

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

Chapter Two states a review of related literature regarding needs analysis and syllabus design in the area of English for Specific Purposes (ESP). The review provides a basis of conducting the study, analyzing, and discussing the results. This review is divided into four parts as follows:

2.1 Needs Analysis

2.2 English for Specific Purposes (ESP)

2.3 Syllabus Design for ESP

2.4 Related Researches

2.1 Needs Analysis

Needs analysis procedures made their appearance in language planning during the 1970s (Nunan, 1988). Since then until the early 1980s, there was a period of consolidation of needs analysis in ESP (Dudley-Evans and St John, 1998).

Needs analysis is considered as a starting point for devising courses, syllabuses, materials and the kind of teaching and learning that takes place (Jordan, 1997). Dudley-Evans and St John (1998) pointed out that needs analysis is a key stage in ESP course design. It is constructed in order to understand as much as possible about the learners' target language needs. It can help the course designer to design an English language course which meets the needs of learners.

In order to understand the importance of needs more clearly, Hutchinson and Waters (1987) remarked that the awareness of needs plays an important role for distinguishing the ESP course from the general English course rather than the nature of a need. On the other hand, needs analysis is an instrument that leads course designers or planners from general English course to a focused course.

2.1.1 Definition of Needs Analysis

Needs analysis is a key stage for designing English courses. It is a valuable tool to identify what the learners need to learn and what their target needs are, in order to design an effective course.

Nunan (1999) defined needs analysis as sets of tool, techniques, and procedures for determining the language content and learning process for specifying groups of learners.

Richards, et. al. (1992) cited in Jordan (1997) suggested that it is the process of determining the needs for which a learner or group of learners requires a language and arranging the needs according to priorities.

Munby (1978) defined needs analysis as the analysis of learners' objective needs.

Dudley-Evans and St John (1998) claimed that needs analysis is the process of establishing the what and how of a course. They also suggested the concept of needs analysis as a tool used for identifying learners as people, as language users and as language learners. It is also used for identifying how language learning and skill learning can be maximized for a given learner group. In addition, it is used to identify the target situations and learning environment.

Needs analysis is an initial step for designing course and syllabus. It is an instrument or a set of instrument used for identifying the language needs of a target group of learners, the language contents and learning styles of that group of learners.

2.1.2 Types of Needs

There are several linguists who mentioned about types of needs. Munby (1978) and Nunan (1999) divided types of needs into objective and subjective needs. Hutchinson and Waters (1987) mentioned about target needs and learning needs.

Objective needs derive from outside factors. For example, "to be able to follow instructions accurately" is an objective needs, while subjective needs derive from affective factors or insiders, for example, "to feel confident". Objective needs can also be analyzed according to learners' personal background, their language ability and language patterns they use, by teachers. This type of needs also includes learners' language proficiency. Subjective needs are hard to analyze. Learners or the subjects themselves usually express them.

Target needs derive from the goal or the target situation. Hutchinson and Waters (1987) have mentioned the three areas that should be considered in target needs. They are necessities, lacks and wants.

- Necessities is what the learner has to know as to perform effectively in the goal or the target situation. This means that students need to know the language needed for functioning the goal. Moreover, teachers or course designers can express necessities, as they know what is necessary for the learners.
- Lacks is the gap between the existing proficiency and the target proficiency of learners. To decide which necessity the student lacks, teachers need to know the existing knowledge the student has. For example, the target situation may be to read texts in tourism. Whether or not the students need reading instruction in reading those texts will depend on how well they can do it.

- Wants are what the learners want or feel they need. Wants refer to the learners' interests and show great affection for learners' motivation as the more they can express their wants the more they have high motivation.

Learning needs derive from the learning situation. It concerns with how learners learn the language. For example, learning styles, attitude toward the language to be taught, preferences in learning environment, their interests, etc. are included in this kind of needs.

2.1.3 The Roles of Needs Analysis

Needs analysis pays important roles for language teaching and language learning. There are several roles that needs analysis takes place. Firstly, needs analysis is a factor affecting course design (Hutchinson and Waters, 1987), as shown in Figure 2.1.

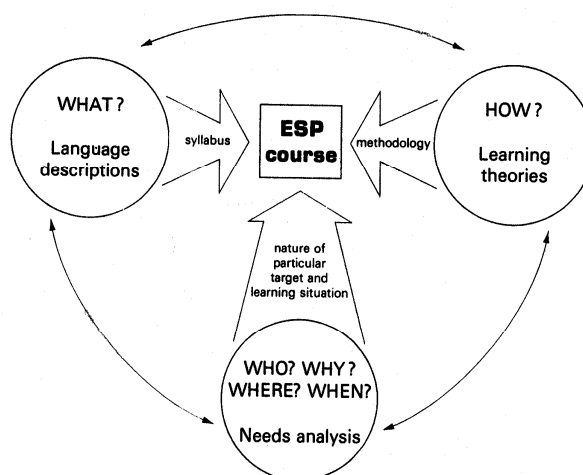


Figure 2.1: Factors Affecting ESP Course Design (Hutchinson and Waters, 1987)

Needs analysis is an initial step for designing a language course. It tells the course designers the important information for designing a language program, for examples, Who the learners are? What the student needs to learn? Where the learning takes place? and When the learning takes place?

