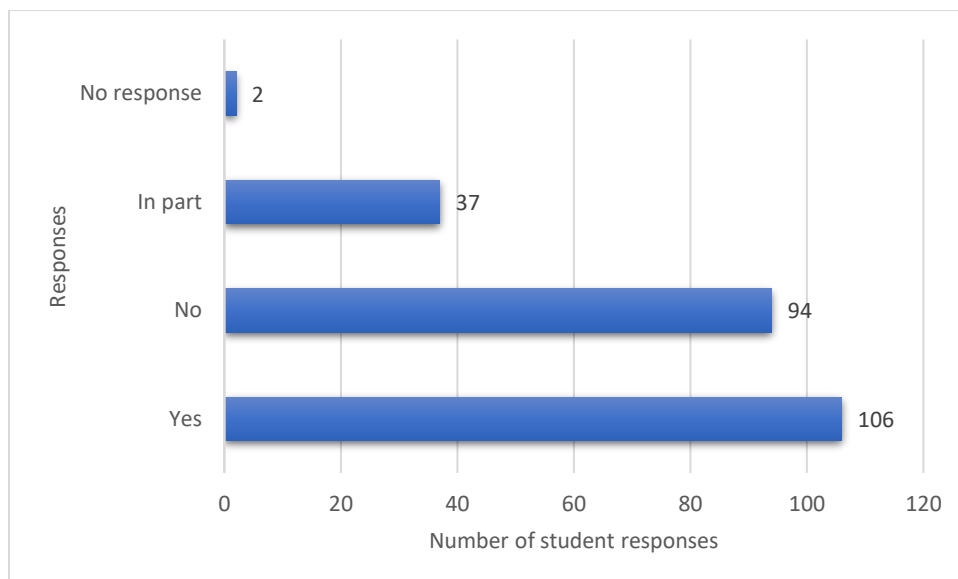
Figure 5.8 Extent to which high school prepared the students for university

One SS teacher pointed out that in high school, students were more focused on taking tests and therefore, found it difficult to adjust to a university setting where they were required to think critically. She added that while students could have swotted in high school and managed to succeed, they cannot use this method at university where they are required to think. Interestingly, one of the students pointed out that they believed that high school prepared the students to think critically; however, they were not taught how to reference cited material.

5.4.3.2 Descriptive statistics on the importance of abilities and their order of importance for in-program students

For question 11 in the student questionnaire (Appendix B), the in-program students were asked to rate the importance of each skill as being not at all important, not very important, neutral, very important or extremely important, with 5 being extremely important. The results of the analysis of data obtained from the questionnaire reveal that the respondents ranked reading as the most important skill of all the four language skills the most times (76.89%), followed by listening (67.09%) and writing (62.18%). On the contrary, speaking was ranked the most important skill the least number of times of all the writing skills (49.79%). See Table 5.11 for the detailed frequency counts for each skill.

Table 5.11 Descriptive statistics for Q11 for in-program students (Importance of skills for students' success)

	Q11_A READING		Q11_B WRITING		Q11_C SPEAKING		Q11_D LISTENING	
Q11_A	Freq.	Percent	Freq.	Percent	Freq.	Percent	Freq.	Percent
1	1	0.42	-	-	5	2.11	4	1.69
2	2	0.84	3	1.26	4	1.69	3	1.27
3	11	4.62	21	8.82	46	19.41	14	5.91
4	41	17.23	66	27.73	64	27.00	57	24.05
5	183	76.89	148	62.18	118	49.79	159	67.09

(Freq. – Frequency)

5.4.3.3 Order of importance of language skills for in-program students

Like the FOUN1019 students, the in-program students were asked to rank the four skills in order of their importance. 1 was used to indicate the most important, while 4 was used to indicate the least important. The results of the analysis of data obtained from the questionnaire reveal that the respondents ranked reading as the most important skill of all the four language skills the most times (74.78%), followed by writing (48.42%) and listening (34.39%). On the contrary, speaking was ranked the most important skill the least number of times of all the writing skills (32.43%). See Table 5.12 for the detailed frequency counts for each skill.

Table 5.12 Descriptive statistics for Q12 for in-program students (Order of importance of skills for students' success)

	Q12_1 READING		Q12_2 SPEAKING		Q12_3 LISTENING		Q12_4 WRITING	
	Freq.	Percent	Freq.	Percent	Freq.	Percent	Freq.	Percent
1	172	74.78	72	32.43	76	34.39	107	48.42
2	39	16.96	54	24.32	79	35.75	66	29.86
3	10	4.35	47	21.17	49	22.17	35	15.84
4	9	3.91	49	22.07	17	7.69	13	5.88

(Freq. – Frequency)

Reading was rated as the most important skill by the highest percentage of the students. On the other hand, speaking was rated as the least important skill by the highest percentage of students.

5.4.3.4 Contextualizing insights about most important skill for in-program students from qualitative sources

Overall, the in-program students rated reading as the most important skill for their academic success the highest number of times. This was followed by listening, writing and speaking in that order. However, when asked to rank the skills in order of most important to least important, writing was ranked higher than listening more frequently. Therefore, the skills were ranked from most important to least important as reading, writing, listening then speaking. What remains constant or consistent in the rating and the ranking is that reading is perceived as the most important skill for their success and speaking is seen as the least important skill for their success in their SS courses.

In the interviews, none of the students identified writing as the most important skills for their success in their courses. This is in contrast with the language teachers who mostly rated writing as one of the most important skills for their success. Even though none of the students in the interviews had rated writing as the most important skill for their success, the government teachers interviewed rated writing and speaking as the most important skills for their students' success. The only government student to be interviewed also rated speaking as the most important skill, so there seems to be some alignment in the perceptions of the needs there. The two economics students interviewed rated speaking as the most important skill for their success. Both psychology students interviewed classified reading and listening as the most important skills for their success. Interestingly, this was also mentioned in the language teachers' interviews. These findings suggest that there is a disparity between what teachers expect of the students and what the students think is expected of them.

The youngest of the language teachers, who happened to be a male, rated all four language skills as equally important. All the other four language teachers rated reading and/or writing as the most important skill for the students' success. However, the oldest language

teacher and another teacher in her 40s also thought that depending on the students' area of specialisation, listening could be one of the most important assets for their academic success. The oldest language teacher highlighted that listening, for example, may be an extremely pertinent skill for psychology students. This distinction between the view of the youngest and the oldest of the language teachers may suggest that there are changing views about the importance of these skills. Probably, the younger generation of teachers may see value in all the skills being treated as equally important.

In examining the SS faculty, the oldest SS teacher, who was female, also rated all four language skills as equally important. The youngest teacher, as well as the second of the two lecturers from the business department, rated reading as the most important skill for the students' success. Both government teachers who were interviewed rated writing and speaking as the most important skills for their students' success. While the younger of the psychology teachers rated speaking, listening and writing as the most important skills for her students' success, the older psychology teacher rated reading and writing as the most important. While they both seemed to agree that writing was important, they disagreed on the other skills. This finding is interesting because the younger teacher highlighted that there was a difference between what they ought to need and what they need. This response was given based on what they do need to get by in their courses; however, if asked what they ought to have, all four skills would have been ranked as equally important. The final teacher from the economics department also rated listening as the most important skill.

5.5 Language needs across departments

As shown in table 5.13, all in-program students regardless of their department rated their expectations higher than their competences in all skill areas. Three of the five departments (business, economics, and psychology) all had the highest gaps between their reported competences and expectation in speaking. They also reported the lowest gap in reading. The department of tourism had the highest gap in speaking; however, the department's lowest gap was in their writing skills. Finally, the department of government was the only department in which the highest reported gap was in listening and the lowest in reading.

Table 5.13 Results of MEANS analysis across departments

Analysis Variable: score								
Dept	Ability	Aspect	N Obs	N	Mean	Std Dev	Minimum	Maximum
BUS	Communicative	Expectation	112	107	**4.10**	0.67	1.25	5.00
		Competence	112	112	3.64	0.64	1.75	5.00
		competence-expectation	112	107	-0.46	0.68	-2.41	2.00
	Listening	Expectation	112	107	**4.28**	0.69	1.80	5.00
		Competence	112	112	3.71	0.73	1.00	5.00
		competence-expectation	112	107	-0.57	0.83	-3.40	1.20
	Reading	Expectation	112	108	**4.01**	0.56	2.50	5.00
		Competence	112	112	3.82	0.69	1.67	5.00
		competence-expectation	112	108	*-0.21*	0.79	-3.00	2.17
	Speaking	Expectation	112	107	**4.09**	0.76	1.75	5.00
		Competence	112	112	3.47	0.84	1.50	5.00
		competence-expectation	112	107	**-0.61**	0.80	-2.75	1.25
	Writing	Expectation	112	107	**3.90**	0.58	2.50	5.00
		Competence	112	112	3.47	0.59	1.50	5.00
		competence-expectation	112	107	-0.44	0.73	-3.17	1.33
ECON	Communicative	Expectation	44	43	**4.01**	0.65	2.08	5.00

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Analysis Variable: score								
Dept	**Ability**	**Aspect**	**N Obs**	**N**	**Mean**	**Std Dev**	**Minimum**	**Maximum**
		Competence	44	44	3.52	0.75	1.33	4.75
		competence-expectation	44	43	-0.50	0.92	-3.67	1.33
	Listening	Expectation	44	43	**4.32**	0.61	2.80	5.00
		Competence	44	44	3.61	0.72	2.00	5.00
		competence-expectation	44	43	-0.73	0.75	-2.40	0.60
	Reading	Expectation	44	43	**4.06**	0.56	2.17	5.00
		Competence	44	44	3.76	0.68	1.67	5.00
		competence-expectation	44	43	*-0.31*	0.75	-2.33	1.00
	Speaking	Expectation	44	43	**4.16**	0.72	1.75	5.00
		Competence	44	44	3.31	1.01	1.00	5.00
		competence-expectation	44	43	**-0.86**	1.22	-3.75	2.25
	Writing	Expectation	44	43	**3.90**	0.55	2.17	5.00
		Competence	44	44	3.37	0.58	1.67	4.50
		competence-expectation	44	43	-0.55	0.82	-2.67	1.67
GOV	Communicative	Expectation	36	33	**4.06**	0.73	1.67	5.00
		Competence	36	35	3.74	0.69	1.78	5.00
		competence-expectation	36	32	-0.41	0.76	-2.33	0.83
	Listening	Expectation	36	34	**3.95**	0.77	2.00	5.00
		Competence	36	36	3.36	0.84	1.20	5.00
		competence-expectation	36	34	**-0.57**	0.77	-2.80	0.60
	Reading	Expectation	36	34	**3.97**	0.85	2.00	5.00
		Competence	36	36	3.75	0.74	2.17	5.00
		competence-expectation	36	34	*-0.21*	0.67	-2.00	1.17
	Speaking	Expectation	36	34	**4.06**	0.86	2.00	5.00
		Competence	36	36	3.56	1.05	1.25	5.00
		competence-expectation	36	34	-0.45	0.87	-3.00	1.25
	Writing	Expectation	36	34	**3.83**	0.81	1.83	5.00
		Competence	36	36	3.47	0.69	2.17	5.00

Analysis Variable: score								
Dept	**Ability**	**Aspect**	**N Obs**	**N**	**Mean**	**Std Dev**	**Minimum**	**Maximum**
		competence-expectation	36	34	-0.36	0.67	-1.67	0.83
PSYCH	Communicative	Expectation	35	34	**4.13**	0.61	2.33	5.00
		Competence	35	35	3.64	0.58	2.50	5.00
		competence-expectation	35	34	-0.50	0.66	-1.75	1.33
	Listening	Expectation	35	34	**4.21**	0.65	3.00	5.00
		Competence	35	35	3.63	0.69	2.40	5.00
		competence-expectation	35	34	-0.58	0.65	-1.80	0.80
	Reading	Expectation	35	34	**4.12**	0.56	3.00	5.00
		Competence	35	35	3.84	0.48	2.83	5.00
		competence-expectation	35	34	*-0.30*	0.73	-1.67	1.50
	Speaking	Expectation	35	34	**3.96**	0.80	2.00	5.00
		Competence	35	35	3.37	0.83	1.75	5.00
		competence-expectation	35	34	**-0.60**	0.71	-2.00	0.75
	Writing	Expectation	35	34	**3.83**	0.65	2.33	5.00
		Competence	35	35	3.42	0.49	2.50	5.00
		competence-expectation	35	34	-0.40	0.76	-1.50	2.00
TOUR	Communicative	Expectation	11	11	**4.22**	0.48	3.58	4.75
		Competence	11	11	3.78	0.60	3.00	5.00
		competence-expectation	11	11	-0.44	0.57	-1.17	0.42
	Listening	Expectation	11	10	**4.39**	0.56	3.00	5.00
		Competence	11	11	3.51	0.65	2.20	4.40
		competence-expectation	11	10	-0.89	0.50	-1.50	0.20
	Reading	Expectation	11	10	**4.23**	0.61	2.83	5.00
		Competence	11	11	3.56	0.83	1.67	4.67
		competence-expectation	11	10	-0.70	0.85	-2.67	0.50
	Speaking	Expectation	11	10	**4.58**	0.61	3.25	5.00
		Competence	11	11	3.66	0.64	2.50	4.50

Analysis Variable: score								
Dept	Ability	Aspect	N Obs	N	Mean	Std Dev	Minimum	Maximum
		competence-expectation	11	10	**-0.93**	0.68	-2.00	0.25
	Writing	Expectation	11	10	**3.83**	0.63	2.67	4.67
		Competence	11	11	3.53	0.70	2.80	5.00
		competence-expectation	11	10	*-0.34*	0.71	-1.20	0.67

5.5.1 Competences of in-program students (Present Situation Analysis)

Table 5.14 shows the competences of the various departments in order of highest reported proficiency to lowest proficiency. The table illustrates that psychology students had the highest reported competences in reading with a mean score of 3.84, while tourism students had the lowest reported competence in this skill area with a mean score of 3.56. Business students had the second highest average score of 3.82. The third highest average came from the department of economics (3.76), and government followed with a mean score of 3.75.

Table 5.14 Competence in reading for in-program students across departments

T Grouping for dept*Ability Least Squares Means Slice (Alpha=0.05)			
LS-means with the same letter are not significantly different.			
Slice	**Dept**	**Estimate**	
Ability Reading	PSYCH	3.8371	A
Ability Reading			A
Ability Reading	BUS	3.8165	A
Ability Reading			A
Ability Reading	ECON	3.7576	A
Ability Reading			A
Ability Reading	GOV	3.7509	A
Ability Reading			A
Ability Reading	TOUR	3.5606	A

F Test for dept*Ability Least Squares Means Slice				
Slice	Num DF	Den DF	F Value	Pr > F
Ability Reading	4	233	0.46	0.7669

In speaking, tourism students reported the highest proficiency in this area with an average of 3.66; additionally, economics students rated their proficiency the lowest with a mean score of 3.31. The tourism students were followed by the government who had an average score of 3.56; the business students had a mean score of 3.47; and the psychology students had an average of 3.37.

Table 5.15 Competence in speaking for in-program students across departments

T Grouping for dept*Ability Least Squares Means Slice (Alpha=0.05)			
LS-means with the same letter are not significantly different.			
Slice	Dept	Estimate	
Ability Speaking	TOUR	3.6591	A
Ability Speaking			A
Ability Speaking	GOV	3.5625	A
Ability Speaking			A
Ability Speaking	BUS	3.4688	A
Ability Speaking			A
Ability Speaking	PSYCH	3.3714	A
Ability Speaking			A
Ability Speaking	ECON	3.3068	A

F Test for dept*Ability Least Squares Means Slice				
Slice	Num DF	Den DF	F Value	Pr > F
Ability Speaking	4	233	0.65	0.6295

While on one hand, business students indicated the highest proficiency in listening (3.71); the government students, on the other hand, reported the lowest proficiency in this same skill

(3.36). There is a statistically significant difference between the average competence of the business students and the government students. Psychology students had the second highest average in listening with a mean score of 3.63, while economics students followed with a mean score of 3.61. The tourism students had the second lowest score in listening with an average of 3.51.

Table 5.16 Competence in listening for in-program students across departments

T Grouping for dept*Ability Least Squares Means Slice (Alpha=0.05)				
LS-means with the same letter are not significantly different.				
Slice	Dept	Estimate		
Ability Listening	BUS	3.7143		A
Ability Listening				A
Ability Listening	PSYCH	3.6343	B	A
Ability Listening			B	A
Ability Listening	ECON	3.6091	B	A
Ability Listening			B	A
Ability Listening	TOUR	3.5091	B	A
Ability Listening			B	
Ability Listening	GOV	3.3556	B	

F Test for dept*Ability Least Squares Means Slice				
Slice	Num DF	Den DF	F Value	Pr > F
Ability Listening	4	233	1.68	0.1544

The students of the tourism department had the highest reported competence in writing with an average of 3.53. They were followed by the business department, who had a mean score of 3.473. The department of government had the third highest mean score, which was 3.47, and the psychology department had a mean score of 3.42. The economics department had the lowest reported competences in their writing skills with a mean score of 3.37.

