CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

This chapter aims to present related literature on needs analysis in the field of English for Specific Purposes (ESP). This literature review is divided into four sections. First, definitions of keys terms are clarified. Second, needs analysis conceptual frameworks are reviewed. Then, characteristics of business English are discussed in the third section. Finally, a review of previous studies including a review of topics in needs analysis studies and a review of the methods employed in those studies are presented in the last section.

Definitions and Conceptualizations of Needs Analysis
in English for Specific Purposes (ESP)

English for Specific Purposes

There has been much discussion in literature as to the origins of ESP. According to Dudley-Evans and St John (1998), in the 1950s and 1960s, developments in the international economy such as the growth of science and technology, the increased used of English as the international language of science, technology and business, the increased economic power of certain oil-rich countries and the increased number of international students studying in the UK, USA, and Australia, led to the full development of the ESP movement. Despite sometimes diverging from trends in general English Language Teaching (ELT), ESP has always focused on practical outcomes and attached importance to needs analysis, text analysis and preparing learners to communicate effectively in given situations. Although, English for Occupational Purposes (EOP) was important, the teaching of English for Academic Purposes (EAP) was dominant in ESP during its early years. Recently, however, the field of English for Business Purposes (EBP) has massively grown due to the increase of international trade. Nowadays, Business English represents the largest part of published materials within ESP.

Streven (1980: 105-106) states that as the use of English has recently and massively expanded in world, the demand for instruction in English as a Foreign Language (EFL) has also grown and this demand is more and more specific to the learners' needs. Prominent in the 1970s, the part of 'general English' in EFL has decreased and 'functional English' or ESP has become more and more important. This can be due to various factors: 1) The needs of English as a communication tool, independently of cultural values associated to the language; 2) The needs for newly independent multilingual societies to develop their economy; 3) The emergence of 'localized forms of English' adapted to local communicative needs; 4) The strong reaction against the use of English in some activities to the detriment of local languages in some newly independent nations; and 5) As a result, a more selective acceptance of English, limited to specific areas, has appeared in some countries.

Since ESP gained wider recognition, numerous scholars have defined the field. All the definitions consider the learners' needs as an essential aspect of ESP.

Munby (1978: 2) asserts that the principal characteristic of ESP courses is that they are centred on the learner's needs, in terms of syllabus and materials, rather than on nonlearner-centred criteria while Streven (1980: 108) adds that the purpose of the learning of English and the needs of the learner both define the nature of ESP. Appropriate language content and sometimes restriction of the language skills to be learned are required. A working definition of ESP can therefore be stated as follows:

'ESP entails the provision of English language instruction: devised to meet the learner's particular needs; related in themes and topics to designated occupations or areas of study; selective (i.e. 'not general') as to language content; and when indicated, restricted as to the language "skills" included.' (ibid)
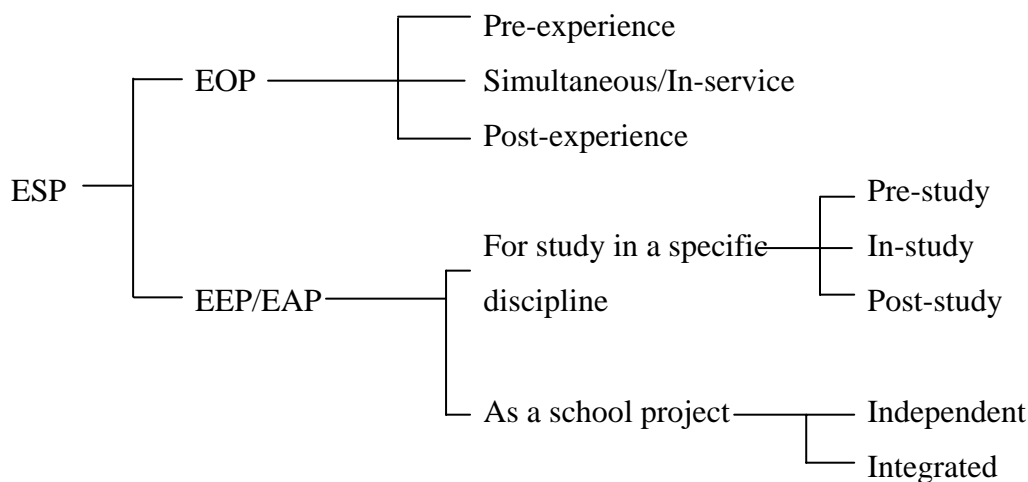
Hutchinson and Waters (1987: 19) point out that as ESP does not involve a particular kind of language, teaching material or methodology, it is more an approach than a product. They suggest that 'the foundation of ESP is the simple question: Why