Secondly, needs analysis serves the information for developing goals, objectives and contents of the language course. On the other hand, it pays an important role in the development of a course (Richards, 1984 cited in Nunan, 1988, and Graves, 2000). Developing a course by means of needs analysis is to make the course which meets the learners' needs as much as the course designer can do.

Finally, needs analysis also affects syllabus design (Munby cited in Robinson, 1980). In this case, the study of needs analysis helps the course designers to design an effective syllabus. The information about students' needs serves the syllabus designer the language forms and functions which are important parts of information in the syllabus contents.

In conclusion, needs analysis is a starting point of designing a language program. It gives a lot of information to be considered when designing course and is also a basis of a syllabus and material designs which are suitable for the learners. Moreover, it also helps the course designer to evaluate and develop the existing language programs.

2.1.4 Approaches to Needs Analysis

Munby (1978) mentioned that there are four approaches to needs analysis – Target situation analysis, Present situation analysis or Deficiency analysis, Strategy analysis and Means analysis. Moreover, there is another approach suggested by Robinson (1991) and Jordan (1997). It is the Language audits.

Target situation analysis (TSA) is a needs analysis which focuses on the learners' needs at the end of attending the language course. In other words, its purpose is to take the existing knowledge and set it in a more scientific basis by setting processes for relating language analysis more closely to learners' reasons for learning (Hutchinson and Waters, 1987). Target situation is the situation in which the learners will use the language they are learning. Sometimes, level of language competence and performance the target group need is quite low, TSA may pinpoint the level at which good enough competence and performance for the target job or further study.

Present-situation analysis (PSA) is provided by Richterich and Chancerel (1977) cited in Jordan (1997). PSA is an analysis of the current abilities – levels of ability, resources, the attitude towards language teaching and learning, surrounding society and culture – at the beginning of the language course of the learners, the language – teaching setting, and the user - institution. In addition, Robinson (1991) and Dudley-Evans (2001) suggested that PSA also seeks for the language strengths and weaknesses of the learners.

Strategy analysis is proposed by Munby (1978). The aim of the approach is to analyze current awareness of the processes of language study, the used learning strategies, and the expectations from language study of the learners. The approach provides information about, for example, learning preferences such as in group size, correction procedures (strategies), method of assessment, etc. The approach relates the teacher and learners to exchange their ideas on what language learning means to them and how they feel what should be best for them. According to

the results of the analysis, teachers may feel that preferences of learning strategies or styles may be inappropriate for language teaching. For this reason, the teacher should consider cultural differences, academic cultural conventions, and differences in learning strategies and method of teaching as these factors usually affect the different results of strategy analysis.

Means analysis is the analysis of learning situation within the teaching institution or company (Dudley-Evans, 2001). On the other hand, it is the study of the environment in which the target language is taught. Means analysis provides the information about the contextual factors (environment) and tries to cooperate them in a constructive manner into course design. Munby (1978) has divided those factors into five variables. Firstly, sociopolitical variables are for example the attitude of the government or the status of the target language. Secondly, logistical variables include the number of trained teachers, accommodations and material available, etc. Thirdly, administrative variables include mode of instruction, timetabling, etc. Psychopedagogic variables such as learner's motivation and expectations, traditional learning styles, etc. are included in the results of the analysis. Finally, methodological variables also affect the effectiveness of the language course.

Language audits is a combination of target situation analysis (TSA) and present situation analysis (PSA), proposed by Robinson (1991). It is used in language training for business and commercial or industrial enterprise. There are three stages of language audits. First of all, the analyst must find out what tasks or activities people perform in their jobs, for example, making appointment, taking a message, making presentation etc. Then, this stage also includes the analyst's decision on what level of language performance the tasks or activities require. Next, PSA takes place. This stage will show the information about the present personnel match up to their job requirement. Finally, the analyst has to determine how much language training is needed in order to relate the employees' present ability to the company's expectation.

This study was focused on the analysis of needs for English, English skills, functions, and topics used for Rural Tourism and Homestay. Therefore, the main approach developed for this study was the target situation analysis (TSA) because this study was restricted to analyze the English needs of the local guides in their target situations.

2.1.5 Methods of Collecting Data for Needs Analysis

There is one important aspect that should be considered before discussing about the methods of collecting data for the analysis. The aspect is about the information that should be collected for needs analysis. According to Hutchinson and Waters (1987), they mentioned the

information about target needs and learning needs. In their TSA framework, the information that should be gathered is about the language used in the target situation and attitudes towards that situation. The Wh-questions are used to investigate the information. In addition, in their framework for learning needs analysis, the information to be sought is about learner's background, available resources for language learning, and where and when the course will take place.

Robinson (1991) claimed that the type of information sought is usually closely related to learning and teaching approach, to syllabus design and to the analysts. Moreover, she also proposed that the information sought also relates to the approach used for needs analysis. For example, if the present – situation analysis is used, the information about the current abilities such as levels of ability, resources, attitude towards language teaching and learning, surrounding society and culture at the beginning of the language course of the learners, the language – teaching setting, the user – institution, etc. will be investigated.