Table 5.17 Competence in writing for in-program students across departments

T Grouping for dept*Ability Least Squares Means Slice (Alpha=0.05)			
LS-means with the same letter are not significantly different.			
Slice	Dept	Estimate	
Ability Writing	TOUR	3.5273	A
Ability Writing			A
Ability Writing	BUS	3.4725	A
Ability Writing			A
Ability Writing	GOV	3.4685	A
Ability Writing			A
Ability Writing	PSYCH	3.4190	A
Ability Writing			A
Ability Writing	ECON	3.3652	A

F Test for dept*Ability Least Squares Means Slice				
Slice	Num DF	Den DF	F Value	Pr > F
Ability Writing	4	233	0.34	0.8516

Finally, the economics department also had the lowest reported competence in their communicative language abilities with a mean score of 3.52, while the tourism department had the highest self-assessed competences in this area with an average score of 3.78. The second highest ranking of competences in communicative language abilities was the government department which had an average of 3.71, followed by the psychology students who had an average score of 3.64 and business students who had a mean score of 3.64.

Table 5.18 Competence in communicative language abilities for in-program students across departments

T Grouping for dept*Ability Least Squares Means Slice (Alpha=0.05)			
LS-means with the same letter are not significantly different.			
Slice	**Dept**	**Estimate**	
Ability Communicative	TOUR	3.7803	A
Ability Communicative			A
Ability Communicative	GOV	3.7104	A
Ability Communicative			A
Ability Communicative	PSYCH	3.6429	A
Ability Communicative			A
Ability Communicative	BUS	3.6397	A
Ability Communicative			A
Ability Communicative	ECON	3.5229	A

F Test for dept*Ability Least Squares Means Slice				
Slice	**Num DF**	**Den DF**	**F Value**	**Pr > F**
Ability Communicative	4	233	0.57	0.6869

Overall, the tourism students had the highest reported competence in speaking, writing and communicative language abilities, while the economics students had the lowest reported competences in the same skill areas. The psychology students rated their competence in reading higher than all other departments, and the business students rated their competence in listening higher than all the others. Lastly, the tourism students had the lowest reported competence in reading, whereas the government students had the lowest reported competence in listening.

Table 5.19 Anova on COMPETENCE across DEPT for in-program students

The PLM Procedure

T Grouping for Ability Least Squares Means (Alpha=0.05)			
LS-means with the same letter are not significantly different.			
Ability	**Estimate**		
Reading	3.7446		A
			A
Communicative	3.6592	B	A
		B	
Listening	3.5645	B	C
			C
Speaking	3.4737		C
			C
Writing	3.4505		C

In summary, as shown in Table 5.19, the in-program students had the highest reported competence in reading and the lowest self-assessed competence in writing. There was a statistically significant difference between their mean score in reading and that of their communicative language abilities, in which they had the second-highest reported competence. This low self-assessed competence in writing is alarming considering that their language teachers believe it to be the most important skill for their success at the university.

5.5.2 Expectations (Target-situation analysis) across departments

The students were asked to rate certain micro-constructs according to their importance   for their success in their SS courses. These ratings were averaged, and a mean score was given for each language ability i.e. reading, writing, listening, speaking and communicative language abilities. These mean scores reveal what the students perceive to be the expectations of the university in these areas. We will discuss each skill area below as reported by each department and then give an overview of the expectations of the target situation.

According to table 5.20, tourism students reported the highest average expectations of the importance of reading for their success with a mean score of 4.22. They were followed by the psychology who had a mean score of 4.12, then the economics department whose average score was 4.06 and the department of business who had an average of 4.01. Lastly, the government students reported the lowest expectations of reading in their courses with a mean score of 3.97. This suggests that reading is ranked as least important by the government students.

Table 5.20 Expectation in reading for in-program students across departments

T Grouping for dept*Ability Least Squares Means Slice (Alpha=0.05)			
LS-means with the same letter are not significantly different.			
Slice	Dept	Estimate	
Ability Reading	TOUR	4.2243	A
Ability Reading			A
Ability Reading	PSYCH	4.1225	A
Ability Reading			A
Ability Reading	ECON	4.0620	A
Ability Reading			A
Ability Reading	BUS	4.0139	A
Ability Reading			A
Ability Reading	GOV	3.9706	A

The tourism department also reported the highest expectations in the area of speaking with a mean score of 4.5, while the psychology department had the lowest reported expectations in speaking with an average of 3.96. There was a statistically significant difference between the average score of these two departments. Economics students had the second highest score in speaking with an average of 4.16, while business students had the third highest score of 4.09. Government students had the second lowest score of 4.06.

Table 5.21 Expectation in speaking for in-program students across departments

T Grouping for dept*Ability Least Squares Means Slice (Alpha=0.05)				
LS-means with the same letter are not significantly different.				
Slice	**Dept**	**Estimate**		
Ability Speaking	TOUR	4.5607		A
Ability Speaking				A
Ability Speaking	ECON	4.1570	B	A
Ability Speaking			B	A
Ability Speaking	BUS	4.0887	B	A
Ability Speaking			B	A
Ability Speaking	GOV	4.0588	B	A
Ability Speaking			B	
Ability Speaking	PSYCH	3.9559	B	

The department of tourism had a mean score of 4.38 for the expectations in listening, which was the highest reported average of all the five departments. This score was followed by the departments of economics, business and psychology. The government department had the lowest self-assessed expectations in listening with a mean score of 3.95.

Table 5.22 Expectation in listening for in-program students across departments

Conservative T Grouping for dept*Ability Least Squares Means Slice (Alpha=0.05)			
LS-means with the same letter are not significantly different.			
Slice	**Dept**	**Estimate**	
Ability Listening	TOUR	4.3773	A
Ability Listening			A
Ability Listening	ECON	4.3209	A
Ability Listening			A
Ability Listening	BUS	4.2775	A
Ability Listening			A
Ability Listening	PSYCH	4.2088	A
Ability Listening			A
Ability Listening	GOV	3.9485	A

Conservative T Grouping for dept*Ability Least Squares Means Slice (Alpha=0.05)			
LS-means with the same letter are not significantly different.			
Slice	Dept	Estimate	
The LINES display does not reflect all significant comparisons. The following additional pairs are significantly different: (ECON Listening, GOV Listening), (BUS Listening, GOV Listening).			

Notably, the tourism department had the lowest reported expectation in writing of all the five departments. The economics department, on the other hand had the highest expectation based on the mean score. This department was followed by the business, government, and psychology departments.

Table 5.23 Expectation in writing for in-program students across departments

T Grouping for dept*Ability Least Squares Means Slice (Alpha=0.05)			
LS-means with the same letter are not significantly different.			
Slice	Dept	Estimate	
Ability Writing	ECON	3.9031	A
Ability Writing			A
Ability Writing	BUS	3.9021	A
Ability Writing			A
Ability Writing	GOV	3.8338	A
Ability Writing			A
Ability Writing	PSYCH	3.8284	A
Ability Writing			A
Ability Writing	TOUR	3.8225	A

The students in the department of tourism had the highest expectations of their writing skills, while economics department had the lowest. The psychology department also had very high expectations of their communicative language abilities with the second highest score of 4.13 followed by the business and government departments.

Table 5.24 Expectation in communicative language abilities for in-program students across departments

T Grouping for dept*Ability Least Squares Means Slice (Alpha=0.05)			
LS-means with the same letter are not significantly different.			
Slice	**Dept**	**Estimate**	
Ability Communicative	TOUR	4.2245	A
Ability Communicative			A
Ability Communicative	PSYCH	4.1275	A
Ability Communicative			A
Ability Communicative	BUS	4.0996	A
Ability Communicative			A
Ability Communicative	GOV	4.0671	A
Ability Communicative			A
Ability Communicative	ECON	4.0136	A

Overall, the tourism department had the highest overall expectations of the target situation in reading, speaking, listening and communicative language abilities. However, they rated writing as having the least importance for their success in their SS courses. The economics department, on the other hand, had the high overall mean score in writing, which means they rated it as having the most importance for their success. The government students had the lowest overall expectations of the target situation in reading and listening, whereas the psychology had the lowest overall expectations in the area of speaking. Finally, the economics students rated the communicative language abilities as having the least importance for their SS courses.

5.5.3 Gap analysis for in-program students across departments

In the area of reading, tourism students had the largest gap between what was expected of them and their self-assessed competences with a gap of -0.69. Government students had the smallest gap between their competences and the self-assessed expectations of the target situation.

Table 5.25 Gap in reading for in-program students across departments

Slice	Dept	Estimate	
T Grouping for dept*Ability Least Squares Means Slice (Alpha=0.05)			
LS-means with the same letter are not significantly different.			
Slice	**Dept**	**Estimate**	
Ability Reading	GOV	-0.2059	A
Ability Reading			A
Ability Reading	BUS	-0.2088	A
Ability Reading			A
Ability Reading	PSYCH	-0.3000	A
Ability Reading			A
Ability Reading	ECON	-0.3062	A
Ability Reading			A
Ability Reading	TOUR	-0.6927	A

In speaking, tourism students had the biggest gap between the competences and expectations, while government students had the smallest between the two. The difference between the gaps demonstrated by these two groups is statistically significant.

Table 5.26 Gap in speaking for in-program students across departments

Slice	Dept	Estimate	
Conservative T Grouping for dept*Ability Least Squares Means Slice (Alpha=0.05)			
LS-means with the same letter are not significantly different.			
Slice	**Dept**	**Estimate**	
Ability Speaking	GOV	-0.4485	A
Ability Speaking			A
Ability Speaking	PSYCH	-0.5956	A
Ability Speaking			A
Ability Speaking	BUS	-0.6078	A
Ability Speaking			A
Ability Speaking	ECON	-0.8605	A
Ability Speaking			A
Ability Speaking	TOUR	-0.9089	A

Conservative T Grouping for dept*Ability Least Squares Means Slice (Alpha=0.05)			
LS-means with the same letter are not significantly different.			
Slice	Dept	Estimate	
The LINES display does not reflect all significant comparisons. The following additional pairs are significantly different: (GOV Speaking, ECON Speaking).			

Again, the tourism students had the largest gap between their present competences and what was expected of them in the target situation in the area of listening. However, the business students had the lowest gap in this skill.

Table 5.27 Gap in listening for in-program students across departments

T Grouping for dept*Ability Least Squares Means Slice (Alpha=0.05)			
LS-means with the same letter are not significantly different.			
Slice	Dept	Estimate	
Ability Listening	BUS	-0.5695	A
Ability Listening			A
Ability Listening	GOV	-0.5721	A
Ability Listening			A
Ability Listening	PSYCH	-0.5794	A
Ability Listening			A
Ability Listening	ECON	-0.7302	A
Ability Listening			A
Ability Listening	TOUR	-0.8778	A

Economics students had the highest calculated gap in their writing skills. Unlike previous trends in the data, the tourism students had the lowest report gap in this area.

Table 5.28 Gap in writing for in-program students across departments

T Grouping for dept*Ability Least Squares Means Slice (Alpha=0.05)			
LS-means with the same letter are not significantly different.			
Slice	Dept	Estimate	
Ability Writing	TOUR	-0.3234	A

T Grouping for dept*Ability Least Squares Means Slice (Alpha=0.05)			
LS-means with the same letter are not significantly different.			
Slice	**Dept**	**Estimate**	
Ability Writing			A
Ability Writing	GOV	-0.3574	A
Ability Writing			A
Ability Writing	PSYCH	-0.4020	A
Ability Writing			A
Ability Writing	BUS	-0.4378	A
Ability Writing			A
Ability Writing	ECON	-0.5527	A

For the communicative language abilities, the economics students had the highest reported gap between their present situation and the target situation. The government students, on the other hand, had the lowest gap in their communicative language abilities.

Table 5.29 Gap in communicative language abilities for in-program students across departments

T Grouping for dept*Ability Least Squares Means Slice (Alpha=0.05)			
LS-means with the same letter are not significantly different.			
Slice	**Dept**	**Estimate**	
Ability Communicative	GOV	-0.3910	A
Ability Communicative			A
Ability Communicative	TOUR	-0.4442	A
Ability Communicative			A
Ability Communicative	BUS	-0.4585	A
Ability Communicative			A
Ability Communicative	PSYCH	-0.4951	A
Ability Communicative			A
Ability Communicative	ECON	-0.5018	A

Across all the five departments, the most significant gap was seen in the area of speaking with a gap of 0.68. This score suggests that the students thought that their speaking skills were far below what was required of them. The smallest perceived gap was in the area of reading with a mean score of 0.34. There was also a significant gap between the competences and expectations in listening with a mean score of 0.67. The gap in the communicative language abilities was 0.46 and in the writing abilities was 0.41.

Table 5.30 Gap across all departments for in-program students in all skills

T Grouping for Ability Least Squares Means (Alpha=0.05)		
LS-means with the same letter are not significantly different.		
Ability	Estimate	
Reading	-0.3427	A
		A
Writing	-0.4147	A
		A
Communicative	-0.4581	A
Listening	-0.6658	B
		B
Speaking	-0.6843	B

In general, the tourism department had the highest self-reported number of gaps between what they knew and what they were expected to know in the areas of reading, speaking and listening. The economics department had the highest self-assessed gap in the areas of writing and communicative language abilities. This finding is interesting because the economics students had assessed writing as having the highest importance for their success based on the target situation analysis. Therefore, if they also have the highest gap in this area then this may be a significant challenge for them. The government students had the lowest reported gap in the areas of reading and speaking. While the business department had the lowest reported gap in the areas of listening and communicative language abilities, the tourism students had the lowest reported gap in their writing skills.

5.5.4 Target situation analysis among teachers

Overall, the language teachers had higher expectations than the SS teachers in all language skills, except listening. Even though there was a difference between the importance placed on these skills by both groups of teachers, this difference was not statistically significant.

Table 5.31 Results of MEANS analysis for language and faculty teachers

Analysis Variable: score								
Group	Ability	Aspect	N Obs	N	Mean	Std Dev	Minimum	Maximum
lang_teach	Communicative	Expectation	5	5	3.90	0.61	3.00	4.50
	Listening	Expectation	5	5	4.36	0.82	3.00	5.00
	Reading	Expectation	5	5	4.05	0.68	3.00	4.67
	Speaking	Expectation	5	5	4.40	0.84	3.00	5.00
	Writing	Expectation	5	5	4.05	0.73	3.00	5.00
ss-teach	Communicative	Expectation	8	8	3.75	0.72	2.33	4.83
	Listening	Expectation	8	8	4.43	0.58	3.40	5.00
	Reading	Expectation	8	8	3.91	0.87	2.17	4.80
	Speaking	Expectation	8	8	3.94	0.75	2.50	5.00
	Writing	Expectation	8	8	3.73	0.64	2.33	4.33

5.5.5 Contextualizing insights about needs according to teachers from qualitative sources

While there was no statistically significant difference between the teachers' perception of the needs, the interviews revealed that these groups thought differently about the importance of focusing on language when grading, for example. One SS lecturer highlighted that he tries not to focus on language at all when grading his papers because he is not grading them on their language skills but rather their understanding of the content. Another SS teacher noted that less attention is paid to language when grading examination papers since the lecturer would take into consideration that the students were under pressure.

The head of the psychology department shared the same perspective. However, for take-home assignments where the students would have had adequate time, there is more focus on language. In fact, most of the SS teachers agreed that unless the students' language rendered what they were saying incorrect, they would not focus on it. As one lecturer put it "it's a priority for me, but I will not fail a student because of English, I mean I look for other things: analysis, content structure."

In contrast, the language teachers tended to focus more on the language skills of the students. According to one administrator, language teachers and SS teachers do not have the same focus when it comes to writing. They added that SS teachers were more focused on content and tended to rely heavily on multiple choice because of the large student numbers. Another language teacher highlighted that the SS teachers do not take the students' mastery of the English language very seriously. These contrasting views on the students' language needs certainly affect the students' performance in the foundation courses designed for them, as opposed to their SS courses. Most students agreed that their SS teachers do not focus heavily on language especially because of the mathematical nature of their courses (in economics and business).

5.5.6 Descriptive statistics on the importance of abilities and their order of importance for language teachers

The teachers were also required to rate the importance of each language skill. In this section, we discuss the rating of these skills. Four of the five language teachers rated reading as being extremely important, while one teacher was neutral about the importance of this skill. In the interview, that teacher clarified that from their own perspective, reading was an extremely important skill; however, the SS students did not seem to need this skill to succeed in their SS courses. In table 5.32, we see that reading and writing were rated as being extremely important skills for the success of the SS students. Speaking and listening were also rated as important, but not as important.