does this learner need to learn a foreign language?' Need is defined by the reasons for which the student is learning English, which will vary from study purposes to work purposes and the language to be taught stems from these purposes.

Robinson (1991: 3) also puts the emphasis on needs analysis to define ESP and bases her definition on two key criteria: ESP is 'normally goal-directed', and ESP courses develop from a needs analysis; and a number of characteristics of ESP courses: they are time limited and taught to homogeneous adult classes.

It is worth noting that, according to Dudley-Evans and St John (1998: 4-5), ESP teaching uses a specific methodology that differs from that employed in general English teaching. This methodology concerns 'the nature of the interaction between the ESP teacher and the learners.' Therefore, for them ESP can be defined as using absolute and variable characteristics. There are three absolute characteristics: 1) ESP is designed to meet specific needs of the learners; 2) ESP makes use of the underlying methodology and activities of the discipline it serves; and 3) ESP is centred on the language (grammar, lexis, register), skills, discourse and genres appropriate to these activities. The four variable characteristics are: 1) ESP may be related to or designed for specific discipline; 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; and 4) ESP is generally designed for intermediate or advanced students.

ESP is traditionally divided into two main fields: *English for Academic Purposes* (EAP) and *English for Occupational Purposes* (EOP) and presented in a tree diagram (see Figure 2.1). This diagram highlights the moment when the courses are taken as well as the traditional distinction between EAP and EOP. Indeed, the degree of specificity that is appropriate to the course will depend on the moment this course takes place.

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                                    ┌── Pre-experience
              EOP ──────────────────┼── Simultaneous/In-service
             ┌                      └── Post-experience
             │                              ┌── Pre-study
ESP ─────────┤                   For study  ├── In-study
             │                   in a specifie└── Post-study
             └── EEP/EAP ────────┤ discipline
                                 │
                                 └── As a school project ──┬── Independent
                                                           └── Integrated
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Figure 2.1 ESP classification by experience
Source: Dudley-Evans & St John (1998: 6)

Another diagram divides EAP and EOP according to discipline or professional field (see Figure 2.2). EAP is constituted of *English for Science and Technology* (EST), *English for Medical Purposes* (EMP), *English for Legal Purposes* (ELP), and *English for Management, Finance, Economics, Banking, and Accounting*. EOP, English that is not for academic purposes, can be divided into *English for Professional Purposes* (EPP) and *English for Vocational Purposes* (EVP). Since a business purpose is an occupational purpose and despite the fact that *English for Business Purposes* (EBP) involves a lot of general English, it is then a category within EPP (ibid: 6).
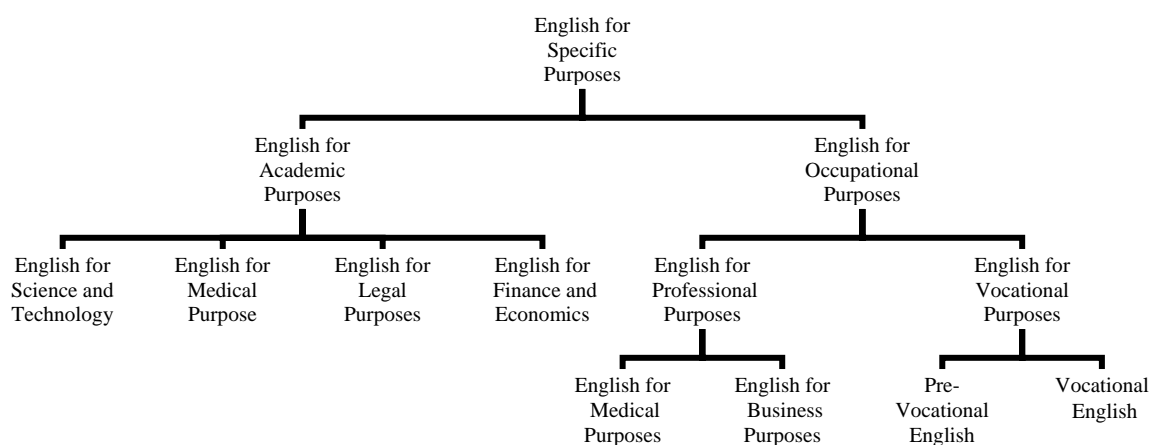
Figure 2.2 ESP classification by professional area
Source: Dudley-Evans & St John (1998: 6)