Yalden (1988) proposed that the information required before a particular course is set up could be divided into three categories. The first category is the information about general background of the learners such as educational background, previous language learning experience, and current proficiency in the target language. The second set of information is about language needs which are concerned with information on situation of use and a breakdown of topics and language skills most needed. The last category includes learning styles and preferences. Nunan (1999) also supported this idea as the information for needs analysis can relate to both content and process. The content relates to the language needs while the process relates to learning styles and preferences.

Graves (2000) suggested two types of information that should be gathered for needs analysis. The first one is information about the present which includes who the learners are, their level of language competence and performance, interests, learning preferences and attitudes. The second one is the information about the future which includes learner's goals and expectations, target contexts, types of communicative skills they will need and will perform, and language modality they will use.

In conclusion, the information that should be gathered for this study can be separated into three parts. Firstly, the information is about the learners' background which includes personal background and background knowledge about the target language. Secondly, the information is about the use of the target language related to their goals or objectives in attending the language course. Finally, the information is about the learners' preference to the language course such as surroundings, time duration, language instructors, etc.

There are several methods of collecting data for needs analysis. Munby (1978) and Robinson (1991) suggested six methods used for collecting data. Those methods are using questionnaires, interviews, observation, case studies, tests, and authentic data collection. Dudley-Evans and St John (1998) and Yalden (1987) mentioned discussions and negotiation as some other techniques for data collection. Jordan (1997) concluded that there are fourteen methods as shown in Figure 2.2.



Figure 2.2: Methods of Collecting Data for Needs Analyses (Jordan, 1997)

Method of collecting data discussed in this study is the one that benefits in gathering the data for the study. Questionnaire was used as the research instrument. It was used for collecting data from the local guides and the policy makers.

Questionnaire is a written form used for collecting data, which include questions or statements to which the subject is expected to respond (Seliger and Shohamy 2000). In constructing a questionnaire, all questions need to be clear and ensure that those questions will lead to the information being sought. The language used in written the questionnaire should be at the level that the subject can understand. The analysts have to pilot the questionnaire by trial it with a small group of people who have the same characteristics as the subjects or asking the specialists in order to check its validity and reliability before using it.

Burns (1999) suggested that there are three types of response items used in a questionnaire: closed items, scale items and open-ended items. Closed items are those where the respondents are asked to select from fixed alternatives such as yes/no, agree/disagree responses.

In some case, other alternatives such as don't know or undecided is used. Scale items include ranked items or checklist, are alternative responses place on a cline representing degree of agreement or disagreement. The open-ended items can be utilized in questionnaires. They are used for investigating the respondent's own perception, beliefs, or opinions and to provide opportunities for the respondents to express more detail beyond the alternative responses.

Seliger and Shohamy (2000) also claimed that there are four advantages of questionnaires. Firstly, they are self-administered and can be used with a large amount of subjects at the same time. Secondly, the respondents tend to share information of a sensitive nature because their names are not included in completing questionnaire. Thirdly, the obtained data is uniform and standard as the same questionnaire is given to all subjects. The last one is the obtained data are accurate as a result of the questionnaire is also given to the subjects at the same time.

Nevertheless, there are some problems with questionnaires. First of all, some respondents do not answer all questions. This may have some influences the validity of findings. Indeed, questionnaires are not suitable for the subject who cannot read and write. Questions used in a questionnaire may not be properly understood by the subjects and answered correctly is also one of the disadvantages of the questionnaires.

2.2 English for Specific Purposes (ESP)

Since the end of the Second World War in 1945, it can be said that English for specific purposes have occurred as a result of the expansion in scientific, technical and economic activities in an international world (Hutchinson and Waters, 1987). Those expansions encouraged people to learn foreign languages especially English which was the key for international communication in order to communicate in their business. Basically, language learning derives from the needs of communication. Then, the needs of communication in a specific area occur. Therefore, English for specific purposes have been developed.

Some linguists mention ESP as English for Special Purposes, while the others mention it as English for Specific Purposes. Robinson (1980) pointed out the difference of them as English for special purposes is thought to suggest special languages or restricted languages, whereas English for specific purposes focuses attention on the purpose of the learner and refers to the whole range of language resources. However, ESP can stand for both English for Special Purposes and English for Specific Purposes.

2.2.1 Definition of ESP

Many linguists have defined the definition of ESP. Those definitions are as follows:

Stevens (1977) proposed that ESP is a kind of language course which emphasizes on the notion that the effectiveness of language teaching is through how much the course meets the specific needs and specific purposes of the learners. ESP in his notion is generally used when English use relates to a specific job, subject, or purpose.

Robinson (1980) considered the three elements for defining ESP. The first one is time factor that is how long an ESP course takes place such as a three-month course. The influence of time affects to the selection of which skill(s) to be taught in a specific time of the course. The second element is the age of the ESP learner. Robinson pointed out that the learners of ESP usually are adult or nearly adult. This idea is obviously in English for Occupational Purposes where learners are in job and in English for Educational Purposes where learners are in tertiary education. However, learners of ESP are not necessarily adults since it is noticed that there are many adult education and evening classes which emphasis on general language not ESP.

The last element is that the students of ESP can express their purpose in language learning. It is important that ESP course should be learner-centered since it is designed to meet the learners' needs. Therefore, students of ESP should have ability in expressing themselves what they need in order to benefit the course designer to design an ESP course which meets the students' needs. To sum up, she mentioned that ESP is meant the teaching of English focusing on a clearly identifiable goal.

