CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1. Introduction

This chapter presents the reviews of the principles and concepts that are relevant and necessary for the development of self-instructional materials (SIMS) to enhance English listening skills for student nurses. The review covers English for Specific Purposes and frameworks of materials development including ESP material design and needs analysis provide an overall understanding and a foundation for developing ESP materials. Next, the Six T's approach of Stoller and Grabe (1997) gives an idea of how materials should be designed. Later, English for nurses and communicative skills of English in which skills of listening for nurses suggested by English Language Development Center (ELDC) and Canadian English Language Benchmarks Assessment for Nurses (CELBAN) are raised to acknowledge some general strands of English listening for such specific group of students. Finally, theories on materials design along with an approach of writing instructional modules are presented to provide important information for developing self-instructional materials to enhance English listening skills for student nurses.

In short, each of these concepts is explored and reviewed to conceptualize a framework suitable for developing self-instructional materials.

2.2. English for Specific Purposes (ESP)

The economic power gained by the United States after the scientific and technical revolution following World War II along with the oil crisis during 1970s has resulted in the flow of Western knowledge and financial supports into the oil-rich countries where the primary medium of communication is English. This situation reflected a great demand to know English among non-native speakers; not only basic English but more specific English for specific reasons when working (Hutchinson and Waters, 2002: 6-7; Richards, 2001: 23).

Consequently, the new group of learners, who have clear and specific reasons for learning English such as for trades and technology, need "training" English for their occupation rather than learning English for the sake of learning a language alone (Richards, 2001).

2.2.1. Definitions of English for Specific Purposes

Scholars have proposed definitions of ESP in various styles due to the lack of the clear-cut definition that can characterize all contexts of ESP (Sinha and Sadora, 1991: 20). Among those definitions, however, two distinctive aspects i.e. learners' needs with specific purposes are still observed.

The earliest definition of ESP would be the definition proposed in the book titled *Communicative syllabus design* by John Munby in 1978 (Vasavakul, 2006:11). For Munby, ESP course is "those where the syllabi and materials are determined in all essentials by the prior analysis of communication needs of the learner, rather than by non learner-centered criteria such as the teacher's or institution's predetermined preference for General English as part of a general education." The key terms in his definition are 'communication needs' and 'learner'.

Later, Strevens (1988) (cited in Pattanapichet, 2009:16) presents absolute and variable characteristics of ESP to give a more specific definition by making a distinction between four absolute and two variable characteristics of ESP.

Four Absolute Characteristics are as follows:

1. ESP is designed to meet specific needs of the learner;

2. ESP is related in content to particular disciplines, occupations and activities;

3. ESP is centered on the language appropriate to those activities in syntax, lexis, discourse, semantics, and analysis of this discourse; and

4. ESP is in contrast with General English.

Two Variable Characteristics are as follows:

1. ESP may be restricted as to the language skills to be learned, and

2. ESP may not be taught according to any pre-ordained methodology.

An ESP course for Strevens (1988) is "those in which the aims and the contents are determined, principally or wholly, not by the criteria of general education as when English as a foreign language is a subject in school but rather by functional and practical English language requirements of the learners. English courses for medical doctors, for meteorologists, for secretaries, for businessmen, for diplomats, for welders, for air traffic controllers, for teachers or teacher trainers, and many more are examples of ESP" Key terms here are 'functional and practical English language requirements' and 'learners' (Vasavakul, 2006).

Dudley-Evans and St John (1998: 17) further propose the relation of content in the second absolute characteristics from the work of Strevens (1988)

mentioning that such absolute characteristics can lead to a misunderstanding that ESP is always and necessarily related directly to subject content. For them, ESP teaching should always reflect the underlying concepts and activities of the broad discipline instead of being related to the whole content. Therefore, a modified definition has been presented as follows:

Three Absolute Characteristics are

1. ESP is defined to meet specific needs of the learner;

2. ESP makes use of the underlying methodology and activities of the disciplines it serves; and

3. ESP is centered on the language (grammar, lexis, and register), skills, discourses and genres appropriate to these activities.

Four Variable Characteristics are

1. ESP may be related to or designed for specific disciplines;

2. ESP may use, in specific teaching situations, a different methodology from that of general English;

3. ESP is likely to be designed for adult learners, either at a tertiary level institution or in a professional work situation. It could, however, be used for learners at the secondary school level; and

4. ESP is generally designed for intermediate or advanced students. Most ESP courses assume some basic knowledge of the language system, but it can be used with beginners.

Basturkmen (2003: 48) briefly discusses that ESP courses are formulated on the basis of specific work-related or academic needs of the learners and

the course offers descriptions of language use in the disciplines or occupations they serve.

Another characteristic of ESP course is time constraints. Limited duration tend to be one of the factors in designing an ESP course. Unlike general English courses whose aim is to develop proficiency of general English skills which naturally require an extensive amount of time to pursuit, ESP courses intensive courses holding a specific length of time with clear and specific objectives to be achieved. Learners are, consequently, expectantly aimed to be able to achieve their target skills in order to perform a professional or an academic role after the courses have been completed. Therefore, time cannot be wasted for any irrelevant materials in designing any ESP courses (Strevens, 1988).

2.2.2. Classifications of English for Specific Purposes

As contents and aims of any course are determined by the needs of a specific group of learners, English for Specific Purposes (ESP) has been referred to 'applied ELT'. ESP is often alienated into English for Academic Purposes (EAP) and English for Occupational Purposes (EOP) whose sub-divisions are sometimes made into business English or professional English such as English for doctors, English for lawyers and vocational English such as English for tourism, nursing, and aviation.

However, key features of ESP are how spoken and written texts work within particular disciplines of professions and how they attempt to persuade the audiences of the validity of their claims and arguments (Dudley-Evans and St John, 1998).

Hutchinson and Waters (2002) present an ESP classification in a picturesque tree diagram by the nature of specific varieties of language use as illustrated in Figure 2.1.