Table 5.32 Importance of language skills for language teachers

Q8_A	Reading Freq.	Reading Percent	Writing Freq.	Writing Percent	Speaking Freq.	Speaking Percent	Listening Freq.	Listening Percent
3	1	20.00	1	20.00	1	20.00	1	20.00
4	-	-	-	-	1	20.00	1	20.00
5	4	80.00	4	80.00	3	60.00	3	60.00

(Freq. – Frequency)

5.5.7 Order of importance of skills for language teachers

The language teachers were also asked to rank the four skills (reading, speaking, listening and writing) in order of importance from 1 to 4 with 1 being the most important. As shown in table 5.33, four of the five teachers rated reading as the most important skill for the students' success or one of the most important skills (bearing in mind that all skills could be ranked as 1).

Table 5.33 Order of importance of language skills for language teachers

Q8_A	Reading Freq.	Reading Percent	Speaking Freq.	Speaking Percent	Listening Freq.	Listening Percent	Writing Freq.	Writing Percent
1	4	100.00	1	25.00	2	50.00	3	75.00
2	-	-	2	50.00	-	-	1	25.00
3	-	-	1	25.00	1	25.00	-	-
4	-	-	-	-	1	25.00	-	-

(Freq. – Frequency)

One of the teachers did not respond to this aspect of the questionnaire. The language teachers ranked the skills from most important to least important in the order: reading, writing, listening and speaking.

5.5.8 Descriptive statistics on the importance of abilities and their order of importance for faculty teachers

The Social Science (SS) teachers also rated the importance of the skills. First, they rated the importance of each skill separately and then they were asked to rank the skills from most important to least important. Six of the eight teachers (75%) rated reading as extremely important, while two of the teachers remained neutral about the importance of this skill.

Table 5.34 Importance of language skills for faculty teachers

Q8_A	Reading		Writing		Speaking		Listening	
	Freq.	Percent	Freq.	Percent	Freq.	Percent	Freq.	Percent
1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
2	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	12.50
3	2	25.00	2	25.00	4	50.00	1	12.50
4	-	-	1	12.50	2	25.00	3	37.50
5	6	75.00	5	62.50	2	25.00	3	37.50

(Freq. – Frequency)

None of the four skills were rated as not at all important. Reading was rated an extremely important skill the greatest number of times by the SS teachers. This rating was followed by writing, listening and speaking. This rating corresponded with the ranking of the four skills by the language teachers.

5.5.9 Order of importance of language skills for faculty teachers

Table 5.35 Order of importance of language skills for faculty teachers

Q8_A	Reading		Speaking		Listening		Writing	
	Freq.	Percent	Freq.	Percent	Freq.	Percent	Freq.	Percent
1	6	75.00	3	42.86	1	14.29	4	57.14
2	2	25.00	1	14.29	4	57.14	3	42.86
3			2	28.57	1	14.29		
4			1	14.29	1	14.29		

(Freq. – Frequency)

In summary, the SS teachers ranked the four skills in order of importance from most important to least important in the order: reading, writing, speaking and listening. This was determined by the number of times each skill was ranked as most important.

5.6 The relationship between sociolinguistic variables and the self-assessed language needs of the in-program students

In this section, we discuss the relationship between the students' age, geographical location, socioeconomic status, and gender on their competence in the various language abilities.

Table 5.36 Number of in-program students by gender

Q1				
Gender	Freq.	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
F	165	69.04	165	69.04
M	74	30.96	239	100.00

Table 5.36 shows that of the 239 students who completed the questionnaire, 69% (n=15) were female and 31% were male (n=74). Table 5.37 also showed that the oldest participant was 43 years old, while the youngest was 21 years old. The average age of the participants was 21 years old.

Table 5.37 Age range of in-program students

Analysis Variable: Age Q2				
N	Mean	Std Dev	Minimum	Maximum
238	21.82	3.86	18.00	43.00

According to table 5.38, most of the students (66%) reported that they were from the urban area, while the remaining 34% were from rural areas. Four (4) of the participants did not indicate whether they were from a rural or urban region of the country

Table 5.38 Number of in-program students by geographical location

geo_location	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
Q3				
R	81	34.47	81	34.47
U	154	65.53	235	100.00
Frequency Missing = 4				

As seen in table 5.39, twenty-nine (29) of the participants did not indicate their socioeconomic status. The students were given the option of choosing between four (4) income brackets: (group 1) under J$100,000, (group 2) J$100,000-$500,000, (group 3) J$500,000-$1,000,000 and (group 4) more than J$1,000,000. The conversion rate is approximately JMD$100 to CDN$1. Only 14.76 of the participants reported that that annual household income was below J$100,000 (group 1). The highest percentage came from groups 2 and 4, who had 29.52 % of the participants in each group. 26.19% of the participants fell under the J$500,000-$1,000,000.

Table 5.39 Number of in-program students by socioeconomic status

Socioeconomic	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
Q6				
<100	31	14.76	31	14.76
100-500	62	29.52	93	44.29
500-1000	55	26.19	148	70.48
>1000	62	29.52	210	100.00
Frequency Missing = 29				

5.6.1 Impact of sociolinguistic variables on reading

The students were asked to rate their present competences in the area of reading. Students were also asked to include their demographics. In this section, we discuss the

relationship between these sociolinguistic factors and their perceived competence in the language abilities. In table 5.40, we see that age does not seem to be associated with the students' competence in writing since the p-value (p=0.9404) is significantly above 0.05. The regression parameter indicates that the score for reading increases by 0.00096631 as the age of the students increase by a year; however, this increase is not significant.

Table 5.40 Impact of age on reading for in-program students

Parameter	Estimate	Standard Error	t Value	Pr > |t|
Age	0.00096631	0.01291415	0.07	0.9404

The responses to the questionnaire indicate that gender is a predictor of the self-assessed reading skills of the Social Science students. Females reported higher competences in reading than their male counterparts. Therefore, gender could be used as an indicator of the language needs of the students in reading. In Table 5.41, we see that females had a mean score of 3.89 in reading, while males had a score of 3.68.

Table 5.41 Impact of gender on reading for in-program students

T Grouping for LS-Means of Gender			
LS-means with the same letter are not significantly different.			
	score LSMEAN	Gender	LSMEAN Number
A	3.891509	F	1
B	3.680316	M	2

Geographical location could not be used a predictor of the self-reported reading skills of the students as there were no statistically significant difference between the mean scores of each group. In Table 5.40, the rural participants had a slightly higher score of 3.85 than the urban students, who had a mean score of 3.72.

Table 5.42 Impact of geographical location on reading for in-program students

	score LSMEAN	geo_location	LSMEAN Number
T Grouping for LS-Means of geo_location			
LS-means with the same letter are not significantly different.			
A	3.8501893	R	1
A			
A	3.7216357	U	2

Based on Table 5.43, socioeconomic status also had no significant effect on the reported reading skills of the students. Nevertheless, students from the highest income bracket (group 4) had the highest self-assessed competence in reading with a mean score of 3.9. Those from group 2 (the second lowest income bracket) had the second highest reported competence in reading; their mean score was 3.79. The lowest income group had a mean score of 3.77, while the lowest mean score came from group 3 who had an average of 3.69.

Table 5.43 Impact of socioeconomic status on reading for in-program students

	score LSMEAN	Socioeconomic	LSMEAN Number
T Grouping for LS-Means of socioeconomic			
LS-means with the same letter are not significantly different.			
A	3.8958388	4	4
A			
A	3.7870072	2	2
A			
A	3.7674144	1	1
A			
A	3.6933897	3	3

5.6.2 Impact of sociolinguistic variables on writing

In this section, we examine the impact of the various demographic factors on the students' perceived writing ability. As with reading, age does not appear to have an impact on the self-assessed writing ability of the students seeing that the p-value (p=0.9200) is well above 0.05 as seen in table 5.44.

Table 5.44 Impact of age on writing for in-program students

Parameter	Estimate	Standard Error	t Value	Pr > |t|
Age	-0.00114571	0.01138965	-0.10	0.9200

According to Table 5.45, gender did not have a statistically significant effect on the perceived writing abilities of the students even though the mean score was slightly higher for women than men. Females had an average score of 3.53, while males had an average of 3.36.

Table 5.45 Impact of gender on writing for in-program students

T Grouping for LS-Means of Gender			
LS-means with the same letter are not significantly different.			
	score LSMEAN	Gender	LSMEAN Number
A	3.5273301	F	1
A			
A	3.3567986	M	2

Table 5.46 shows that there was also no statistically significant difference in perception of the writing competences of the rural as opposed to the urban students. The mean score in writing for the rural students was 3.49 and 3.39 for the urban students.

Table 5.46 Impact of geographical location on writing for in-program students

	score LSMEAN	geo_location	LSMEAN Number
T Grouping for LS-Means of geo_location			
LS-means with the same letter are not significantly different.			
A	3.4893182	**R**	1
A			
A	3.3948104	**U**	2

In Table 5.47, we see that the highest income group also had the highest reported competence in writing with a mean score of 3.51. Group 3 had the lowest average of 3.34; however, the difference between the groups showed no effect on writing abilities. The lowest income group had the second highest average score of 3.5, while group 2 had a mean score of 3.42.

Table 5.47 Impact of socioeconomic status on writing for in-program students

	score LSMEAN	Socioeconomic	LSMEAN Number
T Grouping for LS-Means of socioeconomic			
LS-means with the same letter are not significantly different.			
A	3.5113407	**4**	4
A			
A	3.4962691	**1**	1
A			
A	3.4186693	**2**	2
A			
A	3.3419782	3	3

5.6.3 Impact of sociolinguistic variables on speaking

Age did not have a statistically significant impact on the self-assessment of the speaking skills of the students. In fact, the p value was well above 0.05.

Table 5.48 Impact of age on speaking for in-program students

Parameter	Estimate	Standard Error	t Value	Pr > |t|
Age	0.01535023	0.01690990	0.91	0.3651

In terms of speaking, Table 5.49 indicates that gender is not a significant indicator of the students' competence. While males reported a slightly higher average score of 3.5 in speaking, females had an average score of 3.45.

Table 5.49 Impact of gender on speaking for in-program students

T Grouping for LS-Means of Gender			
LS-means with the same letter are not significantly different.			
	score LSMEAN	Gender	LSMEAN Number
A	3.5007858	M	2
A			
A	3.4545362	F	1

Geographical location also showed no significant effect on the perceived speaking skills of the students. While rural students had an average score of 3.58, urban students had an average of 3.38.

Table 5.50 Impact of geographical location on speaking for in-program students

	score LSMEAN	geo_location	LSMEAN Number
**T Grouping for LS-Means of geo_location**
A	3.5764947	R	1
A			
A	3.3788272	U	2

Socioeconomic status did not prove to be a significant indicator of the students' speaking abilities. Students of the lowest income group reported the lowest self-assessed competence in this area with an average score of 3.35. Students of group 3 had the highest average score in speaking with an average of 3.57. Students of the highest income group had the second highest mean score in speaking with an average of 3.51, while students from group 2 had an average score of 3.49.

Table 5.51 Impact of socioeconomic status on speaking for in-program students

	score LSMEAN	Socioeconomic	LSMEAN Number
A	3.5667603	3	3
A			
A	3.5102341	4	4
A			
A	3.4853481	2	2
A			
A	3.3483015	1	1

5.6.4 Impact of sociolinguistic variables on listening

Age also did not have a significant impact on the listening skills of the students. There was a p-value of 0.1834 according to table 5.52.

Table 5.52 Impact of age on listening for in-program students

Parameter	Estimate	Standard Error	t Value	Pr > |t|
Age	0.01878660	0.01407217	1.34	0.1834

With respect to listening, Table 5.53 shows that gender was a predictor of the students' listening ability. While males had a mean score of 3.5, females had a higher score of 3.75. There was a statistically significant difference between the male and females mean score in listening.

Table 5.53 Impact of gender on listening for in-program students

T Grouping for LS-Means of Gender			
LS-means with the same letter are not significantly different.			
	score LSMEAN	Gender	LSMEAN Number
A	3.7529251	F	1
B	3.4972954	M	2

Geographical location also had a statistically significant impact on the self-assessed listening abilities of the students according to Table 5.54. Students from the rural areas had a mean score of 3.8, while those from the urban areas had a mean score of 3.45. This indicates that those from the rural areas reported they had a higher competence in listening than their urban classmates.

Table 5.54 Impact of geographical location on listening for in-program students

	score LSMEAN	geo_location	LSMEAN Number
T Grouping for LS-Means of geo_location			
LS-means with the same letter are not significantly different.			
A	3.7956182	**R**	1
B	3.4546023	**U**	2

Socioeconomic status, however, did not have a significant effect on the students' listening abilities. Students from group 4 (the highest income group) had the highest reported competence in listening with a mean score of 3.74. Students from group 2 (the second lowest income group) had the second highest reported competence in listening with a mean score of 3.62. Students from group 1 (the lowest income group) had the second lowest reported competence in listening with a mean score of 3.57, while students from group 3 (the second highest income group) had the lowest reported competence in listening with a mean score of 3.56.

Table 5.55 Impact of socioeconomic status on listening for in-program students

	score LSMEAN	Socioeconomic	LSMEAN Number
T Grouping for LS-Means of socioeconomic			
LS-means with the same letter are not significantly different.			
A	3.7404655	**4**	4
A			
A	3.6222197	**2**	2
A			
A	3.5731080	**1**	1
A			
A	3.5646478	**3**	3

5.6.5 Impact of sociolinguistic variables on communicative language abilities for in-program students

According to Table 5.56, communicative language abilities were not significantly affected by age with the p-value (0.6368) being above 0.05.

Table 5.56 Impact of age on the communicative language abilities

Parameter	Estimate	Standard Error	t Value	Pr > |t|
Age	-0.00639497	0.01352459	-0.47	0.6368

Gender did not prove to be a statistically significant indicator of the students' communicative language abilities even though the female's mean score was slightly higher than that of the males. While females had an average score of 3.68, males had a mean score of 3.52 (Table 5.57).

Table 5.57 Impact of gender on communicative language abilities for in-program students

T Grouping for LS-Means of Gender			
LS-means with the same letter are not significantly different.			
	score LSMEAN	Gender	LSMEAN Number
A	3.6785885	F	1
A			
A	3.5209392	M	2

Living in a rural or urban area was also not an indicator of the students' competence in the communicative language abilities (Table 5.58). Nevertheless, students from rural areas reported higher competences in these abilities (3.64) than urban students who had an average of 3.56.

Table 5.58 Impact of geographical location on communicative language abilities for in-program students

	score LSMEAN	geo_location	LSMEAN Number
T Grouping for LS-Means of geo_location			
LS-means with the same letter are not significantly different.			
A	3.6353626	**R**	1
A			
A	3.5641651	**U**	2

There was a statistically significant difference between the competence of the highest income group and that of the lowest income group. While the highest income group had the highest self-assessed competence in the communicative language abilities with a mean score of 3.77, those from the lowest income group had the lowest mean score, 3.4. Group 2 had the second highest competence with a score of 3.65, while group 3 had an average of 3.58. This indicated that socioeconomic status could be used as a predictor of one's self-reported competence in the communicative language abilities.

Table 5.59 Impact of socioeconomic status on communicative language abilities for in-program students

		Score LSMEAN	Socioeconomic	LSMEAN Number
T Grouping for LS-Means of socioeconomic				
LS-means with the same letter are not significantly different.				
	A	3.7680141	**4**	4
	A			
B	A	3.6521779	**2**	2
B	A			
B	A	3.5797482	**3**	3
B				
B		3.3991153	**1**	1

Overall, the students' gender could be used as a predictor of their skills in reading and listening. Females had higher reported competences in these areas than the males in the study. Additionally, geographical location could also be used as a predictor of the students' competences in listening. Rural students had higher reported competences in listening than the urban students. Socioeconomic status could be used as an indicator of the students' competence in the communicative language abilities. This meant that the higher the income of the students' household the higher their reported competence in the communicative language abilities. None of the sociolinguistic factors included in the study (age, gender, geographical location or socioeconomic status) could be used as a predictor of the students' writing or speaking abilities.

5.6.6 Contextualizing insights about effect of sociolinguistic variables from qualitative sources

In the interviews, the teachers highlighted various language-related challenges in teaching their SS students. One of the challenges was their students' low competence in English. One business teacher highlighted that particularly her students from the "rural, deeper inner-city" had limited access to resources and so their reading skills were very poor. It may also explain why students from higher income families reported greater competence in the communicative language abilities. Here, we see that not only does the rural-urban distinction have an effect on language needs, but also the socioeconomic status of the students.

Additionally, respondents from the rural area were also less likely to be bilingual than those from the urban area. One student from the rural area commented that, "[…] it's the country [rural area] and we don't really speak standard English like how they would do it in town [urban area] right through". This comment highlights that even rural speakers are aware that they do not predominantly speak SJE. One lecturer remarked that he had students who did not speak in English at all, but only spoke in JC. This highlights another problem – if students are required to be proficient in English to be admitted into the university, why are

they being admitted and permitted to take their regular courses if they cannot speak in English? One government lecturer explained that the:

> Latest challenge recently I think is that, and this is just my perception that the university has to make money, so we're widening our net of the students that we take in. That's the only way I can say it, so there are increasing challenges with the capacity of the students that we're taking in, especially for my area, which is international relations where not only should you be competent in the use of English, but at least one other language.