Hutchinson and Waters (1987) gave the definition of ESP as it is an approach to language teaching in which all decisions as to contents and methods are based on the learners' reason for learning. It is a matter of English teaching which the learners likely to meet in their target situation. It also focuses what people actually do with the language or the language performance and competence i.e. the range of knowledge and abilities which enables the learners to do with the language. They seemed to emphasize on the question "Why does this learner need to learn the foreign language?" in order to clarify the concept of ESP.

Lado (1988) claimed that ESP course carries out some purposes beyond practicing the language in a classroom. In other words, it serves language use which bring the learners to reach their interest. In addition, it is designed for learners who wish to learn English in order to use it in their fields or professions.

Dudley-Evans (2001) mentioned an ESP as a course which focuses on the learners' needs in order to design an ESP course which meets the specific needs of the learners. Teaching

and material used in class are on the result of needs analysis. Dudley-Evans also characterized ESP which differs from general English as follows. Firstly, it is designed to meet the specific needs of the learners. Secondly, it makes use of the underlying methodology and activities of the discipline it serves. Finally, it is centered on the language (grammar, lexis and register), skills, discourse and genres appropriate to these activities.

In addition, Widdowson (1986) also supported the first idea of Dudley-Evans. He also mentioned some other variable characteristics of ESP. Those characteristics are first, ESP may be related to or design for specific disciplines. Second, ESP may use, in specific teaching situations, a different methodology from that of general English. Third, ESP is likely to be designed for adult learners, either at a tertiary-level institution or in professional work situation. Fourth, ESP is generally designed for intermediate or advanced level students. ESP courses usually assume basic knowledge of a language system, however it can be used for beginners.

Smoak (2003) summarized the features of ESP in her article “What is English for specific purposes?” She concluded from her experience that:

- ESP is English instruction based on actual and immediate needs of learners who have to successfully perform real-life tasks unrelated to merely passing an English class or exam.
- ESP is needs based and task oriented.
- Teaching ESP is demanding, time consuming, and different for every group of students.
- ESP is a challenge for all who teach. It offers virtually unlimited opportunities for professional growth.

It can be concluded that ESP is a course which is designed according to the learners’ needs or to functional and practical English language requirements of the learners (Strevens, 1977). An effective ESP course relates to how much the course contents meet the target needs of the learners or how much the course closed to their needs. In addition, as the course is designed for supporting the language to be used in learners’ target situations, learner-centered approach is developed for ESP courses.

2.2.2 Types of ESP

Strevens (1977), Robinson (1980, 1991), and Dudley-Evans and St John (1998) proposed that ESP courses are divided into two types—English for Science and Technology (EST) and all other ESP courses (See Figure 2.3). The reason for the distinction one category as EST is its course contents greatly require the scientific English.

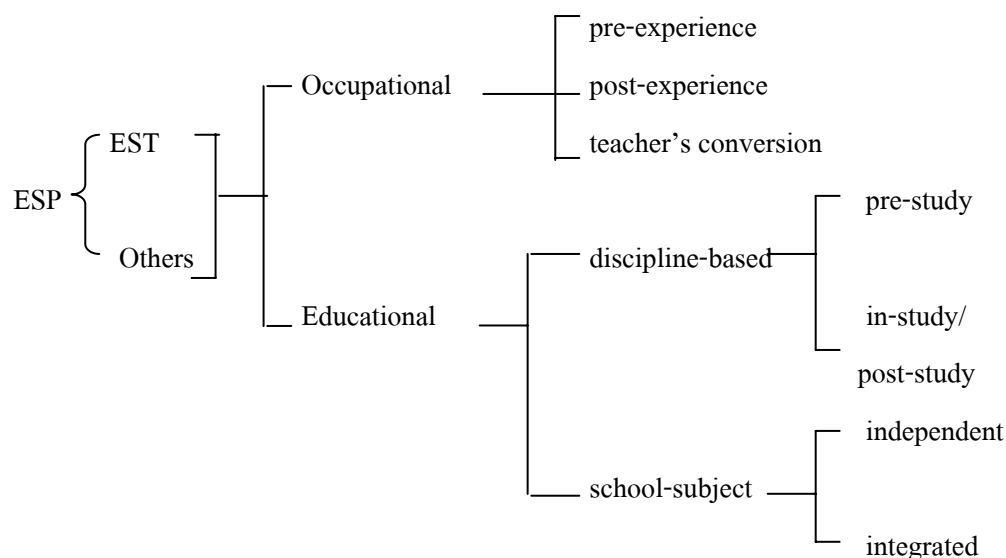


Figure 2.3: Types of ESP (Strevens, 1977:92)

EST courses and other ESP courses are divided into occupational and educational courses. Occupational ESP courses relate to a job or occupation such as English for hotel staffs, tour guides, airline staffs, etc. In addition, this type of ESP courses also fall into pre- or post-experience according to the learners if they are familiar with that job or not before learning English or attending the courses.