Needs Analysis

In language teaching, needs analysis is fundamental in the field of specific-purposes program design (Robinson 1980 cited in Richards 1990: 2) but it is also crucial to the planning of general language courses.

In the area of curriculum development it is assumed that an analysis of learners' needs should be the base of a well-constructed educational program. Procedures used to collect information about learners' needs are known as *needs analysis*. Needs analysis was introduced into language teaching through the ESP movement. Since the 1960s, when the demand for specific language programs began to grow, needs analysis has been more and more widely used in language teaching (Richards 2001: 51). This is notably due to the adoption and espousal of need-analysis procedures by The Council of Europe's modern language project during the 1970s. These procedures were used to specify behavioural objectives which then were employed to establish more detailed aspects of the syllabus such as functions, notions, topics, lexis and structural exponents (Nunan 1988: 43). By the 1980s, in many parts of the world a "needs-based philosophy" appeared in language teaching, especially in relation to ESP and vocationally oriented program design (Richards 2001: 51).

Needs

Needs can be defined differently from scholar to scholar. First, in a *goal-oriented perspective*, needs are considered as what students have to be able to do at the end of their language course, be it study or job requirements (Widdowson 1983: 2). Second, we can consider 'what the learner needs to do to actually acquire the language. This is a *process-oriented* definition of needs and relates to transitional behaviour, the means of learning' (ibid). Third, needs can mean 'what the user-institution or society at large regards as necessary or desirable to learnt from a program of language instruction' (Mountford 1978: 27). Fourth, needs can be seen as 'what the students themselves would like to gain from the language course' (Robinson 1991: 7). Fifth, needs can mean 'lacks, that is, what the students do not know or

cannot do in English' (ibid: 8). Finally, Porcher (1977 cited in Brindley 1984: 29) states that 'need is not a thing that exists and might be encountered ready-made on the street. It is a thing that is constructed, the center of conceptual networks and the product of a number of epistemological choices'. In such an approach, needs depend on judgment and reflect the interests and values of those making such a judgment.

As can be seen above, the term *needs* is not as clear-cut as it might seem, and consequently the term may be employed to refer to wants, desires, demands, expectation, motivations, lacks, constraints, and requirement (Brindley 1984: 28).

Needs analysis

Nunan (1988: 45) defines needs analysis as 'a set of procedures for specifying the parameters of a course of study'. Such parameters include the criteria and rational for grouping learners, the selection and sequencing of course content, methodology, and course length, intensity and duration. Needs-analysis procedures produce a sizeable amount of data, including information about the context of the language program, the learners, the teachers, and the administrative factors that affect the program (Richards 1990: 3). Ellis and Johnson (1995: 222) also give a definition of needs analysis as follow:

> Needs analysis is a method of obtaining a detailed description of a learner's needs (or group of learners' needs). It will take into account the specific purposes for which the learner will use the language, the kind of language to be used, the starting level, and the target level which is to be achieved. The information could be obtained from a range of different people: company staff, trainers, and the learners themselves. It will have implications for the approach to training that will be taken.

Needs analysis can be described as 'the process of determining the needs for which a learner or group of learners requires a language and arranging the needs

according to priorities … [it] makes use of both subjective and objectives information' (Richards et al. 1992 cited in Jordan 1997: 20).