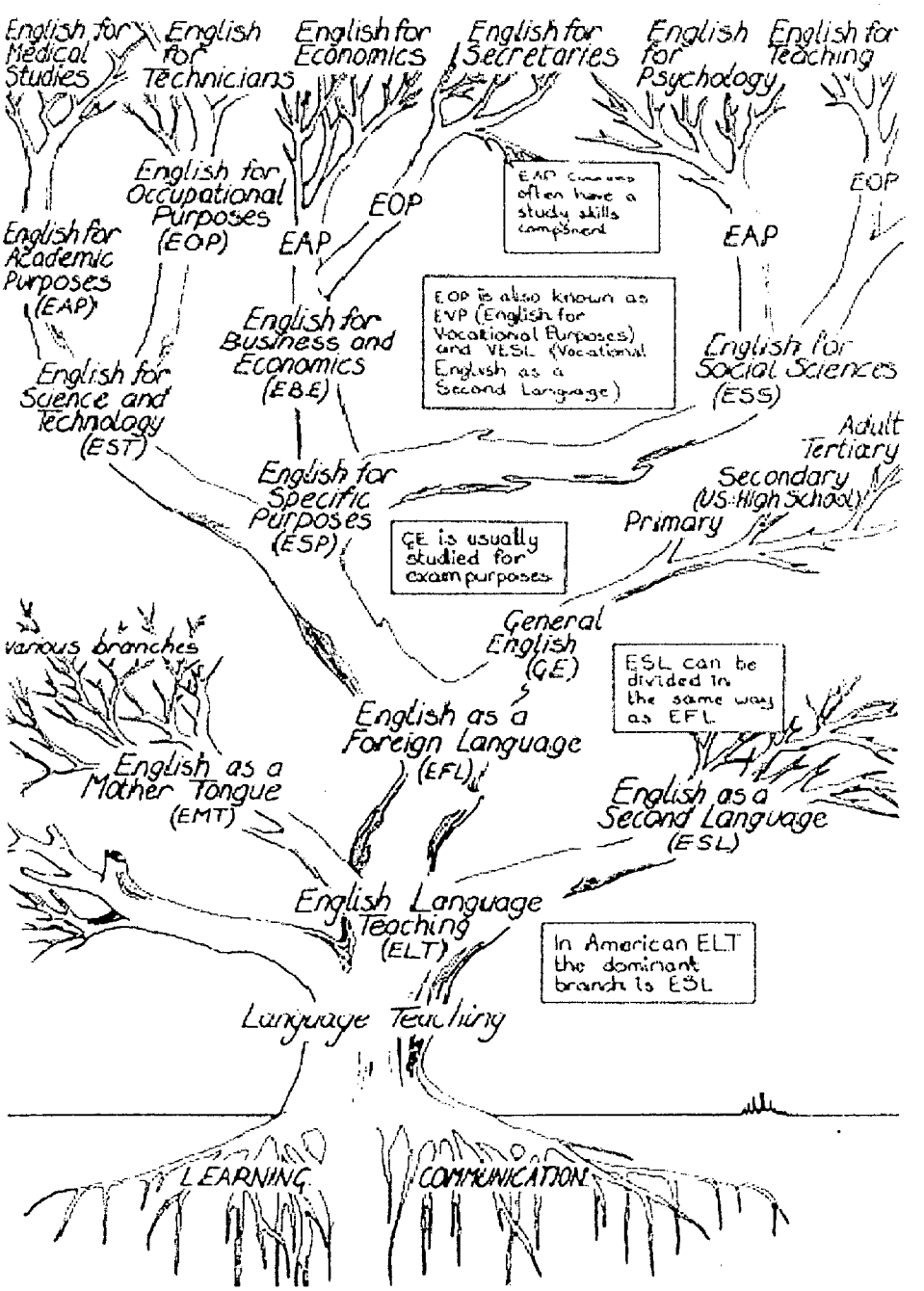

Figure 2.1: ESP classification by specific varieties of language use (Hutchinson and Waters, 2002)

While the above diagram classifies English language teaching (ELT) into various subcategories according to specific varieties of language use, Dudley-Evans and St John (1998), on the other hand, offer an ESP classification by professional area as illustrated in Figure 2.2.

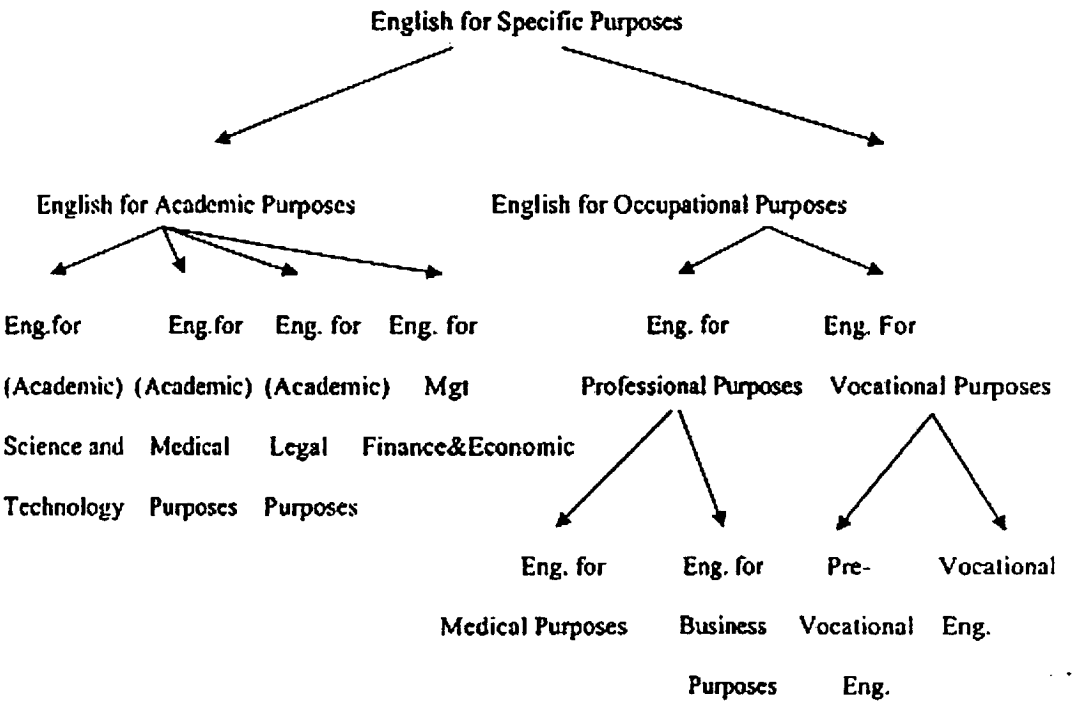

Figure 2.2: ESP classification by professional area (Dudley-Evans and St John, 1998)

As the above diagram sub-divides EAP and EOP according to the disciplines or occupations with which it is concerned, Strevens (1977) (cited in Pattanapichet, 2009: 22) offers an ESP classification by experience as in Figure 2.3.

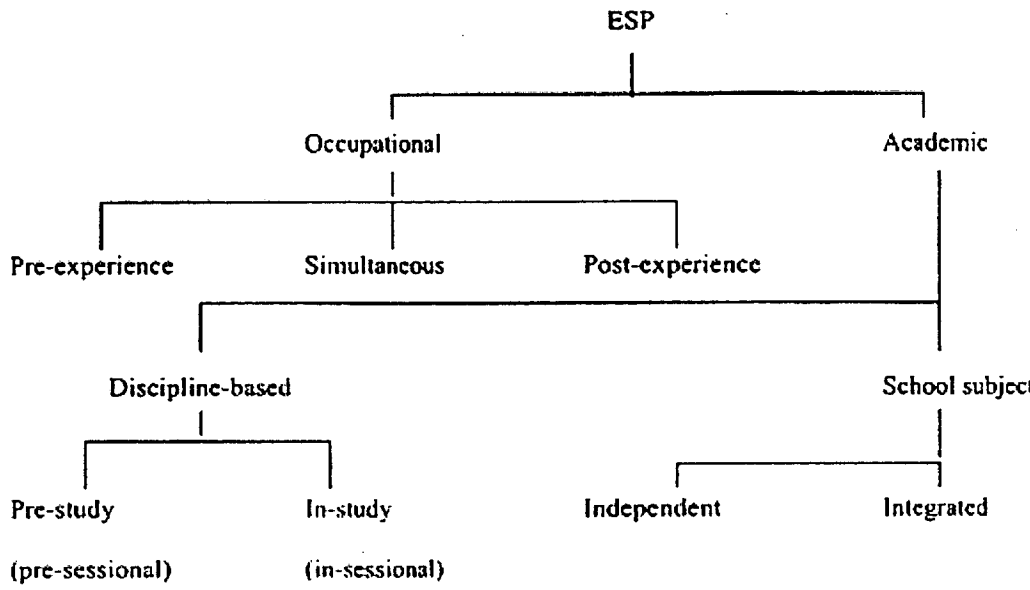

Figure 2.3: ESP classification by experience (Strevens, 1977)

Given the diagram of Strevens (1977) to be an example, Kennedy and Bolitho (1985) (cited in Pattanapichet, 2009:23) discuss that both EAP and EOP serve the students' needs of pre-experience and pre-study in order to gain access to knowledge or to express in English.