Educational ESP courses are as the same as English for Academic Purposes (EAP) courses in tertiary level (Strevens, 1977). These types of ESP courses relate to the study of a discipline such as literary criticism, physics, tropical agriculture, etc. Discipline-based ESP courses are taking place whenever the learners have already completed their study of the discipline before learning English or they learn English as a part of their studies. These learner features separate this type of ESP course into pre-study or in-study courses. For school subject ESP courses, English course is independent when it is offered as a separate course whereas English course is integrated when English learning is integrated with learning other subject(s) in a single syllabus.

There is another key distinction of ESP as shown in Figure 2.4. Hutchinson and Waters (1987) classified ESP into three main categories. One type is English for Science and Technology (EST) and in the second class which Strevans and other linguists suggested it as one category, they classify it into English for Business and Economics (EBE) and English for

Social Sciences (ESS). For ESS, Hutchinson and Waters (1987) claimed that it is probably not thought to differ significantly from more traditional humanities-based general English.

Each category is also sub-divided into English for academic purposes (EAP) and English for occupational purposes (EOP) similar to those of Strevens and others previously mentioned. The learners of EAP require English for their academic study while the learners of EOP require English for work or training. The examples of the EOP courses are English for Technicians, English for Secretaries, and English for Teaching.

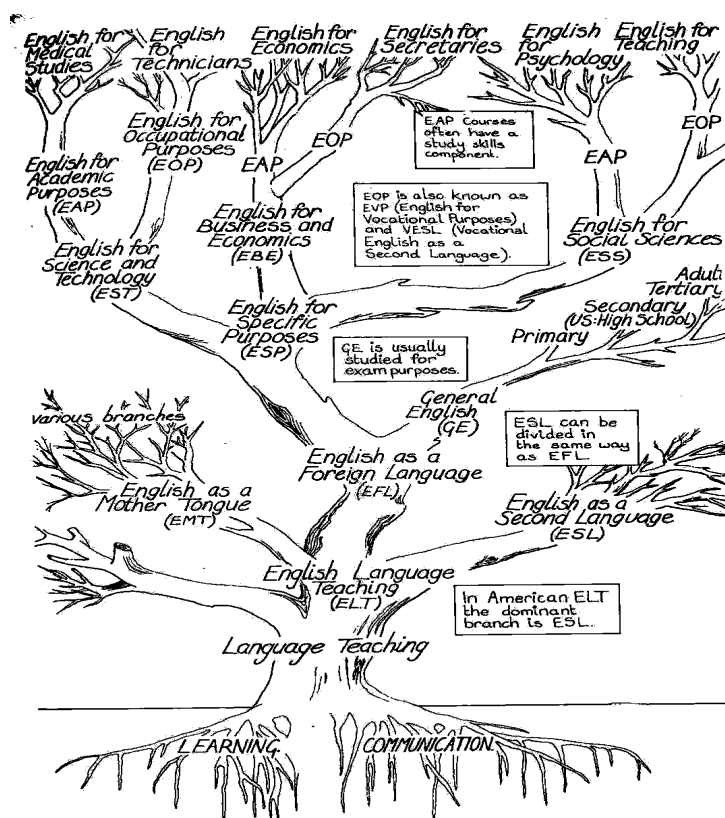


Figure 4: The Tree of ELT (Hutchinson and Waters, 1987)

2.2.3 English for Tourism

English for occupational purposes (EOP) relates to the learners' requirement of English for work (Strevens, 1977; Hutchinson and Waters, 1987). Accordingly, English for tourism can be considered as a sub – branch of EOP as it is emphasized on English used in the jobs such as tourist guide, travel agency, etc. of tourism business.

Walker (1995) suggested that the topics such as travel agencies, tour operation, transportation, etc. should be developed for the content of the course if the course designers

consider the whole tourism. However, when consider the more specific course such as English for tourist guides, language functions such as greeting, offering, requesting, etc. should be developed for the contents of the course. In addition, Walker (1995) also claimed that teaching English for tourism is quite different from teaching English for other areas of ESP. He suggested that in order to design an effective course, the course designers should ask the specialists to guide them when designing the language contents of the course.

The results of this study are focused on the English skills, and language functions and topics needed by the local guides. The English training course would be designed to serve their target needs which correspond to their occupations. Therefore, English for Rural Tourism and Homestay would be a kind of English for occupational purposes (EOP) course.

2.3 Syllabus Design for ESP

2.3.1 Definition of Syllabus

Traditionally, syllabus is a statement of content used as a basis for planning various kinds of courses. Then the syllabus designer uses it for selecting and grading a course content (Nunan, 1988). In syllabus design, Nunan suggested that syllabus designers should go beyond the traditional idea, that is to begin with distinguishing the “what” of a language program from the “how”. This procedure will lead the syllabus designers to know clearly the components of a language syllabus which are the “what” of a language program.

Yalden (1988) proposed that a syllabus is a plan which the teacher converts into a reality of classroom interaction. It is considered as an instrument used to coordinate the three aspects of language teaching. Those three aspects are, firstly, it is necessary to pay attention to problems of management since time is a constraint in all second language teaching situations. Secondly, the limitations of teacher themselves often constrain course design as well. Lastly, how is one to cope with defining content and setting standards, as well as with classroom interaction? Yalden also suggested that a syllabus should be flexible, open-ended, and subject to constant revision as a result of feedback from the classroom.