Therefore, it seems that the lecturer believes that there are shifting priorities from academia to commerce at the university, where even students who are not qualified are being permitted to enter the university for financial gain. As one business lecturer responded when asked if students should be admitted to the university without having the necessary English language skills, "You must be equipped before you come".

5.7 Further insight into qualitative data results

In this section, we present the qualitative data results pertaining to the three themes mentioned in section 4.5.3. These include language attitudes and use, challenges in learning and teaching, and language needs. Within the theme of language needs, we also address external constraints to university success. This discussion provides further insight into the qualitative data not previously discussed in relation to the research question.

5.7.1 Language attitudes and use

The participants in the study expressed varying views regarding the use and users of Jamaican Creole in the Jamaican society. One business teacher remarked that in a course she was giving, a student who teaches at the primary school level reported that one of her students asked her in Jamaican Creole "wha dis reading good fa?". In English, he was asking "how will reading be beneficial to me?". Essentially, he wanted to know how learning to read in

English would be useful to him. Therefore, even at a young age, the child had not understood why they needed to be reading in English.

According to the interview data, English and Jamaican Creole were seen as operating in and belonging to different spheres of Jamaican life. While English was needed for more formal purposes, Jamaican Creole was for informal situations. One male business lecturer stated:

> So English is necessary in a professional environment. In most- Wen mi go pon ruod an mi a pass people pon the road [When I go on the road and I pass people on the road]. I'm going to interact with people we sell coconut and all dem sitn de [who sell coconuts and other things], mi an dem a taak Patwa [I speak Patois with them]. There's no need for English.

In the above statement, he emphasizes that English is needed in a professional environment, which can also be extended to the university setting. However, when he is shopping in the market, he speaks in Jamaican Creole because English is not needed in those environments.

Another female business lecturer also made a similar observation about the contexts in which Jamaican Creole and English were to be used. She stated:

> No doubt there are other contexts outside of this workplace that I'm talking about where Creole is king, but in the workplace, and there are two reasons why I'm saying this. One in an environment in which unlike when I was a graduate, a small group of graduates in a growing market, the competition has mastered English. So if you cannot write and speak English in the corporate context, it's a problem and that's where you say you want to go.

Therefore, in her view, English was to be used in corporate contexts where Creole usage would not be commonplace. The head of the language department stated that "Creole is not an international language. They cannot communicate and write an essay in Creole. So therefore, the standard should be set". A student reinforced this view:

So, it's either English or Creole. You speak one or you speak both. So I would understand that people would deem it a language seeing that it's of our native tongue. However, uhm in the US, you have standard talk, and you have hood talk. Quote unquote. You know, hood talk would be like the slangs and all of that. So people wouldn't consider that a language. Although if you're from the hood, you would adapt to the hood talk type of talk. So it's not surprising that people would, but I wouldn't consider it a language seeing that it's not formally introduced to the world as a language.

Other participants pointed to the more widespread acknowledgement of Jamaican Creole as an official language. One psychology lecturer stated, "I know definitely now there is- there is more of an acceptance and a recognition of it as a language which is good to know". Another language teacher pointed to these changing views toward Jamaican Creole:

I think a lot of work has been done to educate people, especially when we have a good sense of our national identity, I think that is a big part of it. Um, our performance. We hear it on the radio. It's in advertisements now. So, I think that attitudes have changed. I doubt 30, 40 years ago anybody would ever advertise in Creole. So, no I'm not surprised. I'm not surprised that there is a positive shift.

However, other stakeholders, even those recognizing that Creole is a language, highlighted that it should not be made official. The head of the business department remarked that:

The other key thing, was I think where we've gotten it wrong, was that we have overstated and how we wanted it to be language and people must be taught in it. We're a small country and we don't have resources to do that, right.

Speaking English was traditionally viewed as improving one's social status through education. Resultingly, it was used in official contexts. Head of the language department recalled that "it [English] was transferred naturally because that was the standard. And you didn't hear any other type of variety or language spoken in the media, you know, even, on

the streets, in your home." She added that at the time, the perception was that English was equated with education. In her view, English is able to create opportunities that Jamaican Creole cannot. She stated:

> And I'm not um, you know, crying down Creole. But, the thing is that if we want to make ourselves competitive and flexible, we need, we need to grasp, well, we need - We have the Creole already, we need to be proficient in English Language; it takes us places.

There are two subtleties in her statement: 1) Creole is already known as a language by Jamaicans; therefore, acquiring English should be the next step, and (2) English is the more ideal language to get ahead in life. She reinforced the latter point further along in the interview by stating that "they [students] shouldn't ignore the opportunity to grasp, you know, the [English] language because [it] definitely makes them more marketable and competitive in this global environment now".

According to the interview data, competence in the English language is no longer just a local concern but a global issue. One business lecturer noted that students who wish to study internationally are now increasingly being asked to sit an English test to test their level of proficiency even though they are coming from an English-speaking region. She noted:

> When I was in high school, ancient days, if you were going to a foreign university, your English was a given. Today, there are people who have to do English tests coming from this region which means that there has been a change in circumstance. So ahm- so on one hand you have this global push, you have people working in multinationals, you have people who are being encouraged to set up their business internationally or work internationally. And then you're dealing with the Creole only situation. So, I dunno how you resolve that.

By this assertion, she is pointing to the fact that it can no longer be assumed that students coming from Creole-speaking regions have mastered the English language. However, the head of the business department in taking about the English Language Proficiency test at the

UWI stated "The fact that we're using it for a country, which should have English as a native tongue, do tell. That that to me is a true story. Nobody do not dare give me a test of English proficiency". In other words, as someone coming from a country where English is the official language, he would find it insulting to be given an English test.

Some participants reported that they did not use Creole at all with their students even though some teachers do. The head of the tourism department, for example, reported in response to a question regarding the status of Creole as a language:

> Because a number of persons do communicate using the Creole. Of course, I'm not native Jamaican so I do not speak the language. So when I communicate, I communicate in English, so the students communicate with me in English but um, some lecturers may very well go into the classroom and speak to their students in the language. I don't know if they understand better or if they understand less, I really don't know but that is the way a lot of persons communicate. I have seen the creole language communicated- it is now a Bible translation and it's very very different from the English language and so if- I have not seen a student write anything in the language, but certainly they may be able to speak it, but communicating in terms of writing, no. But the speaking of it, yes, I'm not surprised that so many people are comfortable, and they do speak the language.

Therefore, while she observed that others used it in speech, their use of Creole in writing was not as common. Another head of department in psychology reported that "[…] if you speak to me in a mesolect, I will not answer". The mesolect is a form of language that involves mixing Creole features into the English language.

One of the challenges surrounding the use of Jamaican Creole at the university is that there are professors who cannot speak it. One such example is a lecturer in the psychology department. She stated "I can't speak Patois. […] I think Patois is a wicked (meaning very good) language, cannot speak it". Because of this situation, other lecturers cannot use Creole in meetings, or they will exclude their colleagues. One business lecturer remarked:

Some of our peers or colleagues are international, some of whom may or may not have difficulty understanding what we're saying, not only if we use, um, so, so one has to be throughout this period translating and being aware of these kinds of things, writing English and so on.

A female business teacher when speaking about the use of Creole by Jamaicans stated that:

Um, so it's almost like an assertion of selfhood, which is in opposition to the standard English. So, there are people are surprised when you speak standard English and I say listen, I- this is what I do and I make no apologies. And I said there's a time and place. There are times when you do this and times when they do that. I wish I had spent more time learning some other languages because that's what's required in the world today. It doesn't say that I'm looking down on and so- but there's a- There's a time in which your audience is a different audience, sometimes it is a different audience. How do you know how to make the transition from one audience to that? In order for me to communicate my idea, we have to speak the same language. So, this is now part of the challenge.

By speaking these words, she is asserting that Jamaican Creole is appropriate for use in certain contexts and with certain audiences to ensure effective communication. She is also alluding to the fact that if English is the only language used, then it will exclude specific groups of people. One psychology student stated that the negative views toward JC are an identity issue. She remarked:

I think that um, the task is, is huge and fundamental and requires digging deep into Jamaica's sense of identity. […] Jamaican Society teaches black people […] um, Patois speakers to hate themselves. So, there's a whole bunch of attributes, that are- that are associated with being black in Jamaica and all of them are negative, meaning I don't believe they are. I'm saying society says that that they're negative and so Patois is one of those things, right?

One student from the rural area stated that "Because it's the country and we don't really speak standard English like how they woulda [would] do it in town right through". This remark reinforces the view that Jamaican Creole is spoken mainly in the rural regions of the country. Not only is Creole the main language spoken in rural areas, but the Creole spoken in these regions differ from the Creole spoken in urban areas. One student noted that:

> When it's deep rural Patois, I find it difficult. Not because I don't understand the words that are being said or I can't hear the words that are being said, but because there are certain cultural connotations behind the words that are being said that I won't fully understand.

This "deep rural Patois" he is referring to is called the basilect, which is the purest form of the language.

When asked about whether the Jamaican Creole speaker or the English speaker is more intelligent, one student replied:

> Well, they [the English speaker] sound more intelligent. And you can't really judge a person because normally based on the audience you're talking to, you just going to use Creole if is that they using and stuff. You not gonna just say- speak standard English to somebody from- who is like on the streets and something like that.

Therefore, there is an understanding that the use of a language does not reflect one's intelligence.

5.7.2 Challenges in learning and teaching

Both students and teachers highlighted challenges faced in learning and teaching at the tertiary level. One of the factors noted to affect Social Science students in their success in their language courses is their negative attitudes toward the course. One student reported that before pursuing the course, he was told that "it's hard. it's difficult". Another student remarked that:

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This critical reading and writing course, I don't see the need of it in my career choice because I'm not thinking of writing books or doing written reports or anything like that cause I'm not a journalism major. So this is my second time doing it so- well what I do know because basically they just give me tests over Soc Sci and I just swat to pass and I pass so I don't know what I'm going to do in the future when I'm through in the working world.

One language teacher noted that concerning the students' attitude towards the foundation courses:

The biggest challenge comes at the beginning of the course because there's so much resistance to doing this course. People start that first week being very afraid because they have heard a lot of bad news about the course. They had been told all sorts of negative things. Some of it, not true at all. And also, they are resistant for a second reason because they have made it to university. They assume that nobody should be testing them on English again because they have passed their CSEC and Cape courses So they're very resistant and they are resistant for a third reason because I believe know deep down that they're not that very good at reading and writing and so they're afraid and so we try to be very supportive so that they don't pay attention to the stories they hear.

The deputy head of the faculty of Social Sciences indicates that even though the foundation course "teaches valuable things", the students "take the course and promptly forget it". A government teacher stated that even though "[she had] never seen the curriculum [she had] seen some of the assignments and I think, yes, the course has some things in place".

One psychology teacher suggested that the course be offered from the students' faculty. She stated:

There are different ways of doing things and so so I don't know if students would take it more seriously if it were a Psych course or whatever or in whatever their discipline is. Again this is within the structure of them having

to do it as they come in - because again as I said it makes no sense if this course is supposed to be helping them to express themselves, the whole issue of logic, the whole issue of critical thinking then it has to be done or it should- it's best going to serve them and us and the university if they do it earlier rather than later. So, I guess I don't know if having them by discipline again providing the resources to the different faculties […] will help so.

Even though the head of the government department was not familiar with the foundation course offered to the Social science students, he highlighted that one course may not be suited for all the needs of the various departments. He remarked:

I don't know the content of the courses and those persons who designed the courses should have included what and what is needed. Right? And again, I'm going to say to you that I'm not entire sure that one course is sufficient for students doing different degrees. So even within my department, there is political science and that will need to have a different skillset from those who do ahm- international public and development management. I'd have to see it.

The head of the business department highlighted that "we're not getting students who are comfortable in English. We're getting students who are treating English almost as a foreign language. They can't express their ideas well in English, sometimes you see them getting frustrated and lapsing into Patois."

In Table 5.60, there are other pertinent comments concerning the challenges in teaching from the perspective of the teachers and administrators.

Table 5.60 Interview data concerning the challenges with teaching

Challenges in teaching		
	Teachers	Administrators
Language Department	I've kind of come to recognize that they're, um, there are lots of social, the social dimensions or the	

	social aspects of students' lives that really and truly prevent them from benefiting from the course, as significantly as they possibly can.	
	To get them to read. I can't overemphasize how important it is to read and it shocks me that we're living in an information age and I realize that they don't go on the net to read. They go to do other social media stuff, which is not bad, but you can't be doing that only. You know? So that is my challenge for them to see the value of reading. Um, I don't- I would love for them to love reading by the time they leave, but if they appreciate it then I'm happy.	
Faculty of Social Sciences	**Economics Department** I may not live in a community that is representative of the communities of the majority of my students, uh, both in the geographical sense. Uhm in the social sense, in the cultural sense, even in the emotional sense, the kind of challenges that they face and so I struggle explicitly in trying to find a way to present the material that will communicate with them with their context and therefore resonate with them.	When you mark the students' assignments, sometimes it's hard to understand what the students are saying. Not so much because of the language the grammar gets. Where is the point? If I don't see the structure when I read, I get lost.

This system is not structured for people to retain the information. It is structured for you to do well one semester, forget the material and go on and do well in the next. I say it's like you're in an awkward conditioning schedule |

		where every semester, the rewards change and when you're in that type of system, you learn very quickly what you need to do to do well and each semester which changes, and you forget what you learned before.
	Economics Department I find that I spend a lot of time focusing on things I shouldn't be focusing on. Um, and so that takes away from the lesson to be taught because, um, we too are - have time constraints, and when I come to the class, I come with an expectation that there's at least a basic understanding that the students have and um, so it makes it, it, it draws things out and I think to some extent you don't want to pressure them too much so that they stop trying to answer.	
	Psychology Department So well what I just mentioned not really knowing what the issue is so there is a lack of preparedness or preparation for classes no matter how much we beg them so you almost have to be like ahm teaching them rather than having a discussion about concepts that they really should have read about from before and then not really knowing what it is	

	that they're not understanding.	
	Business Department So, there are challenges and if dem [they] don't understand, sometimes dem shame [they are ashamed] to tell you dem [they] don't understand. We have other challenges - our classes are too big, etc., etc. But it is not just the foundation course.	
	Government Department Well, I'd - challenge in the sense that, it's how to make the material be delivered across effectively where they can improve from C student to where you might become a B and the ability to break down the subject matter, give several examples and different type of examples for them to understand or try to understand what you're trying to bring across.	

5.7.2.1 Focus on language when grading

There were contrasting views about the focus on language when grading. One government student responded negatively to the question of whether his lecturers focused on language, while one business (entrepreneurship and accounting) student said that their lecturers did "not necessarily" focus on language and that it was "probably say about 50/50". One tourism student also responded that there was no emphasis on language in her tourism courses. Another business (accounting) student expressed that in his Mathematics course, "they don't mark you for grammar because it's a Maths course". One economics student went

on to reinforce this view and added that feedback on their written work was not received. She stated that:

> For me, I think they're more concerned with content. Kind of hard to tell since we really don't get to see back our when we do a test to see back our paper to see the corrections. I believe that is more content than language skills.

In the psychology department, one student remarked that little to no emphasis was placed on language in her content courses. Her response to the question of whether or not her teachers focused on language in her courses was "No, just content and delivery. Just look like you know what you're saying. It doesn't - your grammar doesn't mean you have to be proper; you just have to sound proper". She added that "if it's worth 10 points, you could allocate probably, 0.5 or 1 the most to grammar in itself but other than that, content".

On the other hand, one business (entrepreneurship) student stated that "Yes, all our lecturers" focused on language most of the time. Another business (marketing and accounting) student remarked "Yes. They do. Because sometimes we have to write short summaries. They- trust me, they're, they're very, they're very strict on that".

One business teacher stated that there is less emphasis on language in quantitative courses; however, if the course requires the use of the English language and the student has not mastered the language, then they will not receive an A.

The head of the language department highlighted that there was a challenge with the faculty of Social Sciences' lack of emphasis on the importance of language. She stated:

> They just looked for facts. And if the facts were clear they didn't care about
> the writing, as long as the writing was clear enough for them to say, oh, this
> person understand man. Yeah. See them [they] have the right dates, the right
> facts, just the fact content. So, we - there's a great divide in our approach to
> learning and theirs. They just want to make sure the students know. First of
> all, their, their groups are so huge they resort to multiple choice, which is
> another problem.

She also stated that Social Science teachers must "not only teach in English to but they need to correct for English. And not just look for the content". These views highlight two important concerns: 1) the overuse of multiple-choice items because of class size, and (2) the emphasis on content rather than language.

5.7.3 Language needs

5.7.3.1 Most important language skill

Even though the administrators were not required to fill out a questionnaire, they were asked about what they viewed as the most important language skill (reading, writing, speaking and listening) for the success of the Social Science students. Both the heads of the economic department and business departments viewed all skills as being equally important for the students' success; however, the head of the business department stated that speaking ranks as being very important. The heads of the government and psychology departments viewed writing as the most important skill, while the head of the department of tourism and the deputy head of the faculty of Social Sciences viewed reading as the most important skill. The head of the department of language viewed reading and writing as being equally important skills for the students' success.