Similarly, Hutchinson and Waters (1987) mention that at the end of both EAP and EOP there is a similarity between them which is about an employment. They explain that learning and working can be adopted simultaneously and the language learnt in academic settings for academic purposes can be useful and employed by learners in the occupational settings when they are taking up the job.

Therefore, no matter what criteria are used to classify ESP, EAP and EOP are still placed as the two main strands of ESP.

2.2.3. English for Nursing Purposes (ENP)

English for medical or nursing purposes (EMP/ENP) are subsets of English for Specific Purposes (ESP) that most often focus on teaching aspects of medical English especially the terminology (Hull, 2006). This type of English involves the teaching and learning of English for a practical purpose including work performance or effective medical training. Dudley-Evans and St John (1998) characterize ESP for the medical profession as follows:

1. It is designed to meet English language needs of nurses, doctors, dentists;

2. It includes themes and topics needed in the medical field; and

3. It focuses on skills required by medical learners e.g. for writing medical papers or preparing a talk for a medical meeting

It seems that health professions have their own language, content, and culture. Career-specific language is evident in the communication health professionals use in both verbal and non-verbal form. English for nursing purposes (ENP), therefore, is essentially a matter of English for nursing areas whose specialization is defined as necessary language to cope with nursing and relevant medical works (Hainsworth, 2008: 470).

The English language that suits the needs of nurses, hence, should prepare student nurses for the job with terminology and medical abbreviations for their daily career tasks (Lee, 1997: 55-72). Therefore, ESP practitioners especially those who are in charge of English for nursing purposes need to provide English courses as well as materials that suit the real needs of student nurses as they are

essential means to enhance the possibility of communicating in English among this group of students.

2.3. Needs Analysis

As ESP and General English is neither the existence of a need or the nature of the need that able to distinguish ESP from General English, an awareness of the need is of paramount importance and an effective ESP course hinges on specified needs of learners (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987; Sinha & Sadorra, 1991). Needs analysis or needs assessment is , therefore, an essential process in a development of ESP courses.

Hutchinson and Waters (1987) view learners' needs as a fundamental approach for ESP practitioners to be aware of language learning. As many ESP courses tend to serve the education needs of adult learners whose language needs, readiness of learning language, and learning styles for processing information vary in ages, it is extremely challenging for the course developers to tailor a well designed course for such versatile atmosphere.

With the diversity of needs, needs analysis will bridge the gap between what is expected and what is offered. The concept of needs analysis is essential for education because optimal learning approaches and activities will support and assist the learners when learning needs, readiness to learn, and learning styles among learners are insightfully understood (Kitchie, 2008: 94-104).

Jialim (2006) (cited in Sirilukkananan, 2007) surveys the needs, problems, and wants of English for specific purposes perceived by student nurses of Saint Louis College in Bangkok and finds the results that seem to be as Chaikitkosi (1986) (cited in Phutirat and Suwannapatama, 2007) has claimed before that contents of the English for specific courses should be considered from the most needed or the greatest wants

among 'local' nurses in a particular setting. Needs analysis, therefore, should be primarily concerned within the context of ESP course as this approach will facilitate the determination of what exactly needs to be learned and which way of information can be best presented and understood by learners in such various contextual situations (Kitchie, 2008).

Graves (2000) presents the process of needs analysis and comes up with a set of decision, actions, and reflections, which is cyclical in nature as follows:

1. Deciding what information to gather and why;
2. Deciding the best way to gather such information: when, how, and from whom;
3. Gathering the information;
4. Interpreting the information;
5. Acting on the information interpreted;
6. Evaluating the effect and effectiveness of the action; and
7. (Back to 1) deciding on further or new information to gather.

These cyclical processes were illustrated in Figure 2.4.

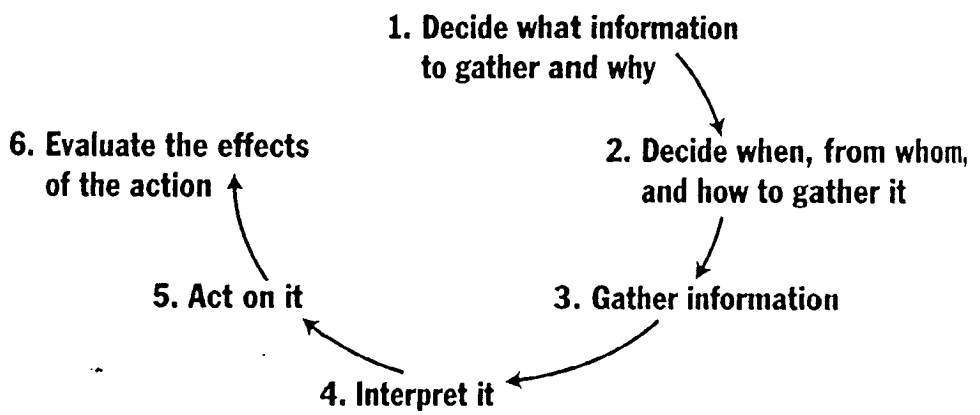

Figure 2.4: The Needs Analysis Cycle (Graves, 2000)

2.3.1. Definitions of Needs

In nursing education, according to Healthcare Education Association (1985) (cited in Kitchie, 2008:97) needs are defined as knowledge gaps that exist between a desired level of performance and the actual level of performance. Needs in learning, hence, are the gap between what someone knows and what someone needs or wants to know and such gap will exist because of the lack of knowledge, attitude, or skill.According to Dudley –Evans and St John (1998), needs analysis in ESP can be determined as follows:

1. Target situation analysis/Objective needs: Professional information about the learners; tasks and activities learners will be using English.

2. Wants or Subjective needs: 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 toward English language.

3. Present situation analysis: English language information about learners: their current skills and language use.

4. Lacks: The learners' lacks: the gap between 1) and 3).

5. Learning needs: Language learning information: effective ways of learning the skills and language in 4).

6. Linguistic analysis/ discourse analysis/ genre analysis: Professional communication information about knowledge of how language and skills are used in the target situation.

7. Expectation: What is wanted from the course?

8. Mean analysis: Information about the environment in which the course will be run.

However, Hutchinson and Waters (1987:55) mention target needs as the essential factor that hide many vital distinctions i.e. necessities, lacks, and wants. Graves (2000), likewise, adds some critical considerations about information that need to be gathered when assessing needs for a language course for students as follows:

1. Who the learners are? Aspects that are covered for this question include age, gender, education background, profession, nationality, language spoken.