Hutchinson and Waters (1987) and Prabhu (1987) defined a syllabus as a document which describes what will be learnt or should be learnt. However, they claimed that a syllabus can be defined in different ways according to different stages of language learning in order to reach the expected goals. Those stages break down the syllabus into six types – the evaluation, the organizational, the materials, the teacher, the classroom, and the learner syllabuses.

Robinson (1991) and Scrivener (1994) defined a syllabus as a document providing a longer-term overview. It is a plan of work which is a guideline and context for class, and content for the teacher, to be taught in a particular course. It lists the contents of a course and puts the separate items in an order. In some schools, the syllabus may simply be the coursebook. In others, there may be a much more detailed requirement.

Harmer (1994) presented a syllabus in terms of the main textbook to be used: by a certain date, teachers are expected to have to cover a certain number of units in the book. At the same time, teachers are often provided with a list of supplementary material and activities that are available. Whether or not the course is tied to a particular textbook, its syllabus will generally have a list of language items as its core. The assumption being made is that these language items will be new for the students and should therefore be introduced to them in the order of the syllabus.

Dubin and Olshtain (1986) suggested a definition of a syllabus as the vehicle through which policy-makers convey information to teachers, textbook writers, examination committees, and learners concerning the program. A syllabus usually describes the following aspects.

1. What the learners are expected to know at the end of the course, or the course objectives in operational terms.
2. What is to be taught or learned during the course, in the form of an inventory of items.
3. When it is to be taught, and at what rate of progress, relating the inventory of items to the different levels and stages as well as to the time constraints of the course.
4. How it is to be taught, suggesting procedure, techniques, and materials.
5. How it is to be evaluated, suggesting testing and evaluating mechanisms.

To sum up, a syllabus is seen as a plan of work consisting of a statement of content which is a guideline for teachers in their teaching. It tells the teacher what the students have to learn in order to gain their target goals of attending the language course. Hutchinson and Waters (1987), and Dubin and Olshtain(1986) suggested that a syllabus conveys the information about a language course proposed by policy-makers to language teachers. However, defining a syllabus also depend on the stages of language teaching (Hutchinson and Waters, 1987). In addition, the “how” of a language program is one aspect that should be considered as one component of a syllabus (Dubin and Olshtain, 1986).

2.3.2 Types of Syllabus

A syllabus can be divided into several types. The two broad types of syllabus suggested by Nunan (1988) are the product-oriented syllabuses and the process-oriented syllabuses. The former refers to the syllabuses which focus on the language competence and performance the learners gain at the end of the course. It includes grammatical syllabus, functional – notional syllabus, and analytic syllabuses. The latter refers to the syllabuses which focus on the learning experiences which come from the learning process directed toward leaning objectives. It includes procedural syllabus, task-based syllabus, and content syllabus.

Robinson (1991) divided the syllabus into three types. They are content bases which consist of four kinds of syllabuses: the structural or grammatical syllabus, the functional-notional syllabus, the situational syllabus, and the topic-based syllabus; method bases which consist of the process syllabus and the task or procedural syllabus; and skill bases.

2.3.2.1 Content Bases

Firstly, the structural syllabus or the grammatical syllabus (Dubin and Olshtain, 1986) consists of an ordered set of language forms which is usually graded according to supposed difficulty and/or importance of learning. The classification of sentence types and morphology such as singular and plural marking are also included in this type of syllabus. The main characteristic of the syllabus is that it needs the analysis of language contents for its construction. Learners are expected to be able to analyze the rules and patterns of the language. Then, they can describe rules or explain why the utterance is right or wrong (Krahnke, 1987).

Krahnke (1987) also proposed the advantages and disadvantages of the syllabus. One advantage of this type of syllabus is the minimal problem of selecting instructional content especially in recent years, the language rules and patterns have been analyzed and documented. Therefore, it is comfortable for the language instructors to select the instructional content for their students. However, a disadvantage point of the syllabus is the sequencing or grading of the content will be taught as there are various forms or structures of any languages. The complexity, regularity, and usefulness of the structure should be considered in order to grade the content. The degree of difference between the target language structures and the student's first language is also included in the sequencing.

The second one is the functional-notional syllabus. The function refers to the communicative purposes for which people use the language (Nunan, 1986). The language functions are for example, greeting, requesting, apologizing, etc. The language notion refers to the concepts that language can express such as time, space, place, colour, etc. (Ur, 1996).

Ur (1996) also claimed that purely functional syllabus is rarely used as functions and notions are usually combined. However, Yalden (1987) separated this type of syllabus into functional syllabus and fully notional syllabus. In the functional syllabus, Yalden explained that language functions needed for a course come from its objectives, then those functions are guideline for the selection of grammatical items to be taught. In the notional syllabus, it includes semantic, functions, and forms or grammatical knowledge components for the syllabus construction.

Since the language functions to be taught are selected and sequenced according to the usefulness to the learners, then the syllabus's content will meet the learner's communicative needs (Cunningsworth, 1984). Other advantages are for examples, the learning goals are identified according to the learner's needs. Students can use what they have learnt outside the classroom at the early stage. Indeed, students who do not complete the course can still use what they have learnt from the course for communication.

However, Krahnke (1987) claimed that there are some disadvantages of this kind of syllabus. For example, since the content of the syllabus is tied to specific use, the instruction is less generalizable than the content of structural syllabus. Therefore, students can learn the limited range of functions within a wide range of structures. In addition, functional-notional syllabus deals with short utterances that will cause the students unable to produce new longer utterances in their communication.