Richards (2001: 51) defines needs analysis as 'procedures used to collect information about learners' needs' while Dusley-Evans and St John (1998: 121-122) add that it is 'the process of establishing the *what* and *how* of a course; evaluation is the process of establishing the effectiveness'.

During the past twenty years, the purposes of needs analysis have been identified more and more accurately.

According to Richards (1985: 6), the aims of a needs analysis are to determine situations, tasks, and activities in which learners will use English and those learners' present level of competence. More precisely, the purpose of needs analysis is to determine general and specific language needs that can be dealt with in developing the various components of a language program. Focusing either on the general parameters of a language program or on a specific needs, needs analysis concentrates on the learner's present level of proficiency and the proficiency required at the end of the course. Need analysis is used to determine the type of language skills and level of language competence the program should aim to deliver, the learners' various objectives being identified and taken into account before content and method are drawn up (Richards and Rodgers 1986: 156).

Regarding the conception and implementation of language courses, Richards (1990: 1-2) adds:

> needs analysis should serve three purposes: providing a mechanism for obtaining a wider range of input into the content, design, and implementation of a language program through involving such people as learners, teachers, administrators, and employers in the planning process; identifying general or specific language needs that can be addressed in developing goals, objectives, and content for a language program; and providing data that can serve as the basis for reviewing and evaluating an existing program.

Richards (2001: 52) refines on his analysis and points out that needs analysis in language teaching may be used for a number of different purposes: to find out what language skills a learner needs in order to perform a particular role; to help determine if an existing course adequately addresses the needs of potential students; to determine which students from a group are most in need of training in particular language skills; to identify a change of direction that people in a reference group feel is important; to identify a gap between what students are able to do and what they need to be able to do; and to collect information about a particular problem learners are experiencing.

Classifications of Needs and Learner needs

Before carrying out a needs analysis study, it is necessary to clarify the term "*need*". One of the best known classifications is the "*hierarchy of needs*" established by Maslow (1970) (See Figure 2.3).
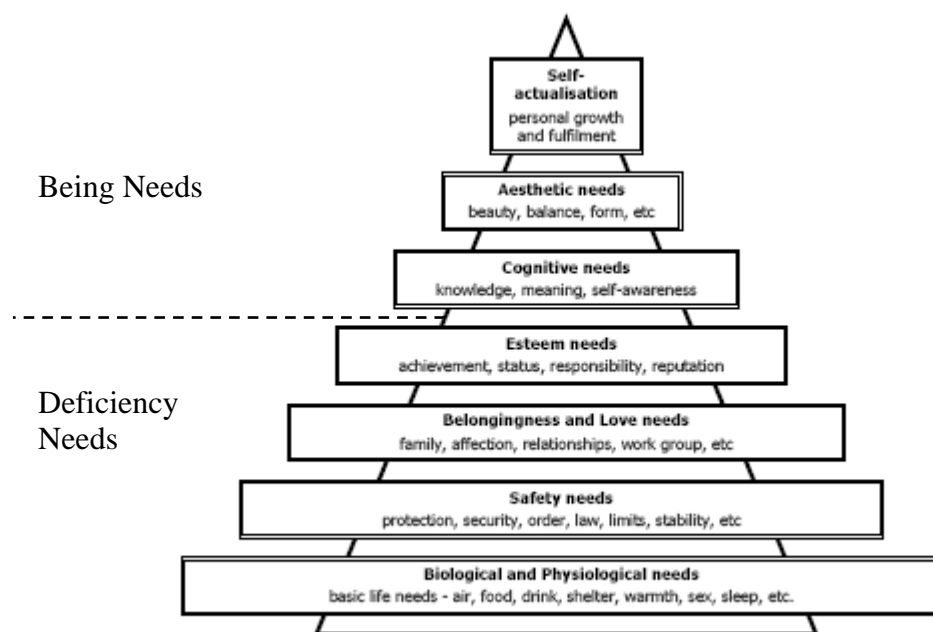
Figure 2.3 Hierarchy of Needs (1970's model based on Maslow)
Source: Chapman (2002)