2. The students' language proficiency. The level of proficiency in each of the four skills in the target language. This information can help choose texts to be used, skills to be developed, elements of grammar to emphasize, and so on.

3. Materials to use, and the sociolinguistic and socio-cultural skills to develop and emphasize.

4. The learners' interests. Such interests include topics or issues they are interested in. This kind of information can help teachers gar the course towards students' interests and experiences.

5. The students' learning preferences. This kind of information includes the expectation of the content, activities, roles of teacher-student, teaching approach, and so on.

6. The students' attitude. What are their attitudes toward themselves, the target language, and culture? The findings from this question will help teachers know whether the students feel confident using the target language and comfortable when making mistakes or positive about studying in the classroom.

2.3.2. Steps of Conducting Needs Analysis

According to Bloor (1985) (cited in Udomsieng, 2005: 14-15), it is almost certainly desirable to operate both target-centered and learner-centered needs analysis in order to specify an adequate teaching syllabus.

Target-centered needs analysis looks at students' future roles and attempts to specify language skills or linguistic knowledge that students need to perform whereas the learner-centered needs analysis examines what the students can do at the beginning of the course, problems they may have, and skills they possess which will enable them to learn well in certain directions.

Therefore, needs analysis is the classical procedure by which a close link can be established between students and curricula; the syllabus and materials design for any course (Yalden, 1991). Jordan (1997) proposes the steps for conducting needs analysis as illustrated in Figure 2.13.

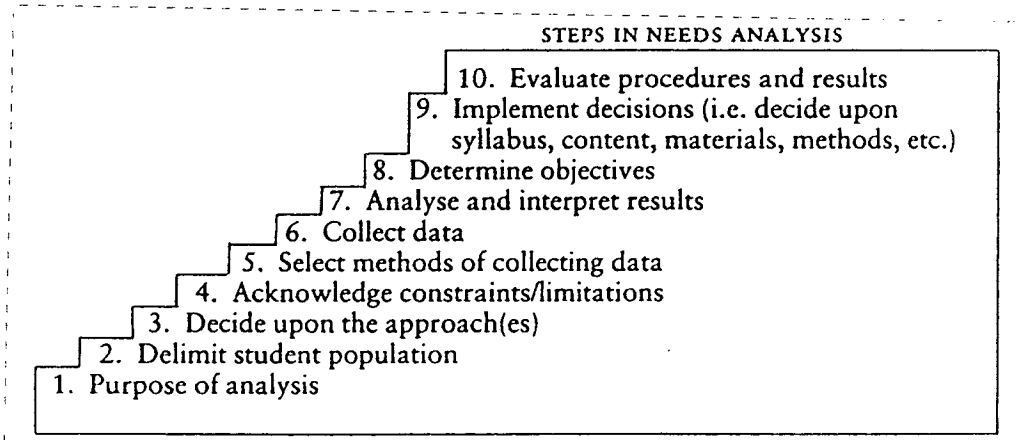

Figure 2.5: Steps in Needs Analysis (Jordan, 1997)

Each step in needs analysis for the present study may be described based on Figure 2.5 as follows:

1. Purpose of analysis: the present study aims to investigate the needs of English listening skills among student nurses in School of Nursing, Faculty of Medicine, Ramathibodi Hospital, Bangkok.

2. Delimit student population: the delimitation or scope of the study covered 300 student nurses ranging from the first year to the fourth years from School of Nursing, Faculty of Medicine, Ramathibodi Hospital, Bangkok.

3. Decide upon the approach: the present study focuses on the 'participants' necessities'. According to Hutchinson and Waters (1987:53), necessities mean 'what the learner has to know in order to function effectively in the target situation.' Thus, in this present study such necessities is English listening skills that student nurses fell lack and need to get improved in order to communicate effectively.

4. Acknowledge constraints/limitations: there are many schools of nursing in Thailand that release the group of work forces to the country, however, as one of the most popular schools of nursing in the country, student nurses from School of Nursing, Faculty of Medicine, Ramathibodi Hospital, Bangkok was the focused group of the present study.

5. Select method of collecting data: for gaining data quantitatively, the questionnaire was applied in the study.

6. Collect data: information from questionnaires was collected from 300 student nurses studying between the first year to the fourth year in School of Nursing, Faculty of Medicine, Ramathibodi Hospital, Bangkok

7. Analyze and interpret data: for descriptive statistics (frequency and mean) was used to analyzed data gathered from the questionnaire.

8. Determine objectives: the objectives of the SIMS developed was established based on the literature reviews and the questionnaire.

9. Implement decisions: the SIMS was designed based on information from the literature reviews and the needs analysis.

10. Evaluate the SIMS: this Self-Instructional Materials was validated by experts and the pilot test. The main study was then conducted and evaluated using the pretest and posttest and the materials evaluation form.

Apart from attempting all steps in needs analysis to develop self-instructional material in English for a particular group of students, the review of relevant information about instructional materials in language teaching/learning will also shape the pathway to design appropriate materials for such group of students.

2.4. Instructional Materials in English Language Teaching (ELT)

Instructional materials provide teachers with tools to deliver message creatively, clearly, accurately, and in a timely fashion (Hainsworth, 2008:474). These 'tools' enhance possibilities for teacher to reinforce information, clarify abstract concepts, and simplify complex messages.

Teaching languages contains tons of contents and approaches to be adopted for students who carry different level of readiness to learn and various learning styles. Choices and media options of instructional materials often depend on availability or cost regarding appropriateness to fit the learner, affect the motivation to learn, and that accomplish the learning tasks. Simply put, whichever tools are selected should enhance achievement of expected learning outcomes.

2.4.1. Significances of Instructional Materials in ELT

Instructional materials play a crucial role in learning not only languages but also other fields of knowledge such as being mediums of communicating knowledge and learning objectives of a particular session among learners and teachers. Either form of instructional materials e.g. audiovisual materials, direct or purposeful experiences and learning resources can lessen problems in conducting the session and enhance the possibility of crystal clear learning among learners. (De Kieffer, 1965:9-64; Dale, 1969: 105-135; Ely, 1972: 36-43) (cited in Malithong, 2548: 100-108).

Instructional materials are the vehicles by which information is communicated either print or non-print media, accompanied by the adjuncts used of relevant hardware and software to deliver information. The so called 'tools' are intended to supplement not to replace the role of teachers. Therefore, it is imperative that the teachers understand the various types of audio and visual media available to efficiently and effectively complement their teaching efforts.

2.4.2. Types of Instructional Materials

According to Tomlinson (2003), materials include anything which can be used to facilitate the learning of a language. They can be linguistic, visual, auditory or kinesthetic and they can be presented in print, through live performance or display, or on cassette, CD-ROM, DVD, or the internet. None the less, many well known publishers might be generally less enthusiastic about publishing materials that attract small groups of those who are interested. So, when materials are needed for such situations, many educational settings will need to develop their own materials. Such materials can be explained as follows:

1. Materials prepared by the foreign language department of a corporation for use by its employers.

2. Materials prepared by a language school or university or college language department for use by its students.

3. Materials prepared by an individual teacher for use by particular group of students in her or his class.

Hainsworth (2008) categorizes types of instructional materials into three groups; written materials, demonstration materials, and audiovisual materials. Reviewing those three categories of instructional materials, she finally suggests how to select media from a range of possible options based on their advantages and disadvantages.