The third and the fourth ones are the situational syllabus and the topic-based syllabus. These syllabuses take the real-life contexts of language uses as their basis (Ur, 1996). The name of situations such as 'having a meal' or 'at a restaurant' are divided into sections in situational syllabus, while the topics like 'the family', 'accommodations', etc. are broad headings included in the topic-based syllabus. Ur suggested that each topic included in topic-based syllabus might present a specific set of vocabularies.

The situational syllabus seems to provide the language teachers to teach the language used in the situations. These situations are sometimes relevant to the student's target situations or also their future needs. Students are faced with the language forms in each context or topic. In addition, the students can also understand some social or cultural information of the taken place situations. However, students may try to remember the language patterns used in the given situations rather than create the new language patterns that can be used in those situations. The topic-based syllabus is useful for an ESP course that emphasizes on the specialist content to be taught specialist learners. This can motivate the learners as the language to be taught is related specifically to their needs.

2.3.2.2 Method Bases

The method-based syllabuses can be divided into two types – the process syllabus and the task or procedural syllabus. The process refers to learning process or method of language learning. The content of the course is from the negotiation between the teacher and the learners at the beginning of the course and during it (Robinson, 1980; Ur, 1996). The application of the syllabus in a classroom seems to be mixed with other types of syllabus. For example, students may want to learn the language by follow the structural syllabus as they feel they can learn best by means of the structural syllabus. Then, the syllabuses to be used for this classroom will be both process and structural syllabuses.

The task or procedural syllabus focuses on the linguistic items that students will learn or the communicative skills that they will get after finishing the course. It consists of the specific tasks and activities that students will attend in class (Nunan, 1988). The important feature of the syllabus suggested by Robinson (1991) that each task includes identified and relevant specific-subject contents, and identified, appropriate and manageable linguistic level. Moreover, each task also requires identified and appropriate performance. For example, if the students have to speak in class, speaking skill is required by the given task not for practicing. Nunan (1988) claimed that it is important to consider the degree of difficulty as a criterion for selecting the task and activities.

2.3.2.3 Skill Bases

The skill-based syllabuses refer to the development of syllabus focusing exclusively or principally on one or four traditional skills - listening, reading, writing and speaking (Robinson, 1991). The syllabuses group pronunciation, vocabulary, grammar, sociolinguistics, and discourse together into generalized types of behavior such as giving effective oral presentation, reading for main ideas, etc. (Krahnke, 1987). The primary objective of the skill-based syllabus is to guide the teacher in order to teach the specific language skill.

2.3.3 Choosing ESP Syllabus

In order to justify which type of syllabus should be used for a language course, the first consideration is trying to find which one is the most suitable for a specific situation. Furthermore, the decision on which syllabus is suitable is from the consideration of the student's needs and the objectives of the language course as well as the attitude through the language teaching of the institution. Robinson (1991) suggested that the syllabus designers should treat all types of syllabus as being available. The important issue is how to bind all types of syllabus into an effective language teaching program.

Hutchinson and Waters (1987) pointed out that since we know the different aspects and levels of language and level of language learning are existed, this knowledge should be reflected in a syllabus. For example, if we know that there is both a functional and a structural aspect to language, then a functional and a structural syllabus are developed for the language course. All types of syllabus mentioned in previous section are used as the main point for selecting the content for the language course.

However, syllabus designers or even teachers may not use each type of syllabus as isolation. Hutchinson and Waters (1987) stated that “Behind the stated syllabus are the other syllabuses, acknowledged by the authors or not, as the case may be”. It would say that when selecting a syllabus for a language course, syllabus designers or whoever should integrate many syllabuses in order to design an effective course. Johnson (1982) also supported this idea that we refer to syllabus types using such labels, it does not follow that each type of syllabus take account of only one sort of them. For instance, if a syllabus designer produces a functional syllabus, it does not imply that he/she drawn up the syllabus without consideration for the notions, tasks, structures, activities, and etc.

2.4 Related Research

The related researches discussed in this part included the research carried out in Thailand and in the foreign countries. These researches are used as a guideline for English needs analysis and a syllabus on English for Rural Tourism and Homestay. They also provide valuable information for constructing the research instruments.

2.4.1 Related Research in Thailand

Anekjumnongporn (1993) analyzed the business English needs of the graduates from the school of Business Administration, Bangkok University. The analysis was used as a basis for establishing an appropriate business curriculum for future students. Structured interview was used as the method for data collection for her study. She found that the English speaking, writing, listening and reading are important in the business communication. However, the subjects of this study claimed that they did not have adequate opportunity to practice the English skills when studying in class.

The analysis also indicated the areas in which English is used. The subjects needed to use reading skills in order to read English newspaper and business journals, technical vocabulary in advertisements and manuals, and company documents. They needed to use

writing skills to write interoffice memos, telefax, and business letter. They also needed to have ability for drawing up contracts, communicating on the telephone, communicating with superiors in the company, and also with visitors to the company. Moreover, the researcher suggested that the teachers should emphasize on giving more opportunity to practice the language skills in language learning activities.