According to this model, usually presented in the form of a pyramid, needs are divided into *deficiency needs* (basic needs) and *being needs* (meta needs). The former are subdivided into four layers directly related to a person's physiological requirements and consist of biological and physiological needs (air, food, drink, shelter, warmth, sex, sleep), safety needs (protection from elements, security, order, law, limits, stability), belongingness and love needs (work group, family, affection, relationships), and esteem needs (self-esteem, achievement, mastery, independence, status, dominance, prestige, managerial responsibility). The later, which are in higher positions than deficiency needs, are subdivided into cognitive needs (knowledge, understanding, meaning), aesthetic needs (appreciation and search for beauty, balance, form), and self-actualisation needs (realising personal potential, self-fulfillment, seeking personal growth and peak experiences). People fulfill high level needs once lower level needs are met, (Williams and Burden, 1997: 33-35).

This study was mainly based on cognitive needs, that is the Government Savings Bank staff needs of knowledge and understanding of the English language.

Concerning learner needs, Richards (2001: 34-35) concludes that various types of students have various language needs and what they are taught should be limited to what they need. These needs are fairly specific; they can be identified, and they should determine the content of any courses.

Mackay (1978: 28) roughly divides learner needs into *academic needs*: where English is required for further academic study, for example, medical students requiring English in order to understand lectures and read medical textbooks in English; and *job needs*: where English is required in order to perform a particular practical job. For instance, technicians requiring English in order to work on a project in which English is used.

Hutchinson and Waters (1987: 54) describe the differences between two types of needs: *target needs* and *learning needs*. *Target needs* refers to what the learner needs to do in the target situation. Hutchinson and Waters states that, in order to

analyse *target needs*, course designers should determine why the language is needed; how the language will be used; what the content areas will be; who the learner will use the language with; where the language will be used; and when the language will be used. They also subdivide target needs into 'necessities', 'lacks' and 'want'. *Necessities* (also called 'objective needs') means what the learner has to know in order to function effectively in the target situation. *Lacks* represents the gap between the target proficiency and what the learner knows already. *Wants* or subjective needs of the learner can be referred to the perception of the need of the learners, which is what the learners want or feel they need. Accordingly, the necessities that the learner lacks can form the basis of the language syllabus. Both 'necessities' and 'lacks' can be regarded as being objective, whereas 'wants' can be regarded as being subjective. *Learning needs* refers to what the learner needs to do in order to learn. Hutchinson and Waters assert that, in order to analyse *learning needs*, course designers should find out why the learners are taking the course; how the learners learn; what resources are available; where the ESP (or EAP) course will take place; and when the ESP (or EAP) course will take place.

Needs can also be described in terms of *objective needs* and *subjective needs.* Brindley (1984: 31) explains the distinctions between objective needs and subjective needs as follows: *objective needs* are those which can be determined by instructors on the basis of the analysis of personal data about learners along with information about their language proficiency and patterns of language use while s*ubjective needs* (which are often 'wants', 'desires', 'expectations', or 'lack') cannot be identified as easily, or, in many cases, even stated by learners themselves. Nunan (1988: 44) concludes that o*bjective needs* analysis produces content requirements derived from an analysis of the target communicative situations in which learners are likely to find themselves while *subjective needs*, on the other hand, are derived from the learners themselves. In short, a simply analysis of *objective needs* will not produce a teaching syllabus, but it can be a useful beginning in a two stage objective/subjective approach, in which information on learners and their intended use of the target language is collected before the course.

In this research, *needs* refers to what the Government Savings Bank staff want to be able to do in terms of using the English language in their job. *Learner needs* refers to what the Government Savings Bank staff want to learn and gain from language training courses. Therefore, *learner needs* in this study can be described as *job needs* (where English is needed to carry out a specific practical job) and *subjective needs* (*wants*) which are what the learners want or perceive they need.

A Review of Needs Analysis Conceptual Frameworks

Under the umbrella of needs analysis, various approaches have been integrated; *Target Situation Analysis* (TSA), *Present Situation Analysis* (PSA), and the language audit seem to be the most common.