The head of the department of economics highlighted that there were challenges with students' linguistic abilities at both the graduate and undergraduate level. He stated:

> At the master's level, so at the Undergraduate level, the weakness is with basic grammar; at the masters level, you're not getting very many very grammatical errors what you getting is, and I don't know if it's English, but you not getting very properly structured arguments. You ask persons to compare and you would get. So, compare A and B; you get points about A, you get points about B and there's no comparison. At the Masters level, you don't expect that. Is that an English thing?

The teachers completed the questionnaire; however, they also provided insight into the most important skill for the students' success. While one economics teacher stated that listening and reading were the most important skills, another psychology teacher stated that reading and writing were most important. According to the economic teacher:

> It really is more that all four of those elements are, are important. But if you're, if one is forced to rank them, then the others are more important. I mean listening and reading is, is how you get new information and if you're an academic, if you're a scientist, if you're an intellectual, the most important thing is to constantly have the input of new information so you can reorganize your thinking appropriately. And from that comes a fresher- And a more constructive understanding that gives a material to speak about and to write.

The psychology teacher noted that:

> As students and then in general in life in terms of what a lot of social scientists are going to be involved in. It's gonna involve a lot of reading and writing. So, it's kinda skills that they're gonna need right throughout their careers, lives.

While several teachers pointed to the challenges that they had with their students' language skills, the deputy head of the faculty of Social Sciences stated that the challenges that the students had were more social than linguistic. He noted that "most of the students come here without problems with language. The problems that they have are with dealing with university and dealing with the structure of university. They're more social problems than language". One of the language teachers also pointed to a non-linguistic factor that seems to be affecting the students' ability to bridge the gap between their competences and the university's expectations. She stated:

> They don't know what's happening in the world. Why? They don't read. They don't listen to news. They're not interested. It's a- it's just a different way of looking at the world and they're not interested. If it's not happening

in front of them now and it concerns them now, they're not interested. They need to have a broader view and I think that is the gap. That's the gap.

5.7.3.2 Using the English Language Proficiency Test to assess language needs

In Table 5.61, there is a summary of all the interview data concerning the ELPT. These views highlight that the ELPT does not assess students' competence according to their discipline, is not reflective of the tasks in the SS, and is used as more than a proficiency test.

Table 5.61 Interview data concerning the ELPT from various stakeholders

English Language Proficiency Test (ELPT)		
Students	Teachers	Administrators
To be honest I kind of wish like because I had to do the ELPT examination I was one of those person who never took English seriously as well you know, I really regret that. And that kind of ended up doing on the course seeing foundation 1019 because like you know it more focuses on the first part. The first part more focuses on your writing skills and developing vocabulary and those kinds of simple stuff.	Language It does measure English language competence but it doesn't measure English Language competency in a discipline specific way but it can't you see because it's for all students coming in but it does help us to decide who will do the year long 1013.	Language Well we take, we take the multiple, we did the um, as I said before, we look at the essay as the major, um, you know, indicator of the writing skills and then we look we look, we do, um, score the writing, the multiple choice for writing and reading and if I remember correctly, we use that to um, sometimes as a guide. So if the person maybe didn't finish their

I feel like I would benefit from that, but I just do it after I try my best to do.		essay or, you know, there might have been some problem, we, we kinda look at how well they score to kind of make a call if for some reason we aren't certain about the writing.
	I am careful of the word appropriate, but it works. Until we find something better, and you know, we keep- it- It is um, revised so that we can get a better understanding of what the student is capable of. It is revised regularly. So it is, it works for the time being. I don't know about appropriate, but it works.	
	It really is testing basic proficiency in terms of whether you can organize a piece of writing coherently, cohesively, you know. Yeah. You have basic grammar; your skills are basic. Um, and that is where the waiting is in them writing an essay, but we, we, we expect far more of	

	them in terms of the tasks that they are required to engage in, in FOUN1013.	
	I am not so sure exactly the English language test functions as a diagnostic test, as a placement test, as a proficiency test, because I mean it dances around all of those labels.	
Faculty of Social Sciences	**Psychology Department** The second thing is that there should be a space for all of them to take that course in that first semester.	**Psychology Department** It's a one- it's a single evaluation and the problem with any kind of single evaluation is that it measures things at one particular point in time. I am much more excited about time series kinds of evaluations. So yes there's a one-shot test and when you have large numbers working with, that's what you're going to have to do in the short term, but I would much prefer have a more longitudinal sort of evaluation.

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	Government Department	Social Sciences – Deputy Head
	So, hold on. That is 250 words? Is an essay? That's like an abstract. Okay. But how can you write a - how's it classified as an essay? It's referred to as as a short essay?	It will screen out people who have problems with language. Ok? Those people should go into some form of remedial training. They have a problem with learning the acquisition of language, so they would need a very different pathway into university.
	Tourism Department	**Business Department**
	I think that it works well because the fact that have gotten a three or below and not a one or a two means that they need some additional help with the English language. Uhm and if this test can facilitate that uhm perhaps having gone through that training and so on. It may be equivalent. I don't know or perhaps maybe they're even more advanced than someone who would have gotten a one or two. I don't know	Multiple choice for me jogs your memory, you can, especially if the multiple-choice things are so markingly different that you could reasonably, it's such an outlier. Whereas I think the mastery you need is more - it has to be more nuanced, English is a very nuanced language. And, you know, I'm not a fan of multiple-choice test for everything, you understand me?

	cause it's two different types of tests, but certainly the objective is to improve their capability in use of the English language, so as far as they can do that, I think it's very important that- that uhm the testing be done.	
	Government Department Well, I'm not entirely sure because of course it's a one-test score for students who are doing different degrees so of course many different occupations require different knowledge-related skill sets. So, for example, if you going into journalism surely you need to be a little much more- have a more substantive understanding of the English language than someone who is doing physics. Right? So, it- it's difficult to answer the question.	

The ELPT is used as an entrance test for the university to place students in either FOUN1013 or FOUN1019. However, one language teacher noted that sometimes there are students who, in her opinion, had been placed in the wrong course level. She stated:

But sometimes some of the students we got coming into [FOUN]1013, we wonder you should not be here. […] I suspect it works the other way, as

well. That there might be some in [FOUN]1019 who maybe should not be in [FOUN]1019.

Therefore, the ELPT must be reviewed to see if it accurately does what it sets out to do, which is to place students in the correct level of foundation courses.

5.7.3.3 Contextual factors affecting needs

There are social and academic factors related to the university context that affect the determination of the students' language needs. One such factor is the extent to which high school prepared them for the university context. According to an accounting student, "when I was doing Accounts in high school, nothing that they taught me in high school was of any help here because it's totally different. Only thing that it prepared me was to get accepted by having the subject." One psychology student "It just didn't prepare me - didn't prepare me well". She added "Grammar, sentence structure, just - sometimes even spelling, […] like, I can't spell this word and I realized that I changed the whole sentence because I can't spell a certain word which I should know how to spell, so". Other students, however, reported that what they learned in high school did prepare them for university. One student noted:

> I have a lovely or had a lovely teacher in high school. Um, I won't say her name, but she works here now, and she prepared us as in how she taught us and how she ensured that the course was subjective, or it included everything. Um, for us to be able to tackle university. I think she prepared us well.

One government lecturer noted that in high school and in university, there are two different approaches to learning. She stated:

> I think in general the high school level, students are just focus more on taking test, test, test and not thinking. At the university level we are about more critical thinking. […] They're just worried about tests, tests, tests. So that's what we'd be learning, so hopefully PEP [Primary Exit Profile] will rectify that in terms of allowing students to think and use the analytical part

of their brain rather than trying to just remember to write back on a exam paper.

The PEP examination is a recently introduced assessment given to students at the end of their primary school education to determine which high school they will attend. Another language lecturer also observed that the students did not seem to be fully equipped with the skills necessary for university. However, unlike the previous assertion, she believed that the problem commenced before high school. She remarked:

> There are some things that you would assume that they would have come in with, but- And I also don't think it's necessarily the fault of the secondary education. I really believe it starts at the primary level. Crayons, building blocks, and I really think if they have a good foundation like an appreciation for reading is one. These are habits- These are habits that you should be able to take with you throughout your life.

This problem is not only evident in the classroom but at the administerial level. Regarding the low level of preparedness given at the high school level for university, the head of the government department stated:

> It's a problem that we inherit, and we are not the only ones who inherit that course- I'm sorry that problem. Different government agencies also have challenges with students coming straight from high school aiding those persons. So, a lot of people have that challenge. It's really a problem coming from the high school and primary school.

Another factor affecting the language needs of the students is the language ability of their teachers. One statistics student stated, "I realized that sometimes the lecturers don't speak entirely in English". This problem was not only recognized by a student, but by a lecturer as well. One economics lecturer also stated:

> Well I generally don't consider myself the best um, at the English language, It's something I think something, you know like you have a pet peeve, like is something I constantly think I need to work on. So, my

vocabulary, my use of - even simple things that I think I should know. Often time, um (in audible) slip up an in writing I feel I have an issue and I don't think I've been prepared adequately for it. I don't know - if I am good at it now, I don't think I'm as good as I need to but - if I am good, it's my own realization that has caused me to take an additional step.

Outside of the classroom, other factors affect the students' language needs. One government lecturer remarked that the university seems to be relaxing its requirements to allow more students to enter who may not be qualified to meet the university's requirements. She reported that the "latest challenge recently I think is that, and this is just my perception that the university has to make money, so we're widening our net of the students that we take in.". Another business lecturer pointed to a lack of access resources because of poverty as the root of students' challenges:

The problems in the society actually the macrocosm is in the microcosm like here we're going deeper rural, deeper inner-city. The context of the inner-city violence, and- well you know the possible range. So, what that ends up doing is that some of the students have a very impoverished access to resources. So, there may be things that need to be done on the computer. They have no computer. So, school has to be trying to do that and reading is a problem.

Those students who are of a higher economic status have greater access to resources and, are therefore, more able to prepare for the university's language demands. This problem highlights the effects of socioeconomic status on education. The deputy head of the faculty of SS additionally remarked that "this is a very class segregated society and the university is divided by class, strongly divided by class".

CHAPTER 6 – DISCUSSION OF RESULTS AND IMPLICATIONS

In this chapter, I first discuss the findings of this research according to the research questions and also the previously presented literature. The research questions are:

1. What are the skills-based language abilities that undergraduate Social Science (SS) students need in order to be successful in their language and Social Science courses, according to the course syllabi?

2. To what extent does the ELPT measure the skills required in their language and SS courses?

3. What are the self-assessed language needs of FOUN1019 (entering) Social Science students at UWI?

4. What are the skills-based language abilities that undergraduate Social Science students need in order to be successful in their studies at the University of the West Indies (UWI)? As reported by:

   a)   Faculty-specific teachers

   b)   Language teachers

   c)   In-program (returning) Social Science students

   d)   Administrators

5. In what ways do these language needs differ across the various departments within the faculty of Social Sciences?

6. What is the relationship between the participants' age, gender, socioeconomic status, geographical location and the self-assessed language needs of the students?

Secondly, in this chapter, I address the implications of the study's results for language teaching and assessment (Sections 6.7 and 6.8), the limitations of the study (section 6.9.), and the directions for future research (Section 6.10).

6.1 Skills-based language abilities according to course syllabi

In research question 1, I sought to ascertain the skills-based language abilities that undergraduate Social Science (SS) students need in order to be successful in their language

and Social Science courses through an analysis of the course outlines. Recall that all Social Science students are required to do one of two critical reading and writing courses in their university tenure: FOUN1019 or FOUN1013. These courses are termed, by the university, as foundation courses. However, the course may be taken in any year of their studies. What this means is that students may get to the end of their program without (successfully) taking either of these foundation courses. The time at which the students take the foundation course could be problematic as we see from Terrasche and Wahid's (2011) study that prior academic instruction had a positive impact on the writing skills of university students. One concern raised in the interviews is that students may have been placed in the wrong foundation course. One of the major differences between the two language courses is the length of the courses – FOUN1019 was for a year, while FOUN1013 was only for a semester. Another difference is that students in FOUN1019 were required to do a timed writing summary, while the FOUN1013 students were not.

According to the course syllabi, Social Science students were required to do similar types of tasks in their language and Social Science courses even though the content of the tasks may differ. In comparing the language courses with the SS courses, we see that the courses, generally, required the same types of tasks: writing essays, reading academic material, doing oral presentations and listening to lectures. In the SS, the students were also required to write final examinations, which is a speeded evaluation not generally found in the language courses. In the business department, in particular, students would also be tested through multiple-choice questions and oral presentations which were not mentioned in the other Social Science courses evaluated. Economics students were also required to do problems sets, which we did not see in the other content courses. Therefore, a language course catered to economics students should include problem sets.

From the interviews, both students and language teachers reported that the students generally had a negative attitude towards these foundation courses because of what they had heard about it from past students. Resultingly, they may have approached the course with some amount of reluctance or hesitation. Teachers and administrators also noted that the students did not appear to retain what they had learned in the courses and apply it to their

content courses. Therefore, it brings into question whether the course was instrumental in their university success.

While these foundation courses focused primarily on language, the SS courses were more geared towards content. Some business students reported that their SS lecturers focused on language; however, in government, psychology and tourism, the students said there was little to no emphasis on language. Even within the business department, their major or program determined how much emphasis was placed on language. This point may underscore Hyland (2013) which highlights there is a distinct way of interacting within each discipline. For example, the marketing students reported that language was emphasized; however, in entrepreneurship, there was not as much reported emphasis on language. Recall that both the qualitative and quantitative data illustrated that not only did language and SS teachers place different amounts of emphasis on various language skills, but within the SS, there were also differing views on the importance of certain skills. Based on these competing views, it would appear that one foundation course may not be the solution to fit the language needs of the various departments in the SS.

6.2 The ELPT as a measurement of skills needed in Social Sciences

An evaluation of the English Language Proficiency Test used to assess students who did not meet the university's language requirement with the objective of examining the extent to which the test measures the skills required in their language and SS courses showed that the test did not adequately measure the skills required in their language and SS courses (RQ2). In the test, students were tested on their grammar and reading comprehension through a series of multiple-choice questions; however, they will not be asked primarily to do this type of activity in their SS courses, except for in the business department. Regarding the use of multiple-choice in the SS courses, we learned from the interview data that huge class sizes could be used to explain why this type of evaluation had to be used. The length of the writing task given in the test also did not reflect the types of tasks they will do in the target situation. In the ELPT, a 200- to 300-word essay is not reflective of the types of writing activities which the students will be required to do in the language or content courses.

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The incongruence between the test and the target situation points to what Messick (1996) refers to as construct validity and in this situation, the underrepresentation of the target situation. If the test is to be more representative of the target situation then it must reduce the number of or eliminate the presence of multiple-choice questions. Including a summary writing task would also be more representative of the target situation. Some of the teachers highlighted that there were less grammatical issues with the students' work, but their analytical and argumentation skills remained poor.

Even though the test is labelled as a proficiency test, it can arguably be seen as a diagnostic or placement test as well. This test is used to determine which level of foundation courses the students will be required to do in order to meet the university's language exigencies. Regardless, students are admitted to the university whether or not they pass this test and are allowed to take their content courses. This practice begs to question whether or not the test serves an instrumental purpose of preparing students for their content course requirements even though Terrasche and Wahid (2011) highlights that this type of instruction does have an impact on students' performance. This problem is not just localized to the Jamaican tertiary institutions but also affects Jamaicans wishing to study overseas. Nero (2014) highlights that many English speakers also fail to meet university English requirements abroad. Therefore, there needs to be greater preparation at the high school level for students to meet both local and international university requirements.

6.3 Language needs as perceived by FOUN1019 students

The self-assessed language needs of FOUN1019 (entering) Social Science students at UWI (RQ3) revealed that the reported expectations of the target situation in the areas of reading, writing, speaking, listening and communicative language abilities were always significantly higher than their competences. The FOUN1019 students had the highest gap between the expectations and competences in the communicative language abilities. This finding is noteworthy since one of the characteristics which set the FOUN1019 students from the FOUN1013 students is that they would have failed the ELPT; therefore, they would be required to take a year-long foundation course. The first semester of the course would focus

primarily on the communicative language abilities including appropriate tense, syntax, and sentence structure. For the FOUN1019 students, the lowest gap was reported in the speaking abilities. Despite this positive rating of their speaking abilities, they ranked speaking as being the least important skill for their university success. On the other hand, reading was ranked as the most important skill for their university success. These results for students entering Social Sciences at UWI are similar of those found in the literature: reading is the skill typically emphasized as primary (Rose & Sookraj, 2015), in contrast to legal (Chovancová, 2014) and medical (Alsout, 2013) professional programs whose students put greater importance on speaking.