Khemateerakul (1996) investigated students' needs and problems in using English in the International Program of Bangkok University. She also examined students' wants regarding English skills to be emphasized in the intensive English course of the International Program and other factors included time, instruction, class size, and evaluation. The results will be used as a basis for improving the intensive English course. The data for this study were collected by means of questionnaire. The questionnaire was constructed to the first, second, and third year students and the instructors of the International Program of Bangkok University. The results indicated that English listening was needed most. The needed skills were listed as listening, reading, writing, and speaking respectively. The instructors claimed that writing and speaking were students' greatest problems. Both students and instructors wanted the English listening to be emphasized in the intensive English course.

Meemark (2002) surveyed and investigated the needs and problems of English for tourist police. Questionnaires were used as the instruments for collecting data. The subjects of the study were 159 tourist polices. The findings show that the tourist polices strongly need all four English skills – listening, speaking, reading and writing. Listening was considered as the most important skills and it was also the most serious problem for the tourist polices. Other problems were included such as engaging in telephone conversation, giving directions, listening to complaints, etc. Based on the findings, the researcher suggested that listening, speaking and vocabulary skills should be emphasized in English training course for tourist polices.

Prommintr Pongmala (2003) studied the conduct of the community – based tourism at Ban Maekampong, Mae-on District Chiangmai Province. This studied was aimed to sustain the tourism and to investigate the problems with the conduct of the tourism. The findings indicate that one of the problems occur was that the local guides were unable to communicate with foreign tourists. This causes inconveniences to the tourists. The researcher suggested that to conduct a foreign language training course for the local guides could solve this problem.

Supawadee Meesit (2003) studied the conduct of the community – based tourism at Maelana Community, Pangmapha District Maehongsorn Province. This research was aimed to study the tourism products in the community in order to set the appropriate tourism activities for

the tourists, and to study the constraints on constructing the tourism. The results show that one of the constraints was that the local guides' inability to communicate with foreign tourists. The researcher suggested that the local guides should improve their foreign language skills. This would benefit the development of the tourism.

2.4.2 Related Research in the Foreign Countries

Allen and Spada (1983) reported on a syllabus written for the English for Communicative Purposes program at the Guangzhou Institute of Foreign Languages in the People's Republic of China. They believed that a syllabus was most important as a working document for program developers. External considerations – the administration guidelines, the theoretical assumptions about language teaching and learning and students' needs – were negotiated and transformed in syllabus design. They made suggestions arose from their discussion that a communicative syllabus should not be seen as a permanent document. According to their report, it was the discussion about the second draft revision of their syllabus which they called Guangzhou Syllabus. However, there were many things in the syllabus that should be revised in order to make it clearer.

Jones (1991) described an approach to ESP syllabus design that was derived from a mathematically-based analysis of language use data. The questionnaires were used for gathering the data from a population of 400 technical employees of France Telecom. There were two dimensions to the notion of needs-related syllabus design – Language functions relevant to the specific purpose of the subjects, and Principal component analysis (or Factor analysis which provides a model of how language functions combine into speech events in the realization of discourse.). The syllabus derived from the integration of the two dimensions. By adding the principal component analysis into the process of syllabus design, it lent the entire syllabus design a sense of cohesiveness of needs analysis, discourse model and teaching model. Moreover, learner needs was also truly represented at the teaching level by means of constitutes an integrated model for ESP syllabus design.

Benesch (1996) explored the literature on needs analysis, offered critical needs analysis as an alternative approach to examining target situations, and described an example of critical needs analysis and EAP curriculum development in a paired ESL writing/psychology course at a U.S. college. She concluded that needs analysis is a political and subjective process and the identification of elements of a target situation depending on the analysts' ideology. Critical needs analysis focuses on questions of social and cultural inequality in education and

aims to change those conditions of inequality. It described as the analysis assumes that institutions were hierarchical and the institutions at the bottom were often entitled to more power than they have. In other words, it sought the areas where greater equality and better working conditions might be achieved.

So-mui and Mead (2000) investigated the English needs of textile and clothing merchandisers who communicate in the international marketplace. The data were obtained through questionnaire surveys, telephone interviews, analysis of authentic correspondence, and visit to the workplace. The subjects were 360 graduates from two Hong Kong institutions: the Hong Kong Polytechnic University and the Kwun Tong Technical Institute. The results show that writing skills were greater used than speaking skills. The subjects claimed that grammatical accuracy was more important than other factors in order to create written business correspondence. The researchers pointed out that their findings have had the greatest influence on the content of the communication courses offered at both institutions.

Basturkmen (2003) illustrated the number of narrow-angled and wide-angled course designs in ESP and discussed the advantages and disadvantages of the options. "Wide-angled" was used to refer to course for learners expecting a broad work place, professional or academic field, whereas "narrow-angled" was used to refer to courses for learners expecting a particular work place, professional or academic field. She recommended one option of narrow-angled course design that was a course derived from an analysis of needs in a particular target group such as English for pilots and air traffic controllers. Two options of wide-angled course design were also recommended in this paper. A course derived from an analysis of common needs with reference to a set of disciplines or occupations such as English for general academic purposes. The other one derived from features of language use in a variety of English such as business English and academic English. According to the stated options of ESP course design, Basturkmen concluded that ESP can never be specific enough, however it can also be too specific at the same time.