For Hainsworth (2008), printed media or written materials include both commercially prepared and instructor-composed materials e.g. books, commercial textbooks, brochures, instruction sheets. The problem of matching literacy and cognitive levels of learners to printed instructional tools is a relevant concern. The major advantages of printed materials are that they are widely available and they have potential for reinforcing explanations of complex concepts. Disadvantages include the limited opportunity for learner-teacher feedback as some learners may find irrelevant and unreadable to be utilized in classroom. Therefore, in using such materials, teachers may select the useful information and develop printed materials themselves in order to enhance the possible chance to receive the utmost language and information.

Demonstration materials, on the other hand, include non-print media such as models, real equipment, diagram, charts, flip charts, posters, photographs, and

etc. In particular, they stimulate the senses of sight and touch. They are especially useful for cognitive and psychomotor skill development and may even influence attitudes, feelings, and values in the affective domain. Other advantages include bringing the learner closer to reality through active involvement and the opportunity for repetition. The major advantage of demonstration materials is the potential for static content or overuse, as they are often time consuming to prepare and the teacher may be reluctant or unable to revise these materials frequently. In addition, these materials are not suitable for simultaneous viewing by large audiences, for visually impaired learners, or for individuals with poor abstraction abilities.

Audiovisual materials include computer, specifically CAI, video games, MP3s, and many other electronic devices integral to our everyday life. Their ability to stimulate learners' visual and auditory sense enhances their power to actively engage learners and to potentially increase retention of information. Many audiovisual materials can influence all three domains of learning by promoting cognitive development; stimulate attitude change, and helping to build psychomotor skills. Besides, audio tools are most appropriate for visually impaired learners. Therefore, there is no doubt why the trend of materials for literacy is integrating various computer programs and internet to support learners the utmost language acquisition. Nonetheless, the disadvantages of these tools may be realized as other equipments needed e.g. software's, projectors, and radios. Another drawback of these tools is the lack of opportunity for interaction between teachers and learner when the teacher on their side rely the success of the class only on materials themselves.

2.4.3. Components of Writing Instructional Materials

As writing instructional materials is a skilled job and can take time than any material writers can expect. So, they should consider components of instructional materials in order to write the exact needed materials for their students. Nunan (1995) (cited in Sunsom, 2001:31) suggests the components of instructional material as follows:

2.4.3.1. Input

Input provides opportunity for the students to learn and practice their language skills so that they can communicate in the real world. In fact, such input can be derived from a wide range of sources. Hover (1986) (cited in Nunan, 1989: 53) suggests sources of input such as letters (formal/informal), calorie counter, newspaper extracts, recipe, picture stories, extract from a play, driver's license, bus timetable, social security form, notice board item, business card, and high school year book.

2.4.3.2. Content focus

Content focus is about presenting vocabularies, grammar, and other relevant contents with the meaning. Such content can be either written (linguistic content) or drawn as a picture (non-linguistic form) depended on the purpose of the communication and the learning objective of the classroom.

2.4.3.3. Language focus

Language focus is about presenting grammar rules from the content for the student and helping them apply those rules in the real world.

2.4.3.4. Tasks

Tasks are activities in the classroom that can bring an understanding of language to the students and help them communicate in the real world with the target language. Nonetheless, teachers and materials writers should realize the exact needed topic of each unit prior to the writing of any instructional materials. Likewise, Nunan (1995) (cited in Sunsom, 2001:32-33) suggests an approach for writing instructional materials where tasks become one of important elements as follows:

1. Choosing the topic e.g. "Choosing the House for Rent";

2. Collecting relevant materials e.g. advertisement in newspapers, and pictures of the house;

3. Choosing appropriate tasks from materials collected e.g. reading advertisement about "house for rent", talking about furniture, and finding specific information from the newspaper;

4. Designing activities e.g. listening for specific details, role playing, and filling the gap;

5. Specifying grammar points based on the contents and activities e.g. Adjectives: big, close, cheap, small etc., the Present continuous: I'm looking for a flat, and Wh-questions: How much does it cost?;

6: Designing grammar tasks e.g. filling the gap with adjectives provided or using appropriate wh-questions with sentences given;

7. Designing more tasks to encourage the students to use language they have learnt e.g. making a group discussion to talk about the accommodation each student likes;

8. Giving tasks for students to practice the language they have learnt e.g. have students do the role-play and use expressions when choosing the house for rent such as What area is it in?, How many bedrooms has it got?, or How much per week is it?;

From the above discussion, one of the important elements when writing instructional materials is tasks. Tasks have an important role in motivating the students to practice and understand the language learnt from the language classroom. Therefore, all new materials writers should consider tasks as a critical element of writing materials so that the produced materials can be effective for learning languages (Sunsom, 2001).

2.4.4. Applying Six T's Approach for Writing Instructional Materials

When writing instructional materials, materials writers should consider an effective approach for writing instructional materials so that the process will not take too much time and can be effectively motivate the student to learn the language.

The underlying principle in the Six T's Approach is that all Content-Based Syllabus or Content-Based Instruction (CBI) is fundamentally theme-based (Brinton, Snow & Wesche, 1989) (cited in Stoller & Grabe, 1997: 1). In theme-based instruction, the students are provided opportunities to get exposed to instructional materials with real-life issues that could catch their attention, curiosity, and motivation (Brown, 1994).

Stoller & Grabe (1997) present the Six-T's Approach which the researcher found helpful for designing the materials. The approach has three basic goals as follows:

1. The specification of theme-based instruction is as central to all CBI.

2. The extension of CBI supports language-learning context as well as freedom to make major curriculum and content decisions among teachers and program supervisors.

3. The organization of coherent content resources for the instruction and the selection of appropriate language learning activities.

With the Six-T's Approach, the initial consideration has been given to an array of student needs, student goals, and institutional outcomes. Such criteria are finally specified as the six curricular components i.e. Themes, Texts, Topics, Threads, Tasks, and Transitions.

2.4.4.1. Themes

Themes are the central ideas that organize major curricular units. Whether a thematic unit integrates learning across contents or is written based on a single discipline, choosing a unifying theme or organizing concept for the unit is considered the first step to be performed.

Stoller & Grabe (1997) say that themes can be divided to three categories i.e. topical themes, conceptual themes, and problematic themes. A class should explore more than one theme from one given term so that the students can get some useful reading and explore more concepts that represent much more substantial learning. Table 2.1 shows examples of themes that organize a curricular unit from different instructional settings.

Table 2.1: Examples of themes

Sample themes	Possible instructional setting
Insects	Elementary school classroom
The solar system	Middle school or high school classroom(s)
Demography	University intensive English program
Austrian historic monuments	High school foreign language class (German)

2.4.4.2. Texts

Texts are written and spoken resources. They drive the basic planning for theme units. Text selection will depend on a number of criteria: student interests, relevance, and instructional appropriateness provide a first set of guidelines for determining text selection; format appeal, length, coherence, connection to other materials, accessibility, availability, and cost represent secondary criteria (Stoller & Grabe, 1997). Table 2.2 shows the four basic types of texts specified in theme units.