6.4 Language needs according to various stakeholders (teachers, administrators, and students)

Recognizing that FOUN1019 students have limited knowledge regarding the language demands of their programs, other stakeholders were also consulted. This research question explored the skills-based language abilities that undergraduate Social Science students need in order to be successful in their studies at the University of the West Indies according to various stakeholders including in-program students, lecturers and administrators. The results showed that the expectations were also assessed as being higher than the students' competences in all areas, except the communicative language abilities which were relatively equal. The in-program students reported the largest gap between their competences and what was expected of them in the area of speaking. This finding coincides with their ranking of speaking as the least important language skill for the university success. However, it stresses the potential need of the university to place greater emphasis on developing the speaking skills of the Social Science students, which was also highlighted in Yates and Wahid's (2013) Australian study.

The results of this study point to the need to clarify language needs in terms of what students (or other learners) ought to know to succeed in the target situation or what they need to get by in the target situation. Nevertheless, across all stakeholders (students, language teachers, SS teachers), reading was ranked as the most important skill for the students'

success. This finding is consistent with earlier studies where reading was also seen as being most important for the learners (Moiinvaziri, 2014; Rostami and Zafarghandi, 2014; Rose and Sookraj, 2015; Sawaki, 2017). Reading was also rated most frequently as an extremely important skill for the success of these students, even though the language teachers ranked writing as being equally important. In other studies, teachers rated listening as also being equally the most important skill for their students' academic success along with reading (Akyel and Ozek, 2010; Gözüyeşil, 2014). Interestingly, both of these studies were done in Turkey; therefore, there may be cultural practices which explain the emphasis on listening as well as reading.

In general, the language teachers rated the importance of reading, writing, and speaking higher than the SS teachers and in-program students. This finding is consistent with the emphasis placed on critical reading and writing in the foundation courses offered by the language department of the university. The SS lecturers rated the importance of listening higher than the language teachers and in-program students. However, the students rated the importance of communicative language abilities higher than the language and SS teachers combined. Like the language teachers, the students also believed that reading was extremely important for the university success.

From the data, we see that the students did not think that high school adequately prepared them for university. Some of the students expressed they did not feel that they had been taught how to write at a university level. This lack of English proficiency was seen to not only affect local, but also international college applications. Even one teacher expressed that mastery of the English language was not her strong suit. Some lecturers expressed that they spoke in JC to connect better with their students, while others reported that they did not use JC at all. For some lecturers, not using JC was a choice; for others, they were not competent in JC because of their international background.

6.5 Language needs according to departments

The assessment of the language needs according to the five departments in the faculty demonstrated that the needs varied as each department rated the importance of each of the language skills differently (RQ5). These finding are similar to Molle and Prior's (2008) study where different programs of study attributed varying levels of importance to each of the skills. In the present study, tourism students had the highest expectations in all the language skills except writing, in which the economics students had the highest expectations. Economics students, conversely, had the least expectations in the area of communicative language abilities. Government students placed the least importance on reading and listening. Psychology students had the least expectations in speaking, while tourism students placed the least importance on writing. In Molle and Prior's (2008) study, the various students from the departments of music, psychology, engineering and architecture also placed different ranks of importance on these skills. Dyche's (2013) study also concluded that writing proficiency affected the academic performance of history and zoology students differently. In the same way that the various departments within the faculty of Social Sciences have varying views on the importance of each language skill, it can be deduced that the language needs across the seven faculties at the University of the West Indies also differ. How then can the university use the same test to assess students' readiness for the demands of their faculty? The fact that different academic and writing courses have been developed for each faculty suggests the importance of assessing the language needs and requirements of each faculty separately, a point emphasized in the literature (Hyland, 2013). Chostelidou (2010) also recommends the development of a language course rooted in the discipline of study.

Another finding indicates that the different departments rated their competences in the language skills differently. Interestingly, tourism students seemed to rate all their competences highly. The tourism students had the highest reported competence in speaking, writing and communicative language abilities. Business students had the highest reported competence in listening, which coincides with the Social Science's teachers' rating of listening as being important for their students' success. Psychology students had the highest reported competence in reading. Economics students had the lowest reported competence in the areas of speaking, writing and communicative language abilities. Tourism students had

the lowest reported competence in reading, and government students had the lowest reported competence in their listening skills.

Overall, tourism students had the highest reported gap in reading, speaking and listening, while economics students had the highest reported gap in writing and communicative language abilities. Government students had the lowest gap between their perceived competence and expectation in reading and speaking. Business students had the lowest gap in listening and communicative language abilities, while tourism students had the lowest gap in writing. These results show that tourism students may need to have courses that focus on helping them with reading, speaking and listening.

6.6. Effect of demographic factors on language needs

For research question 6, we examined the effects of age, gender, geographical location, and socioeconomic status as determined by reported income on the perceived language abilities of Social Science students at the university. These language abilities included reading, writing, listening, speaking and communicative language abilities. Overall, both the quantitative and qualitative data revealed that some of these social factors affected students' success. While none of the sociolinguistic variables could be used as a predictor of the students' self-reported writing and speaking abilities (RQ6), gender could, in fact, be used to predict their reading and listening abilities. Based on the results, we see that women had higher reported competence in reading and listening than men.

Geographical location could also be used a predictor of the students' listening abilities whereby being from the rural or urban area could reflect their reported listening competence. From our study, we see that those from the rural area reported higher competences in listening than those from the urban areas. According to a language competence survey conducted in Jamaica, most monolingual speakers of English were from the urban area (Jamaican Language Unit, 2007), which means that JC speakers were predominantly from the rural areas. The interview data reflected that English is not as widely spoken in the rural area as in the urban area. Finally, socioeconomic status could be used to predict the students' perceived competence in the communicative language abilities. Those from the higher

income bracket reported higher competences in these communicative language abilities, while those from the lower income group had lower reported competences in these abilities. This finding is congruent with Nero's (2014) observation that upper class Jamaican children tended to have higher levels of proficiency in English. Those children from higher income families may have had access to elementary school education with greater resources than those from low to middle class families. The finding also echoes Evans' (2001) assertion that poorer students had less access to the necessary resources that would adequately equip them from the demands of the university setting. Richer students could hire tutors or do extra lessons, if necessary.

In general, the results of the present study also showed that females reported higher perceived competences in all the language abilities than the male participants in the study. This under-reporting of their language abilities as men could be due to the social stigma linked to the speaking of JSE as effeminate as reported in the literature. These results contrast with Moiinvaziri (2014) which showed no significant difference between males and females in their perception of their problematic language areas. These problematic areas can be likened to the assessment of the competences seen in our study as they reflect how the students view their proficiency in the different language areas. Unlike our study which is skills-based assessment, Moiinvaziri study looked at three communicative language abilities: grammar, vocabulary and pronunciation. This finding from our study also resonates with arguments put forward by Trudgill (1972) that women were more status conscious than men, so they tended to report the use of more standard forms to be seen as being of a higher socioeconomic status. His observations were based on his study in Norwich, which also revealed that men tended to underestimate their use of standard forms. Therefore, when asked about the competence in these skills in English, it is not surprising that women would have rated their competences more generously than the men in the study even though this may differ from the reality.

The results of the study point to changing attitudes toward Jamaican Creole. Based on the results of the quantitative data analysis, there seems to be an evolution in the way JC is viewed by Jamaicans. Jamaican Creole is seen as a language and no longer reported to point to a lack of education or intelligence. However, the use of English still seems to be

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viewed as a means of being perceived as belonging to a higher social class or 'improving' one's social status. These changing attitudes, nevertheless, may point to reduced interest in maintaining the 'status quo' by using JSE to be seen as educated or intelligent. In terms of language use, English and Jamaican Creole were seen as operating in two separate and distinct domains in that the former was more accepted in formal situations such as classroom teaching and interacting with lecturers, while the latter was used in informal and everyday conversation. What this means is that students who predominantly use Jamaican Creole may perceive their needs as being greater than those who primarily speak English. This ideology is reflected in the finding that those who reported higher socioeconomic status also perceived that they had higher competences in communicative language abilities than the lower income groups. Therefore, we see that attitudes and language use may play a role in students' perceptions of their needs. To conclude, several sociolinguistic and contextual factors contribute the determination of the students' needs and to their success.

6.7 Implications for teaching

In clarifying the needs of students, it is pertinent to assess their needs not only as perceived by themselves, but also other stakeholders in the institution such as teachers and administrators. In some cases, as in the present study, it is possible that the language needs from the perspective of various stakeholders may not be aligned. In this research, the results from both the quantitative and qualitative data highlighted that language teachers placed more importance on most language skills, except listening, than the Social Science teachers. If anything, this discrepancy highlights that both language teachers and SS teachers must work in collaboration to create a needs-driven language foundation course for the SS students, which is similar to one of the recommendations coming out of Salehi et al's (2013) study. If resources allow, the foundation course could be tailored to address the distinct needs of the various departments. Recall that the needs of the departments varied (see Table 6.1).

Table 6.1 Potential blueprint for FOUN course curriculum based on target situation analysis

Department	Reading	Writing	Listening	Speaking
Business	++ Expectations are low.	+ Expectations are average.	+ Expectations are average.	++ Inclusion of oral presentations
Economics	+ Expectations are average. Inclusion of worded problem sets	++++ Expectations are very high.	+++ Expectations are high.	++ Expectations are high. Expectations in communicative language abilities are low.
Tourism	++++ Expectations are very high.	+ Expectations are very low.	++++ Expectations are very high.	++++ Expectations are high.
Psychology	+ Expectations are high.	+ Expectations are low.	+ Expectations are low.	++ Expectations are very low.
Government	+++	+	+ Expectations are very low.	+

	Expectations are low.	Expectations are average.		Expectations are low.

In table 6.1, we see the relative reported importance of the four language skills in each department when compared to the other departments. The plus (+) signs indicate the level of emphasis that should be placed on a particular skill based on the gap analysis. For example, a foundation course in the government would primarily focus on reading since there is a sizeable gap between what is expected of the students and what they know. Creating a foundation course for the tourism department would concentrate on all the skills with less emphasis on writing. The language course called "Critical Reading and Writing for the Social Sciences" should be founded in the critical reading and writing needs of the faculty of Social Sciences. Table 6.1 serves as a concrete tool that instructors of the foundation courses can use to better align the language tasks with the target language situation.

Moreover, to better respond to the needs of Social Science students, this blueprint should be updated on an annual basis, regularly reviewed and updated by a collaborative team of both language teachers and Social Science teachers. The findings of this study suggest that the language and SS faculty operate independently, so the SS faculty is not aware of what is being tested or taught in the foundation courses. The findings also suggest that tourism students may have higher perceived language needs in certain areas and economics students in others; therefore, it may be prudent to consider tailor-made courses to meet the specific language needs of these students. The university needs to devote resources to the facilitation of meetings between the administrators and teachers in the faculty of SS and the department of language to assess what are the needs of the students as determined by their present situation and the target situation. The foundation course(s) should also include speeded writing components which are reminiscent of the speeded writing tasks in the students' content courses.

Additionally, if the foundation courses are necessary to prepare the students to meet the needs of the target situation, students should be required to do the course within the first year of their study. Administrators should make it a part of the university's policy that this

course be completed before doing other SS courses. The course may be even done in the summer before the student is supposed to officially commence their regular studies at the university. If the course is not done and passed in the first year of study, it suggests that the course may not, in fact, be fundamental to the students' success in their courses. Alternatively, it may imply that the students would have gotten to the end of the course of the study not performing as well as they could have because they did not have the necessary language foundation to excel in their courses. This finding also has implications for the testing of language proficiency at the university in terms of when the test should be administered and how the test results should be used.

The creators of the foundation courses could also consider adding a component in these courses that focuses on language awareness about the differences between JSE and JC. This awareness would help the students to be more cognizant of their bilingual status as suggested by Seargeant (2008). This may be simply a part of a lecture or a tutorial dedicated to raising this awareness. Alternatively, a workshop could be offered outside of the normal class hours in collaboration with the Jamaica Language Unit – a language planning agency situated on the campus. Teachers would also need to be trained to teach English to the students as second language learners of the language. Nero (2014) asserts that Jamaican teachers are not trained to facilitate the transition of Jamaican Creole-speaking students to English speakers. This issue has implications for various stakeholders, including the university itself and the teachers. It would require that additional training sessions be done for the lecturers in both SS and foundation courses, again in collaboration with the Jamaica Language Unit. While this process may be costly and time-consuming for the university in the initial stages, it will have long-term benefits for both the students and the university, in general. This training could be facilitated during the summer before the start of the regular school session.

6.8 Implications for assessment

In terms of testing, if a failing result in the ELPT suggests that the student has not met the language requirements of the university, then one would expect that the student

would not be permitted to pursue their course of study without meeting these requirements first. However, this is not the case. If the student is able to succeed at the university without having the language prerequisites and without passing the ELPT, then the test may not be testing what it sets out to measure. It seems that, in practice, the ELPT may be functioning more as a placement test than as the proficiency test it purports to be. The findings of the study indicated that some of the constructs being measured in the ELPT do not correspond with the tasks that the students are generally required to do in their SS courses. If the ELPT is to function as a proficiency test aimed at establishing students' readiness to undertake studies at UWI, it needs to be redesigned to better align with the target situation and, ideally, there would be several versions of the ELPT developed that are tailored to the particularities of each department comprising the SS faculty. For example, the economics department may consider incorporating worded problem sets which were included in their course requirements.

|Even if department-specific tests are not feasible, based on this needs analysis, I recommend the ELPT test-developers revise the test such that there are no multiple-choice questions. The document analysis revealed that multiple-choice questions were not generally present in the SS courses except for in the business department. In the current test, there are 70 multiple-choice questions which may not be the best way of assessing the students' competence. Ideally, the test should have 3 sections: 1) listening and/reading comprehension, 2) writing, and speaking (if resources permit).

Section 1 would include a reading comprehension where students would read an academic article and answer related questions or produce a summary of the article. Since SS teachers reported that they placed more emphasis on listening than the other groups, adding a listening exercise to the test could also be useful. In this way, students will gain practice in listening to information in Standard Jamaican English and interpreting it correctly to produce the appropriate response. Section 2 would now be the essay writing section where students would write an essay of at least 500 words instead of the previous word limit. A longer essay writing section would be more reflective of the type of writing tasks that the students will be required to do in the academic setting. Finally, section 3 would have a speaking section where they would be required to briefly present in Standard Jamaican English on a social science-

related topic. In terms of practicality, resources may not permit the implementation of this section to all the test-takers. If resources are limited, an alternative would be to offer specialized workshops which focus on developing speaking skills for all students in their foundation courses based on the demands of the target language situation.

6.9 Limitations of the study

One of the limitations of this research is that it was focused on one faculty at the University of the West Indies. Even though the faculty of the Social Sciences possesses the highest number of students who do not meet the language requirements of the university, it would have been interesting to examine other faculties to see if their needs differ. Another limitation pertains to incomplete data sets since no lecturers from the tourism department were included in the study. While this situation could not have been avoided, their perspectives could have shed some light on the large gaps in the competence of the tourism students. We also did not receive course outlines from the government and tourism departments, so it is hard to determine if the needs in those departments would have differed greatly from the other departments. Finally, even though the document analysis of the course outlines and ELPT provided a look at the objectives needs of the students, the dominant data source was the questionnaires which were subjective as they only provided the teachers' and students' perceptions of their needs. As argued early on in section 3.4, one important methodological contribution of this study is its mixed methods approach drawing on multiple data sources, an approach that is not seen extensively in the needs analysis literature. However, when resources allow, additional objective measures, such as classroom observations and analyses of textbooks or other reading material used in the Social Science courses, would certainly enhance this and other needs analyses.

6.10 Directions for future research

During the research, questions surrounding the use of English and gender and sexuality arose, especially regarding male usage of English and associated femininity or

homosexuality. Therefore, this could be a useful area to study, in terms of the societal preconceptions about the link between gender/sexuality and language use. For a better understanding of the language needs of the students related to their communicative language abilities, future research could examine writing samples of students and conduct classroom observations. This could shed some more light on the needs as determined in real-time. Another possible area of interest for future research is examining the language needs of other faculties at the University of the West Indies including Engineering, Medical Sciences, Humanities & Education, Law, and Science & Technology and Sports. If the needs of the students varied within the same faculty, it is possible that needs may also vary greatly across faculties. This research could provide useful insight into the needs of these faculties.

CONCLUSION

The objective of the study was to determine the language needs of the Social Science students at the University of the West Indies using a communicative competence framework. The language needs were determined by looking at a combination of the student's perceived present situation, the target situation, and the gap between the two from the perspective of different stakeholders at the university. The research employed a mixed-methods approach, which involved both quantitative data (questionnaires) and qualitative data (interviews and document analysis). The qualitative data was used to clarify the findings from the quantitative data. The results of this study can offer the various stakeholders insight into the varying needs of the Social Science students which may help in implementing appropriate tests and courses for their program. Based on the results of the study, it is recommended that the university consider department-specific foundation courses that address the individual needs of the departments. This research adds to the existing body of research on needs analysis by exploring the needs of students in higher education at a Caribbean university where little research has been done in these Creole-speaking contexts. The multi-dimensional view of needs in this study from the present, target and gap analysis also provides a robust approach to the analysis of needs which can be replicated in other tertiary institutions and professional organizations.