Table 2.2: The four basic types of texts specified in theme units

Types of texts	Examples of content resources
Instructor-compiled content Resources	Readings of various genres, videos, audiotapes, maps, tables, graphs, software
Instructor-generated content Resources	Lectures, worksheets, graphic representations, bulletin board displays
Task-generated content resources	Student freewrites, discussions, problem-solving activities, graphic representations, library searches, debates, surveys/questionnaires
External content resources	Guest speakers, field trips

2.4.4.3. Topics

In content-based instruction, topics should be selected to complement students' interests, content resources, teacher preferences, and larger

curricular objectives. In general, topics should be organized to generate maximum coherence for the theme unit and to provide opportunities to explore both content and language. A given theme unit will rely on specific topics selected for an exploration. For example, a teacher could choose to develop a theme unit on Native Americans by means of three different topics: rural versus urban living, traditional versus contemporary religious practices, and the values of young and older generations (Stoller & Grabe, 1997). Table 2.3 illustrates how theme units can be developed in different ways, depending on the topics designated (or negotiated) for exploration.

Table 2.3: Different sets of topics in a theme unit

Theme	One set of sample topics	Another set of sample topics
Insects	a. Insects which are helpful b. Insects which are harmful c. Insects which eat other insects d. Insects which eat vegetation	a. Ants b. Bees c. Caterpillars
Solar system	a. Humans in space b. Technology in space c. Research in space d. Pluto	a. Earth b. Venus c. Mercury
Demography	Impact of population on a. air b. water c. natural resources	Population trends a. in developing countries b. in developed countries c. and their impact on the environment

2.4.4.4. Threads

Threads are linkages across themes which create greater curricular coherence. They are not directly connected to the main idea that controls each theme unit. They are rather abstract concepts in terms of responsibility, ethics, contrasts, power that provide an easy way to link theme, review and recycle important content and language across themes, and revisit selected learning strategies. Threads

can tie up themes that appear disparate e.g. American education, demography, and toxic wastes resulting in a more unified curriculum. There can be a number of threads linking thematically different content, providing opportunities to integrate information and view both language and content from new perspectives (Stoller & Grabe, 1997). Table 2.4 shows how one thread could be used to link five different theme units.

Table 2.4: Thread that provides linkages among different themes

Thread that links various theme units	Themes
Responsibility to	Civil Rights
uphold civil rights for citizens	Pollution
control pollution	Demography
regulate family size	Solar System
conduct ethical research	Native Americans
protect endangered cultures	

2.4.4.5. Tasks

Tasks are the basic units of instruction through which the Six-T's Approach is realized on a daily routine. They are instructional activities and techniques utilized for content, language, and strategy instruction in language classrooms such as activities for teaching vocabulary, language structure, discourse organization, communicative Interaction, study skills, academic language skills. Tasks are planned in response to the texts being used in the Six T's Approach. That is, content resources drive task, decisions and planning.

Major tasks are sequenced within and across themes to realize curricular goals and are recycled with higher levels of complexity as students move from one theme unit to the next and as students progress through the academic year. This matter is done during an incooperation of learning with various tasks in the theme unit. These culminating activities require the synthesis of content information.

They help students develop the skills they will need in regular content-area courses, and provide a sense of successful completion for students as well (Brinton, Goodwin, and Ranks, 1994; Brinton, Snow, and Wesche, 1989; Chamot and O'Malley, 1994; and Mohan, 1996) (cited in Stoller & Grabe, 1997). Table 2.5 shows examples of tasks by Chaibi (2002) (cited in Bunyakarte, 2008: 30).

Table 2.5: Examples of Tasks

Focus of Instruction	Sample Tasks
Language skills	Pre-, during, post-reading activities; strategy training
Improvement (reading, writing, speaking, and listening)	Paced/speed reading; process writing (brainstorming, drafting, revising, editing; speed writes; conversational gambit practice; spontaneous speeches; directed listening)
Vocabulary building	World family exercise, semantic clustering, lexical sets and classification activities, dictionary practice, synonyms and antonyms, word wall activities
Discourse organization	Graphic organizers, strip stories
Communicative interaction	Role plays, simulation games, debates, problem-solving activities, class polls and interview, group work, cooperative learning
Study skills	Lectures and note-taking, test-taking strategies, library work

2.4.4.6. Transitions

Transitions are planned actions which provide coherence across topics in a theme unit and across tasks within topics. Transitions create links across topics and provide constructive entrees for new tasks and topics within a theme unit. Two major types of transitions are particularly effective topical and task transitions (Stoller & Grabe, 1997). Sample transitions that provide coherence across topics and tasks are illustrated in Table 2.6.

Table 2.6: Transition Activities

Transitions	Activities
Transition type	**Sample transition activities in a theme unit on demography**
Topical transitions	A deliberate shift in emphasis from global population trends, to trends in developing countries, to trends in developed countries, to trends in students' home countries. Students are explicitly made aware of these transitions.
Task transitions	Students are asked to (a) interpret a graph depicting population trends; (b) create a new graph with raw data obtained from a classroom survey; (c) write an interpretation of the new graph; (d) reconstruct the graph on the computer; and (e) incorporate the graph into a research paper, bulletin board display, or oral presentation.

Description and explanation of the Six T's are provided where themes are the basis for any curriculum planning, texts lead to the topic selection, topics then elicit and stimulate students' interests, creating connections that maintain student involvement and allowing for the completion of a final project, tasks are instructional activities through which the Six T's Approach is realized on daily activities. Transition and threads provide linkage in a content-based syllabus.

Stoller and Grabe suggest an outline of the Six T's Appraoch to language content instruction that can provide the broad interpretation of theme-based or content-based instruction. They point out that this approach has three main goals: (1) the specification of theme-based instruction is as central to all CBI, (2) the extension of CBI supports language-learning context as well as freedom to make major curriculum and content decisions among teachers and program supervisors, and (3) the organization of coherent content resources for the instruction and the selection of appropriate language learning activities. Therefore, materials writers can apply the

Six T's approach when writing instructional materials because it helps writers produce the exact needed materials in short time and contain different creativeness of both academic and physical designs more than ones widely sold in the market.

To summarize, when making decision about which tools to select in order to best accomplish learning objectives, materials writers should carefully consider these elements i.e. the various delivery systems available, the content or message to be conveyed, and the form in which information will be presented. No one type of media or materials is the most suitable for all students in promoting acquisition and retention of information. Most importantly, materials writers should bear in mind that instructional materials is not only written to supplement and support the educator's teaching efforts but also to complement the successful achievement of learner outcomes.

2.5. Self-instruction

The testimonial of education does much rely on alternative learning styles which support the concept of giving learners the opportunity in which knowledge can be acquired on their owe; outside of the disciplined classroom or the lesson plan. Such innovative approaches of learning are becoming more and more essential for education (Rodgers, 2002:4).

For ESP teachers, adult learners are the major client of educational settings who carry their own learning style and self-preferences for the class they attend. Inevitably, the idea of self-instruction or self-study should be raised among ESP practitioners and ESP learners because when the teachers cannot assist the learners in the traditional classroom, concepts of study independently will enhance another possible chance for acquiring knowledge as well.

2.5.1. Definitions of Self-Instruction

An alternative approach of learning among learners with their own pace, approach and attempting to create action to serve personal individual needs, skills, has been described as self-instruction (Dickinson, 1994: 5).

Benson (2001: 31) gives definition to self-instruction as self-instruction is learning under control of learners themselves rather than the patronage of the teacher. Such approach is an elaboration between self-access learning environments and learners by which knowledge can be gained.

Jones (1998: 378) defines self-instruction as individual learning that learners have their own learning objectives, skills, and strategies of which knowledge can be acknowledged by their learning plans.

From above definitions, self-instruction can be described as a mode of self-directed learning or self-study in which individual preferences of learning styles, contents, and other relevant aspects can be acquired by themselves and with their own paces (Detaramani and Chan, 1999: 124-157).

Guglielmino (1997) presents the eight scales in of readiness to learn independently known as the Self-directed Learning Readiness Scale (SDLRS) as follows:

1. Openness to learning opportunities: learners know what is the utmost knowledge for learning and know when, where, how, and why such know need to be known.

2. Self-concept as an effective learner: learners are knowledge seeker and prefer to learn for the entire life. They can manage the time to pursue their target knowledge, set their own learning objectives containing unlimited creativities

3. Initiative and Independence in learning: learners affectively acquire knowledge by themselves and cognitively think and are ready to all mistakes committed.

4. Informed acceptance of responsibility for one's own learning: learners know what they exactly need to know and realize their status in the community they belong.

5. Love of learning: learners always learn new things and taking examination is part of learning.

6. Creativity: learners know how to manage their learning through their learning styles. There is less important to be taught by the teachers as learning can be acquired independently.

7. Positive orientation to future: learners prefer to solve challenging problems and have ability to connect knowledge to their life-long plan. For them, library is the essential place for acquiring knowledge.

8. Ability to use basic study skills and problem-solving skills: learners are able to make decision and judgment for a particular challenging problem via listening, speaking, reading, and writing.

These eight criteria pay much attention to individual learning preference and individual readiness to acquire knowledge. However, the definition of Knowles remains useful since it is broad and descriptive. For Knowles (1975: 19-21), self-instruction is "a process in which individuals take the initiative, with or without the help of others, in diagnosing their learning needs, formulating learning goals, identifying human and materials resources for learning, choosing and implementing appropriate learning strategies, and evaluating learning outcomes."

In short, self-instruction is indeed congruent with the dimensions of that definition, namely, learners take initiative, diagnose their individual learning needs, formulate learning goals, identify and use learning resources, and evaluate learning outcomes.

2.5.2. Self-Instruction and Learning Theory

Self-instruction is learning approach that is grounded in humanistic, deterministic, constructivist, and transformative philosophies which build upon and complement each other (Lunyk-Child et al., 2000: 116-223)

An approach namely self-instruction lets individuals have freedom, within the boundaries of the curriculum goals and outcomes, to determine educational choices, and is ultimately responsible and accountable for the learning that occurs.

As learners develop their knowledge and skill base, they are encouraged to explore and use frameworks for learning. This exploration of approaches to learning together with an ongoing examination of beliefs, values, and experiences, leads to change which is internalized and attains personal and intrinsic meaning. For transformation to occur, learners need to be free to act and experience control over their learning destiny. This freedom is salient feature of problem-based learning which is widely adopted among educational settings whose learners prefer to learn independently with their own pace.

2.5.3. Characteristics of Self-Instructed Learners

Lunyk-Child et al. (2000) present chronological situations in which learners become self-instructed learner as follows:

1. In the beginning, learners may frequently express, say, frustration when they are asked to make decision and to determine how they will undertake learning

experiences and how evaluation should be made. Learners may not need to articulate their thinking process publicly as they will feel mistrust, suspicion, anxiety or doubt and finally become angry if the mistake is made.

Therefore, during this phase, teachers should initially facilitate their learners' learning process by providing clear statements of expected course outcome and complete descriptions of students evaluation methods is helpful in alleviating anxiety.

2. As learners progress their education, they will soon learn to trust their own abilities, and in time, to work either in group or individually, to make decisions about learning, to become responsible and accountable for their learning and finally their world view will be expanded. This second phase may take one or two terms for many learners to acknowledge the process of self-instruction and to cease problems explicitly (Rideout, 2001).

3. The last phase can explicit the self-instruction among learners as they direct their own inquiry about the problems presented, and can assist their peers in general hypothesis generation, data collection, and intervention. By expanding their knowledge to improve the quality of information, their critical appraisal skills can be developed simultaneously. By the end of the program, learners will become proficient at self-instruction holding skills that help them continue to learn and take control of their learning over their lifetime.

Kasworm (1983: 125-129) describes a similar process, comprised of five components that depict state of change over time of self-instruction as follows:

1. Learners become less authority to independence.

2. Learners gradually move away from extrinsic to intrinsic motivators for learning.

3. Learners will be proactive inquiry and able to evaluate themselves of their intellectual development.

4. Learners move from authority designated learning structures to learner-selected ones.

5. Finally, learners will adopt multidimensional strategies for planning and conducting professional learning activities

However, the aforementioned skills are not so exclusive that learners can simultaneously adopt all or even a combination of them in order to direct and control their learning experience. Lunyk-Child et al. (2000) suggest that personal attributes; empathy, communication, flexibility, negotiation skills, and insight, need to be fostered for such learners as to possess a positive way of learning and to share it with others.

2.6. Importance of Listening in English

The need to be able to understand English is increasing day by day. Therefore, a growing need for international citizens to be able to understand not just standard British or American spoken English but other varieties spoken around the world is also amplifying.

Hunt (1987:14) mentions that in 70% of working hours, listening comparing to speaking tends to be the most used modality when people want to communicate. Oxford (1993:206) adds that among the four skills in English, listening is more essential and plays more vital roles in communication than other three skills.

Rost (1994) (cited in Nunan and Miller, 2002:5) gives a summary of significance of English listening as follows:

1. Listening is essential in language learning as it acts as language input to the learners. If the learners unable to comprehend what has been input, they will learn nothing.

2. Listening initiates interaction. When the learners understand what is uttered, it means interaction happens. Hence, language learning occurs.

3. It is challenging for language learners to comprehend what is heard from authentic listening situations.

4. Listening practices relates to many interesting activities that motivate learners to learn more and more.

To summarize, listening is vital because learners of English can receive information on vocabulary, grammar, pronunciation, spoken word order, as well as the stress patterns of words, phrases and sentences. Besides, they can also register and retain words and phrases which they have already known to be acceptable for their own use later on. Therefore, without the skill of listening, there can be no language learning, and hence no communication (Stevenson, 2010).

2.6.1. Processes of Listening Language

According to Brindley (1997), listening process in second language are categorized into two main groups as follows:

The bottom-up process

This process initially relates to the identification of smallest units, the lowest level of detail and moving up to the highest level. Simply say, the listening

input is first decoded into phonemes (the smallest sound segments that can carry meaning), and this knowledge is used to identify words, then the processing continues to the next higher stage, an analysis of the semantic content and understanding of the basic linguistics meaning, and finally understand what the speakers mean.