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APPENDICES

Appendix A – Research Schedule

Date	Item	Action
November 21 2017	Apply for CERUL approval	Applied for ethics approval at Laval University
December 2017	Pilot study	Administered pilot to Social Science students and one teacher
January 2018	Gain CERUL approval	Emailed administrator in Department of Language, Linguistics and Philosophy at UWI
		Applied for UWI ethics approval
April 2018	Gain UWI's ethics approval	Emailed teachers and other administrators
April to June 2018	Issue questionnaires	Issued questionnaires to SS students
	Conduct interviews	Conducted interviews with eight faculty-specific teachers (20-30 minutes)
		Conducted interviews with five language-specific teachers (20-30 minutes)
		Conducted interviews with five administrators (20-30 minutes)

		Conducted interviews with 10 students (15-20 minutes)
July to December 2018	Treatment of interviews	Did word-for-word transcription, coding and memoing
		Uploaded transcribed interviews to NVivo software
	Treatment of questionnaires	Entered questionnaire data into Microsoft Excel
May to June 2019	Analysis of questionnaire data	Ran questionnaire data using SAS version 9.4
July to December 2019	Interpretation of results and initial deposit of thesis	Wrote results and finalized thesis for deposit

Appendix B - In-program Student Questionnaire

In-Program Student Questionnaire on Language Needs

INSTRUCTIONS: Please respond to the following prompts by ticking the response that best applies to you. You are free to skip any item, if you prefer not to respond.

Section 1 - Background Information

1) Gender: Male _____ Female _____

2) Age: _____

3) In which area of Jamaica have you lived for most of your life? Rural_____ Urban_____

4) In which parish did you spend most of this time? _____

5) How many years did you spend in that parish? _____ 0-5 _____ 5-10 _____ 11-15 _____ over 20 years

6) What is the estimated annual income of your family/household? _____ under J$100,000

_____ J$100,000-$500,000 _____ J500,000 - $1,000,000 _____ more than J$1,000,000

7) Current year of study: 1st _____ 2nd _____ 3rd _____ 4th _____

8) Indicate your English language qualification for entry into the university by ticking all that apply.

CXC English A Examination Level 1 _____

GCE O Level English Language Examination Grade A _____

GCE A/O Level General Paper Examination Grades A or B _____

CAPE Communication Studies Grade I _____

Undergraduate degree from UWI or from an approved university _____

UWI Certificate in Advanced Nursing Education and Administration _____

UWI Licentiate of Theology _____

UWI Diploma in Mass Communications (MC52A) _____

UWI Mona English Language Proficiency Test _____

UWI English Language courses within the last five years _____

College of the Bahamas English 120 _____

National of non-contributing Caribbean territories _____

Other (please specify) _____

9)   Do you think that high school English courses have prepared you for your language-related courses at the university level?   Yes _____ No _____ In part _____ If in part,   to   what   extent?

_____

_____

10)   Please indicate the Department in which you are registered.

Economics _____   Government   _____ Sociology, Psychology & Social Work _____

Tourism & Hotel Management _____   School of Business & Management _____

Section 2: Language Needs at the University

11)   Rate the importance of each of the four major language skills (reading, listening, speaking and writing) for your success in your Social Science courses at the university.
        (1 – Not at all important; 2 – Not very important; 3 – Neutral; 4 - Very important;
                             5 – Extremely important)
        Reading   1   2   3   4   5
        Writing   1   2   3   4   5

Speaking   1   2   3   4   5

Listening   1   2   3   4   5

12)   Of the four major language skills (reading, listening, speaking and writing), which do you find to be the most important for your success in your Social Science courses at the university? Please number choices 1 – 4, with 1 as the most important and 4 as the least important. If you believe that two or more skills are equally as important, label them with the same number.

Reading _____ Speaking _____ Listening _____ Writing _____

13)   How would you rate your competence in the following language skills? Circle the appropriate response. If you find that another important skill has not been mentioned under any of the categories, please add this skill on the line marked 'Other' and rate your competence in it.

          1   – Non-existent, 2 – Poor, 3 – Good, 4 – Very good, 5 – Excellent

a) READING

textbooks	1	2	3	4	5
articles in journals	1	2	3	4	5
manuals	1	2	3	4	5
course handouts	1	2	3	4	5
instructions for assignments or projects	1	2	3	4	5
study notes	1	2	3	4	5

other (please specify) _____ 1   2   3   4   5

b) WRITING

short answers for assignments	1	2	3	4	5
field trip reports	1	2	3	4	5
essays	1	2	3	4	5
critical reviews	1	2	3	4	5
project reports	1	2	3	4	5
notes in lectures	1	2	3	4	5

other (please specify) _____ 1   2   3   4   5

c) SPEAKING

participating in discussions	1	2	3	4	5
asking questions in class	1	2	3	4	5
giving oral presentations	1	2	3	4	5
answering questions orally	1	2	3	4	5

other (please specify) _____ 1   2   3   4   5

d) LISTENING

to lectures	1	2	3	4	5
to presentations	1	2	3	4	5

to instructions	1	2	3	4	5
to participate in discussions	1	2	3	4	5
to ask questions in class	1	2	3	4	5
other (please specify) _____ 1		2	3	4	5

e) COMPONENTS OF COMMUNICATIVE LANGUAGE SKILLS

Perceived proficiency in using:

Academic vocabulary	1	2	3	4	5
Appropriate tense	1	2	3	4	5
Appropriate syntax (word order)	1	2	3	4	5
Appropriate sentence structure	1	2	3	4	5
Cohesion (linking devices)	1	2	3	4	5
Rhetorical organization (essay structure)	1	2	3	4	5
Appropriate pronunciation	1	2	3	4	5
Different language varieties	1	2	3	4	5
Register (formal vs. informal language)	1	2	3	4	5
Idiomatic expressions	1	2	3	4	5
Cultural expressions	1	2	3	4	5
English orthography (spelling)	1	2	3	4	5

14) Please rate the items under each skill (reading, writing, listening and speaking), in terms of their importance for your Social Science courses. Circle the appropriate number for each skill according to its importance.

1 – Not at all important; 2 – Not very important; 3 – Neutral; 4 - Very important;

5 – Extremely important

a) READING

textbooks	1	2	3	4	5
articles in journals	1	2	3	4	5

manuals	1	2	3	4	5
course handouts	1	2	3	4	5
instructions for assignments or projects	1	2	3	4	5
study notes	1	2	3	4	5
other (please specify) _____	1	2	3	4	5

b) WRITING

short answers for assignments	1	2	3	4	5
field trip reports	1	2	3	4	5
essays	1	2	3	4	5
critical reviews	1	2	3	4	5
project reports	1	2	3	4	5
notes in lectures	1	2	3	4	5
other (please specify) _____	1	2	3	4	5

c) SPEAKING

participating in discussions	1	2	3	4	5
asking questions in class	1	2	3	4	5
giving oral presentations	1	2	3	4	5
answering questions	1	2	3	4	5

other (please specify) _____ 1   2   3   4   5

d) LISTENING

to lectures	1	2	3	4	5
to presentations	1	2	3	4	5
to instructions	1	2	3	4	5
to participate in discussions	1	2	3	4	5
to ask questions in class	1	2	3	4	5

other (please specify) _____ 1   2   3   4   5

e) COMPONENTS OF COMMUNICATIVE LANGUAGE SKILLS

Expected proficiency in using:

Academic vocabulary	1	2	3	4	5
Appropriate tense	1	2	3	4	5
Appropriate syntax (word order)	1	2	3	4	5
Appropriate sentence structure	1	2	3	4	5
Cohesion (linking devices)	1	2	3	4	5
Rhetorical organization (essay structure)	1	2	3	4	5
Appropriate pronunciation	1	2	3	4	5
Different language varieties	1	2	3	4	5

		1	2	3	4	5
Register (formal vs. informal language)		1	2	3	4	5
Idiomatic expressions		1	2	3	4	5
Cultural expressions		1	2	3	4	5
English orthography (spelling)		1	2	3	4	5

Section 3: Language Use

15)   Give a percentage that describes your language use in each of these situations. For example, when talking to your children, you use English 70% of the time which would mean that you use Jamaican Creole 30% of the time.

		English %	Jamaican Creole %	Total %
E.G.	When talking to your children	70	30	100
	When talking to your classmates			100
	When talking to your teacher			100
	When doing a presentation in class			100
	At home			100
	When talking to friends on campus			100
	When talking to friends off-campus			100
	When talking to teachers on campus			100
	When shopping			100

Section 4: Language Attitudes

16)   To what extent do you agree with the following statements? Please use the following scale to indicate your answer:

1 – strongly disagree; 2 – disagree; 3 - neutral; 4 –agree; 5 - strongly agree

	Statement	1	2	3	4	5
a)	Jamaican Creole is not a language.					
b)	Jamaican Creole is bad English.					
c)	Standard English is more widely spoken in urban areas than rural areas.					
d)	Jamaican Creole is more widely spoken in rural areas than urban areas.					
e)	Speaking Jamaican Creole is effeminate.					
f)	Standard English is more appropriate for use in university classrooms than Jamaican Creole.					
g)	Being able to communicate in English is important for my academic success.					
h)	Being able to communicate in Jamaican Creole is not important for my academic success.					
i)	Learning English is necessary in order to have better opportunities in the future.					
j)	Knowing Jamaican Creole is necessary for a better future.					
k)	Learning English is necessary to satisfy my course requirements.					
l)	Knowing English is necessary to function in everyday society.					
m)	Knowing Jamaican Creole is necessary to function in everyday society.					

Appendix C – FOUN1019 Student Questionnaire

Incoming Student Questionnaire on Language Needs

Section 1 - Background Information

INSTRUCTIONS: Please respond to the following prompts by ticking the response that best applies to you. You are free to skip any item, if you prefer not to respond.

2)   Gender: Male _____ Female _____

3)   Age: _____

4)   In which area of Jamaica did you spend most of your life? Rural _____   Urban - _____

5)   In which parish did you spend most of your life? _____

6)   How many years did you spend in that parish? _____ 0-5 _____ 5-10 _____

        11-15 _____   over 20 years

7)   What is the estimated annual income of your family/household? _____ under J$100,000

        _____ J$100,000-$500,000 _____ J500,000 - $1,000,000 _____ more than J$1,000,000

8)   Do you think that high school English courses have prepared you for your language-related courses at the university level?   Yes _____ No _____ In part _____ If in part,   to   what   extent?

_____

_____

9)   Please indicate the Department in which you are registered.

Economics   _____ Government _____   Sociology, Psychology & Social Work _____

Tourism & Hotel Management _____ School of Business & Management _____

Section 2: Language Needs at the University

10)   Rate the importance of each of the four major language skills (reading, listening, speaking and writing) for your success in your Social Science courses at the university.

(1 – Not at all important; 2 – Not very important; 3 – Neutral; 4 - Very important; 5 –

Extremely important)

Reading	1	2	3	4	5
Listening	1	2	3	4	5
Speaking	1	2	3	4	5
Writing	1	2	3	4	5

11)   Of the four major language skills (reading, listening, speaking and writing), which do you find to be the most important for your success in your Social Science courses at the university? Please number choices 1 – 4, with 1 as the most important and 4 as the least important. If you believe that two or more skills are equally as important, label them with the same number.

Reading _____ Speaking _____ Listening _____ Writing _____

12)   How would you rate your competence in the following English language skills? Circle the appropriate response. If you find that another important skill has not been mentioned under any of the categories, please add this skill on the line marked 'Other' and rate your competence in it.

1 – Non-existent, 2 – Poor, 3 – Good, 4 – Very good, 5 – Excellent

a) READING

textbooks	1	2	3	4	5
articles in journals	1	2	3	4	5
manuals	1	2	3	4	5

course handouts	1	2	3	4	5
instructions for assignments or projects	1	2	3	4	5
study notes	1	2	3	4	5
other (please specify) _____	1	2	3	4	5

b) WRITING

short answers for assignments	1	2	3	4	5
field trip reports	1	2	3	4	5
essays	1	2	3	4	5
critical reviews	1	2	3	4	5
project reports	1	2	3	4	5
notes in lectures	1	2	3	4	5
other (please specify) _____	1	2	3	4	5

c) SPEAKING

participating in discussions	1	2	3	4	5
asking questions in class	1	2	3	4	5
giving oral presentations	1	2	3	4	5
answering questions orally	1	2	3	4	5
other (please specify) _____	1	2	3	4	5

d) LISTENING

to lectures   1   2   3   4   5

to presentations   1   2   3   4   5

to instructions   1   2   3   4   5

to participate in discussions   1   2   3   4   5

to ask questions in class   1   2   3   4   5

other (please specify) _____ 1   2   3   4   5

e) COMPONENTS OF COMMUNICATIVE LANGUAGE SKILLS

Perceived proficiency in using:

Academic vocabulary   1   2   3   4   5

Appropriate tense   1   2   3   4   5

Appropriate syntax (word order)   1   2   3   4   5

Appropriate sentence structure   1   2   3   4   5

Cohesion (linking devices)   1   2   3   4   5

Rhetorical organization (essay structure) 1   2   3   4   5

Appropriate pronunciation   1   2   3   4   5

Different language varieties   1   2   3   4   5

Register (formal vs. informal language) 1   2   3   4   5

Idiomatic expressions   1   2   3   4   5

Cultural expressions	1	2	3	4	5
Orthography (spelling)	1	2	3	4	5

13) Please rate the items under each skill (reading, writing, listening and speaking), in terms of their importance for your Social Science courses. Circle the appropriate number for each skill according to its importance.

1 – Not at all important; 2 – Not very important; 3 – Neutral; 4 - Very important;

5 – Extremely important

a) READING

textbooks	1	2	3	4	5
articles in journals	1	2	3	4	5
manuals	1	2	3	4	5
course handouts	1	2	3	4	5
instructions for assignments or projects	1	2	3	4	5
study notes	1	2	3	4	5
other (please specify) _____	1	2	3	4	5

b) WRITING

short answers for assignments	1	2	3	4	5
field trip reports	1	2	3	4	5
essays	1	2	3	4	5

critical reviews	1	2	3	4	5
project reports	1	2	3	4	5
notes in lectures	1	2	3	4	5
other (please specify) _____ 1		2	3	4	5

c) SPEAKING

participating in discussions	1	2	3	4	5
asking questions in class	1	2	3	4	5
giving oral presentations	1	2	3	4	5
answering questions	1	2	3	4	5
other (please specify) _____ 1		2	3	4	5

d) LISTENING

to lectures	1	2	3	4	5
to presentations	1	2	3	4	5
to instructions	1	2	3	4	5
to participate in discussions	1	2	3	4	5
to ask questions in class	1	2	3	4	5
other (please specify) _____ 1		2	3	4	5

e) COMPONENTS OF COMMUNICATIVE LANGUAGE SKILLS

Proficiency in using:

Academic vocabulary   1   2   3   4   5

Appropriate tense   1   2   3   4   5

Appropriate syntax (word order)   1   2   3   4   5

Appropriate sentence structure   1   2   3   4   5

Cohesion (linking devices)   1   2   3   4   5

Rhetorical organization (essay structure)   1   2   3   4   5

Appropriate pronunciation   1   2   3   4   5

Different language varieties   1   2   3   4   5

Register (formal vs. informal language)   1   2   3   4   5

Idiomatic expressions   1   2   3   4   5

Cultural expressions   1   2   3   4   5

Orthography (spelling)   1   2   3   4   5

Section 3: Language Use

14)   Give a percentage that describes your language use in each of these situations. For example, when talking to your children, you use English 70% of the time which would mean that you use Jamaican Creole 30% of the university classroom time.

		English %	JC (Jamaican Creole) %	Total %

E.G.	When talking to your children	70	30	100
	When talking to your classmates			100
	When talking to your teacher			100
	When doing a presentation in class			100
	At home			100
	When talking to friends on campus			100
	When talking to friends off-campus			100
	When talking to teachers on campus			100
	When shopping			100

Section 4: Language Attitudes

15)   To what extent do you agree with the following statements? Please use the following scale to indicate your answer:

1 – strongly disagree; 2 – disagree; 3 - neutral; 4 –agree; 5 - strongly agree

	Statement	1	2	3	4	5
a)	Jamaican Creole is not a language.					
b)	Jamaican Creole is bad English.					
c)	Standard English is more widely spoken in urban areas than rural areas.					
d)	Jamaican Creole is more widely spoken in rural areas than urban areas.					
e)	Speaking Jamaican Creole is effeminate.					
f)	Standard English is more appropriate for use in university classrooms than Jamaican Creole.					

g)	Being able to communicate in English is important for my academic success.					
h)	Being able to communicate in Jamaican Creole is not important for my academic success.					
i)	Learning English is necessary in order to have better opportunities in the future.					
j)	Knowing Jamaican Creole is necessary for a better future.					
k)	Learning English is necessary to satisfy my course requirements.					
l)	Knowing English is necessary to function in everyday society.					
m)	Knowing Jamaican Creole is necessary to function in everyday society.					