The top-down process

On the other hand, the top-down process depends on the use of context and background knowledge to understand the meaning of the incoming message (Brindley, 1997:67). Buck (2001:3) believes that listening comprehension is a top-down process in the sense that various types of knowledge involved in understanding a language are not applied in any fixed order. He says that this can be referred to as an interactive process.

Brindley (1997) points out that in recent years, simple bottom-up or top-down processes have been rejected as inadequate for explaining how second language learners acquire input. Interactive-compensatory models that are based on the view that information from more than one level is utilized simultaneously have replaced them.

2.6.2. Factors Affecting Listening Language

Brindley (1997) gathered crucial factors that will affect ability of listening in English as follows:

Lexical knowledge: Lack of knowledge of key lexis can lead to miscommunication or breakdown. The ignorance of vocabulary was the major factor that causes lack of listening comprehension beyond the intermediate level of language learning.

Syntactic knowledge: Target language syntax seems to be an important factor in increasing the amount of linguistic material that can be retained in short-term memory.

Background knowledge: It is suggested that learners' background knowledge is of major importance in determining how the message heard can be interpreted. Background knowledge is obviously important in listening comprehension. If the listener shares the same knowledge as the speaker, much of what is said can be understood in terms of the top-down process.

Speech rate: A range of studies on the speech rate in SLA listening tests has been reviewed and it was found that the faster rates of delivery can significantly reduce comprehension.

Noise: The ability to understand the message of native and non-native learners when the noise ratio increases is different.

Contextual support: It is a very important fact affecting second language listening, particularly at the lower levels of ability.

Memory: It is obviously an important factor in language comprehension.

2.6.3. Benchmarks of listening in English

Listening comprehension is difficult to explain and to assess because it is an invisible cognitive operation. Buck (2001:1) adds that listening comprehension is a very complex process comparing to hearing which is a physical ability while listening is a skill. Listening skills allow one to make sense of and understand what another person is saying. In other words, listening skills allow you to understand what someone is "talking about".

Canadian English Language Benchmarks Assessment for Nurses (CELBAN) is an assessment tool designed for internationally educated nurses who are applying for licensure in the nursing profession in Canada. CELBAN is based on an extensive analysis of the language demands of the nursing profession across Canada. The content of the CELBAN reflects the language tasks that are required of nurses in the Canadian workplace for which the Canadian Language Benchmarks (CLB) use as a standard. General aspects of listening proficiency needed for those who wish to become nurse in Canada are as follows:

1. Follow most conversations at a normal rate of speech;

2. Obtain key information for important tasks in authentic exchanges and presentations in some demanding contexts of language use;

3. Infer speaker's bias and purpose, and some other attitudinal and socio-linguistic information;

4. Identify social roles, relationships, and relative status of speakers in dialogues;

5. Follow multi-step complex instructions for a familiar process or procedure;

6. Evaluate extended oral suggestions for solutions to problems, recommendations and proposals in relation to their purpose and audience; and

7. Identify facts, opinions and attitudes in conversations with abstract and complex ideas on a familiar topic.

Thailand's economy today depends mainly on worldwide competition, and for the country to be competitive globally, it is essential that workplace personnel

communicate competently in English. Therefore, English Language Development Center (ELDC) provides benchmarks of English listening skills for nurses as follows:

1. Understand verbal details of social exchanges e.g. greetings, leave-taking, introductions;

2. Identify patients' expressions used to attract attention; request assistance; appeal for repetition and clarification, and express complaints;

3. Understand and follow instructions, requests, orders and suggestions in a work situation;

4. Recognize key words and expressions related to work in dialogues and meetings;

5. Understand specific detailed information in moderately complex work-related dialogues, reports, presentations and meetings;

6. Follow formal advice, instructions, directions, recommendations and warnings on work related processes and procedures;

7. Understand phone or voice-mail messages on familiar topics related to work;

8. Identify attitudes, emotions and intentions of patients and colleagues; and

9. Understand different accents.

From these two aforementioned benchmarks of listening skills needed for nurses, there should be a summary of English listening skills needed for student nurses as follows:

1. Recognize vocabularies related to the health science;

2. Detect key words such as those identifying topics and main ideas;

3. Understand inferred information e.g. speaker's attitude or intention;

4. Guess meaning from context;

5. Retain chunks of language in short-term memory;

6. Recognize basic syntactic patterns;

7. Detect sentence constituents such as subject, verb, object, and prepositions;

8. Recognize reduced forms of words e.g. I'll, I'm gonna;

9. Recognize typical word-order patterns e.g...., aren't I?, ..., isn't it?; and

10. Recognize stress and rhythm patterns, tone patterns, or intonation contour.

2.7. Synthesis of Previous Related Researches

Several researchers have conducted the study about self-study. This matter has urged the researcher to conduct another research in order to find out the potential of self-instructional materials that can affect the level of acquiring English.

Dhuwadaratrakul (2543) conducted the research of the level of readiness to self-directed learning from 264 secondary students of Sacred Heart Convent School, Chiang Mai by adapting the SDLRS of Fuglielmino (1997) and found that participants were ready to adapt self-directed learning into their learning environment but only two aspects i.e. initiative and independence in learning and creativity were still neglected in the teaching application.

Yeung and Hyland (1999:158-174) studied the effectiveness of using self-access learning as the facilitator in the English business course in Lingnan College, Hong Kong. The results revealed that though most students did not feel that enough

guidance was provided from their teachers they still had a positive attitude toward using SAL for improving their English language learning and found it an interesting form of learning more than the traditional classroom.

Detaramani (1999: 124-157) presented the positive result from their study of needs, attitudes, and motivation towards learning language by adopting self-instruction approach with 585 students from City University of Hong Kong. The results revealed that the participants who were keen on integrating self-instruction by attending more self-access center relatively possessed an improvement in English. They have also valued the strong extrinsic motivation to improve their English by learning with multimedia and facilities focusing on developing speaking and listening skills.

Klunklin et al.,(2010:177-181) conducted a study to reveal the high level of readiness in which self-directed was integrated in learning process among 272 student nurses at Chiang Mai University. The overall self-directed learning readiness of participants was at a high level of openness. They viewed the self-directed learning as an effective approach, initiative and independence in learning, informed acceptance of responsibility for one's own learning, creativity, and the ability to use basic study and problem solving skills. These findings encouraged nurse educators to apply self-directed learning into their courses in order to improve their teaching methods and to promote life-long learning for all student nurses in Thailand.

Nonetheless, there is quite little number of researches over self-instructional materials that have been done with the learning outcome of student nurses in terms of English listening. Therefore, it is interesting for the researcher to conduct the research on the development of self-instructional materials based on needs of student nurses as

the results from the study will be an another insistence of the value in integrating SIMS into language learning.

2.8. The Present Study

Since the purpose of this study is to develop self-instructional materials for student nurses who wish to possess another level in English listening skills, theories and frameworks related to ESP materials design and self-directed learning were carefully selected and integrated into the process of developing the proposed self-instructional materials to enhance English listening skills for student nurses. The self-instructional materials of the present study have illustrated an integration of EAP and EOP in which the materials are developed for nursing students and contents along with texts are derived from needs of student nurses themselves.

The researcher hopes that the developed self-instructional materials are able to help student nurses improve their listening skills needed for their future hospital oriented tasks and turn them to be autonomous learners who wish to pursue new knowledge for their entire life.