Appendix D – Questionnaire for Teachers

Teacher Questionnaire on Students' Language Needs

INSTRUCTIONS: Please respond to the following prompts by ticking the response that best applies to you. You are free to skip any item, if you prefer not to respond.

Section 1 - Background Information

1)   Gender: Male _____   Female _____

2)   Age: _____

3)   In which area of Jamaica have you lived for most of your life? Rural_____
        Urban_____

4)   In which parish did you spend most of this time? _____

5)   How many years did you spend in that parish? _____ 0-5 _____ 5-10 _____
        11-16 ____   over 20 years

6)   What is the estimated annual income of your family/household? _____ under
J$100,000

        _____ J$100,000-$500,000 _____ J500,000 - $1,000,000 ____ more than
J$1,000,000

7)   Please indicate the department in which you work.

Economics _____   Government _____ Sociology, Psychology & Social Work _____

Tourism & Hotel Management _____   School of Business & Management _____

Section 2: Language Needs at the University

8)   Rate the importance of each of the four major language skills (reading, listening, speaking and writing) for the students' success in their Social Science courses at the university.

        (1 – Not at all important; 2 – Not very important; 3 – Neutral; 4 - Very important;
                        5 – Extremely important)

Reading	1	2	3	4	5
Writing	1	2	3	4	5
Speaking	1	2	3	4	5
Listening	1	2	3	4	5

9)   Of the four major language skills (reading, listening, speaking and writing), which do you find to be the most important for their success in your Social Science courses at the university? Please number choices 1 – 4, with 1 as the most important and 4 as the least important. If you believe that two or more skills are equally as important, label them with the same number.

Reading _____ Speaking _____ Listening _____ Writing _____

10)   Please rate the items under each skill, in terms of their importance for the Social Science students' courses. Circle the appropriate number for each skill according to its importance.

  1 – Not at all important; 2 – Not very important; 3 – Neutral; 4 - Very important;

                        5   – Extremely important
  a) READING
  textbooks   1   2   3   4   5

  articles in journals   1   2   3   4   5

  manuals   1   2   3   4   5

  course handouts   1   2   3   4   5

  instructions for assignments or projects   1   2   3   4   5

  study notes   1   2   3   4   5

other (please specify) _____ 1   2   3   4   5

b) WRITING

short answers for assignments	1	2	3	4	5
field trip reports	1	2	3	4	5
essays	1	2	3	4	5
critical reviews	1	2	3	4	5
project reports	1	2	3	4	5
notes in lectures	1	2	3	4	5
other (please specify) _____	1	2	3	4	5

c) SPEAKING

participating in discussions	1	2	3	4	5
asking questions in class	1	2	3	4	5
giving oral presentations	1	2	3	4	5
answering questions	1	2	3	4	5
other (please specify) _____	1	2	3	4	5

d) LISTENING

to lectures	1	2	3	4	5

to presentations	1	2	3	4	5
to instructions	1	2	3	4	5
to participate in discussions	1	2	3	4	5
to ask questions in class	1	2	3	4	5
other (please specify) _____ 1		2	3	4	5

e) COMPONENTS OF COMMUNICATIVE LANGUAGE SKILLS

Proficiency in using:

Academic vocabulary	1	2	3	4	5
Appropriate tense	1	2	3	4	5
Appropriate (syntax) word order	1	2	3	4	5
Appropriate sentence structure	1	2	3	4	5
Cohesion (linking devices)	1	2	3	4	5
Rhetorical organization (essay structure)	1	2	3	4	5
Appropriate pronunciation	1	2	3	4	5
Different language varieties	1	2	3	4	5
Register (formal vs. informal language)	1	2	3	4	5
Idiomatic expressions	1	2	3	4	5
Cultural expressions in Jamaica	1	2	3	4	5
English orthography (spelling)	1	2	3	4	5

Section 3: Language Use

11)	Give a percentage that describes your language use in each of these situations. For example, when talking to your children, you use English 70% of the time which would mean that you use Jamaican Creole 30% of the time.

		English %	JC (Jamaican Creole) %	Total %
E.G.	When talking to your children	70	30	100
	When talking to your students			100
	When talking to your colleagues			100
	When teaching your class			100
	At home			100
	When talking to friends on campus			100
	When talking to friends off-campus			100
	When talking to other teachers on campus			100
	When shopping			100

Section 4: Language Attitudes

12)	To what extent do you agree with the following statements? Please use the following scale to indicate your answer:

	1 – strongly disagree; 2 – disagree; 3 - neutral; 4 –agree; 5 - strongly agree

	Statement	1	2	3	4	5
a)	Jamaican Creole is not a language.					
b)	Jamaican Creole is bad English.					

c)	Standard English is more widely spoken in urban areas than rural areas.					
d)	Jamaican Creole is more widely spoken in rural areas than urban areas.					
e)	Speaking Jamaican Creole is effeminate.					
f)	Standard English is more appropriate for use in university classrooms than Jamaican Creole.					
g)	Being able to communicate in English is important for students' academic success.					
h)	Being able to communicate in Jamaican Creole is not important for students' academic success.					
i)	Learning English is necessary in order to have better opportunities in the future.					
j)	Knowing Jamaican Creole is necessary for a better future.					
k)	Learning English is necessary to satisfy the students' course requirements.					
l)	Knowing English is necessary to function in everyday society.					
m)	Knowing Jamaican Creole is necessary to function in everyday society.					

Appendix E – Interview Questions for Language and Faculty-specific Teachers

1)   How long have you been working at the university? Has it always been in this department?

2)   What brought you into the field of education?

3)   On the questionnaire, you noted that (insert skill here) is most important to the students' success. Can you tell me why you perceive this skill to be most important? *(Note to researcher: Skills will be selected from list in the teacher questionnaire above; The researcher will use it as a guide to solicit responses)*

4)   What are some of the linguistic strengths and weaknesses of Social Sciences students?

5)   What are some of the major challenges in teaching Social Science students?

6)   Currently three credits are allocated to language-related courses, do you think that that adequately prepares them for the demands of the program? Why or why not?

7)   Are you aware of what is tested in the ELPT?

8)   Do you believe that the ELPT serves as an accurate measurement of the types of tasks that the students will be required to do once they enter university?

9)   Does the ELPT serve as appropriate screening of the proficiency of the students who should be permitted in the programme?

10)   Is passing the ELPT equivalent to CXC or CAPE examinations which would exempt students from taking FOUN1019?

11)   You mentioned on the questionnaire that you use *insert language here* for the majority of your class time. Are there instances when you have to use *insert language here*? Why?

12)   What language do the students use in the classroom…when speaking to peers, when speaking to teacher?

13)   A language attitude survey carried out in 2001 reported the views of many Jamaicans on the Patwa situation. Results showed that 79.5% of respondents believed Jamaican Creole (Jamaican Creole) is a language. What do you think about this result; do you find it surprising? Why or why not?

14)   Additionally, the study reported that 57.8% of participants thought that English speakers were more intelligent? What do you think about this view?

15) In addition, the study reported that 61.7% of participants thought that English speakers were more educated? What do you think about this view?

Appendix F - Interview Questions for Administrators

1)   How long have you been working at the university? Has it always been in this department?

2)   What brought you into the field of education?

3)   The university requires that students without the English requirements take an English Language Proficiency Test. Are you aware of what is tested in the ELPT?

4)   Do you believe that the ELPT serves as an accurate measurement of the types of tasks that the students will be required to do once they enter university? Why or why not?

5)   In your opinion, does the ELPT serve as appropriate screening of the proficiency of the students who should be permitted in the programme? Why or why not?

6)   In your opinion, is passing the ELPT equivalent to CXC or CAPE examinations which would exempt students from taking FOUN1019?

7)   What do you perceive to be the most pertinent language skills needed by the students in the Social Sciences program? *(Note to researcher: Skills will be selected from list in the student questionnaire above; The researcher will use it as a guide to solicit responses)*

8)   What are some of the linguistic strengths and weaknesses of Social Sciences students?

9)   Currently three credits are allocated to language-related courses, do you think that that adequately prepares them for the demands of the program? Why or why not?

10)   A language attitude survey carried out in 2001 reported the views of many Jamaicans on the Patwa situation. Results showed that 79.5% of respondents believed Jamaican Creole (Jamaican Creole) is a language. What do you think about this result; do you find it surprising? Why or why not?

11)   Additionally, the study reported that 57.8% of participants thought that English speakers were more intelligent? What do you think about this view?

12)   In addition, the study reported that 61.7% of participants thought that English speakers were more educated? What do you think about this view?

Appendix G – Interview Questions for In-program Students

1) Tell me a little bit about yourself. Where did you grow up?

2) What is your program of study in the Social Sciences?

3)   Why did you decide to go into the Social Sciences?

4)   Of the four major English skills (reading, listening, speaking and writing), which do you find to be the most important for your success in your Social Science courses at the university? Why is that?

5)   What language(s) do you use in the classroom…when speaking to peers, when speaking to teacher, when doing a presentation?

6)   What language do you use outside of the classroom…when speaking to peers, when speaking to teacher, when speaking to family?

7)   A language attitude survey carried out in 2001 reported the views of many Jamaicans on the Patwa situation, do you believe that Jamaican Creole (Jamaican Creole) is a language?

8)   A language attitude survey carried out in 2001 reported the views of many Jamaicans on the Patwa situation. Results showed that 79.5% of respondents believed Jamaican Creole (Jamaican Creole) is a language. What do you think about this result; do you find it surprising? Why or why not?

9)   Additionally, the study reported that 57.8% of participants thought that English speakers were more intelligent? What do you think about this view?

10)   In addition, the study reported that 61.7% of participants thought that English speakers were more educated? What do you think about this view?

Appendix H – Coding of data

CODING OF DATA	
Q1	
M	MALE
F	FEMALE
Q3	
R	RURAL
U	URBAN
Q4	
KIN	KINGSTON
AND	ST. ANDREW
MAR	ST. MARY
THO	ST. THOMAS
POR	PORTLAND
MAN	MANCHESTER
WES	WESTMORELAND
CLA	CLARENDON
ELIZ	ST. ELIZABETH
CAT	ST. CATHERINE
HAN	HANOVER
JAM	ST. JAMES
ANN	ST. ANN
TRE	TRELAWNY
Q5	
5	0-5 YEARS
10	5-10 YEARS
15	10-15 YEARS
20	16-20 YEARS
>20	OVER 20
Q6	
1	< 100,000
2	100,000-500,000
3	500,000-1,000,000
4	> 1,000,000
NR	NO RESPONSE

Q7	CLEAR
Q8	
CXC	
GCE-E	
GCE-GP	
CAPE	
DEG	
NURS	
THEO	
MASS	
ELPT	
LANG	
COLL	
NAT	
OTHER	
Q9	
Y	YES
N	NO
IP	IN PART
GRAM	GRAMMAR, VOCABULARY, SYNTAX
NOCRIT	NO CRITICAL THINKING SKILLS TAUGHT
EXP	EXPRESSION, DICTION & FORMULATION OF IDEAS
ESSAY	BASIC ESSAY WRITING SKILLS
LIM	LIMITED
BASIC	BASIC SKILLS
COMPR	COMPREHENSION
WRONG	LEARN & UNLEARN
VOCAB	VOCABULARY
CRIT	CRITICAL
Q10	
ECON	
GOV	
PSYCH	
TOUR	
BUS	

Appendix I – Coding Manual

Predetermined Codes	Rule for inclusion	Example
Attitudes toward FOUN courses	Comments reflecting the participants' attitudes toward the foundation courses.	This critical reading and writing course, I don't see the need of it in my career choice because I'm not thinking of writing books or doing written reports or anything like that cause I'm not a journalism major. So this is my second time doing it so- well what I do know because basically they just give me tests over Soc Sci and I just swat to pass and I pass so I don't know what I'm going to do in the future when I'm through in the working world.
Attitudes toward JC	Comments reflecting the participants' attitude toward the use of Jamaican Creole.	Creole is not an international language. They cannot communicate and write an essay in Creole. So therefore, the standard should be set.
Attitudes toward English	Comments reflecting the participants' attitudes toward the English language.	The fact that we're using it for a country, which should have English as a native tongue, do tell. That that to me is a true story. Nobody do not dare give me a test of English proficiency.
Gap Analysis	Discussion surrounding whether the teachers and administrators perceived that there was a gap	I'm not sure whether it is- It is a gap, a big one. I dunno if it's huge gap and a lot of

	between what students know and what they ought to know.	it is it has to do with our psyche and as Jamaicans and how we feel about this thing that is our own and it's Jamaican creole. I think that we need to explain to students that when you have Jamaican creole and you have standard English it- it's- you're winning, but where you have Jamaican Creole alone, you are putting yourself at a disadvantage, especially if you are not able to write it because some people can't speak it, but they can write it. You know so I say you need to get some proficiency somewhere, whether you write it, or you speak it. So, the gap is there. I think the gap is in the grammar and in the understanding of certain things. Mmm. So, there's a gap.
Most important language skill	Discussion relating to how the four language skills (reading, writing, listening and speaking) were ranked according to importance.	It really is more that all four of those elements are, are important. But if you're, if one is forced to rank them, then the others are more important. I mean listening and reading is, is how you get new information and if you're an academic, if you're a scientist, if you're an intellectual, the most important thing is to constantly have the input of new information so you can reorganize your thinking

		appropriately. And from that comes a fresher. And a more constructive understanding that gives a material to speak about and to write.
Student's language abilities	Discussion surrounding the students' competence in the English language.	Um, and so you can get through the educational system and still not be a fluent English speaker or writer, especially depending on your area of specialization.
ELPT	Discussion surrounding the entrance test given to non-matriculating students at the beginning of their university tenure.	I mean, the thing about it is, I am not so sure exactly the English language test functions as a diagnostic test, as a placement test, as a proficiency test, because I mean it dances around all of those labels.
Language Use	Discussion regarding the students' and participants' use of English and JC.	We're not getting students who are comfortable in English. We're getting students who are treating English almost as a foreign language. They can't express their ideas well in English, sometimes you see them getting frustrated and lapsing into Patois.
English speaker – More educated	Comments related to whether the participant agreed with results of the JLU survey that those who spoke English rather than JC were more educated.	Well, um, it, it, no, no, it wouldn't have to be. In the olden days it was a norm to speak it. So it, it, it was transferred naturally

		because that was the standard. And you didn't hear any other type of variety or language spoken in the media, you know, even, on the streets, in your home. It was normally that - or even if you had Creole speakers in the room, it was, they wanted their children to speak standard English. Okay. So, they sent them to school and the people there in the schools, at that time were very proper. You understand? So that is the perception then, that, um, you know, they equate English with education.
English speaker – More intelligent	Comments related to whether the participant agreed with results of the JLU survey that those who spoke English rather than JC were more intelligent.	-Well, they sound more intelligent. And you can't really judge a person because normally based on the audience you're talking to, you just going to use Creole if is that they using and stuff. You not gonna just say- speak standard English to somebody from- who is like on the streets and something like that.
High school preparation for university	Discussion about whether what was taught in high school prepared them for the university curriculum.	Well, in Soc Sci- I was gonna say I doing Accounts, but when I was doing Accounts in high school. Nothing that they taught me in high school was of any help here. Because it's totally

		different. Only thing that it prepared me was to get accepted by having the subject.
Challenges in teaching	Discussion about the challenges in teaching SS students from SS and LANG lecturers.	First of all, you have a challenge in terms of how you speak to them. You have to speak to them in a way, you have to make sure that you're as clear as possible. Your language is simple, that you express yourself in multiple ways, that you have the ability to what you call it, switching codes. We have the ability to switch code, where necessary sometimes to make them comfortable, but sometimes just to make yourself understood. So, when it comes to the writing that's another thing, I mean you have challenges getting them to read anything or understand anything. You have to write your examination questions as clear as possible. You can't come with any complicated jargon. You know you have to vet your examination questions for absolute clarity so that a student who understand the subject matter can pass and don't have to struggle with the English
Emerging Codes		

Focus on language when grading	Discussion concerning whether language is taken into consideration when students are being graded in their content courses.	For me, I think they're more concerned with content. Kind of hard to tell since we really don't get to see back our when we do a test to see back our paper to see the corrections, I believe that is more content than language skills.
Reason for choice of study	Discussion of the reason students chose Social Sciences as opposed to other faculties which sometimes point to weak linguistic skills.	Soc Sci. Um, it was a more- what would you say now? More manageable because one, I'm not a science person, per se. And um, I've always shied away from the linguistic side of the world so- I'd say I honed my craft in Soc Sci.
Other factors affecting language needs	Discussion of other pertinent information which may be relevant to the determination of the students' needs e.g. political situation, language policy.	Latest challenge recently I think is that, and this is just my perception that the university has to make money, so we're widening our net of the students that we take in. That's the only way I can say it, so there are increasing challenges with the capacity of the students that were taking in, especially for my area, which is international relations where not only should you be competent in the use of English, but at least one other language. So yeah. Those are some of the challenges.