Target Situation Analysis (TSA)

TSA concentrates on the students' target needs at the end of the language course. It is proceeded in two steps: first the identification of the target situation and then the analysis of the target tasks linguistic features and knowledge requirement of that situation (Robinson 1980). The best-known framework for TSA is formulated by Munby (1978). The core of his model is the 'Communicative Needs Processor' (CNP) which contains nine variables, relating to the learners' communicative requirements (participant, purposive domain, setting, interaction, instrumentality, dialect, target level, communicative event, and communicative key) and dynamic interplay between them.

Munby's model consists of two stages: Communication Needs Processor (CNP) and the interpretation of the profile of needs derived from the CNP as shown in Figure 2.4
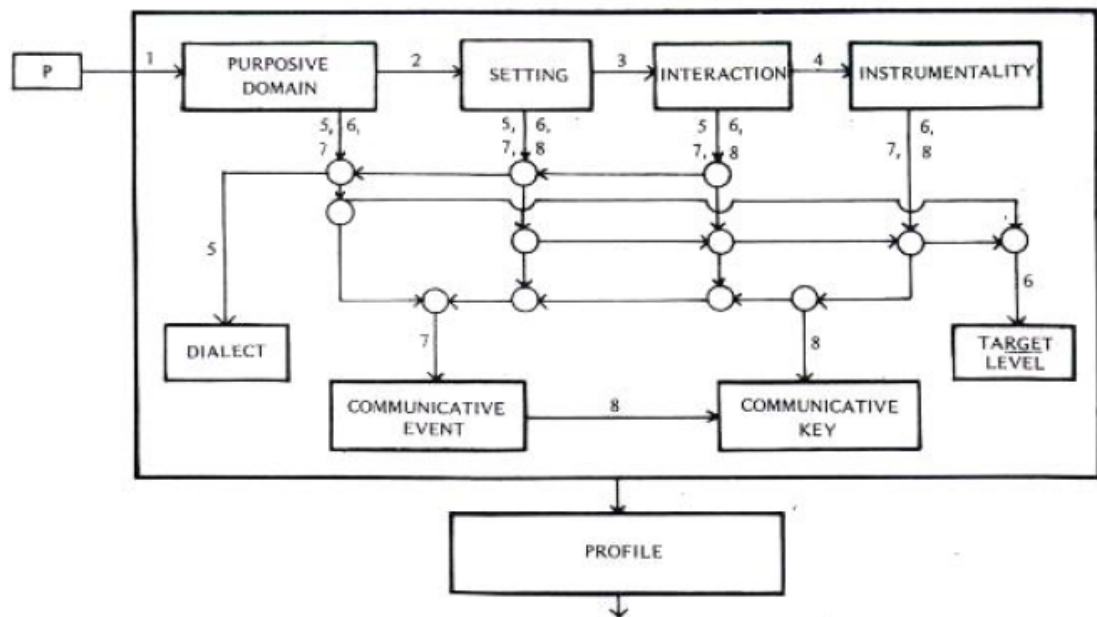
Figure 2.4 Communication Needs Processor (CNP)
Source: Munby (1978:32)

Munby (1978) proposes a process for learners' needs analysis called "The Communication Needs Processor" (CNP), which comprises nine parameters:

1. Participant: participant is someone who takes part in an act of communication involving a foreign language. This information is obtained under the following headings.

    1.1 Identity
       - Age
       - Sex
       - Nationality
       - Place of residence

    1.2 Language
       - Mother tongue (L1)
       - Target language (TL)

- Present level/command of the TL i.e. zero, false beginner, elementary, lower intermediate, upper intermediate, advanced.

- Other language(s) known (L2)

- Extent of command (in broad terms) of L2

2. Purposive domain: this parameter establishes the type of ESP, for what purpose.

2.1 If occupational, will it be pre-experience or post-experience ESP?

2.2 If educational, will it be discipline-based or school subject ESP?

2.2.1 If discipline-based, will it be pre-study or in-study ESP?

2.2.2 If school subject, will it be independent or integrated ESP?

3. Setting: the situational variable that refers to the time and place of the communication, i.e. the physical circumstances in which the language will be used.

3.1 Physical setting: spatial

- Location e.g. country, town, en-route

- Place of work (occupational) e.g. hotel, factory, airport

- Place of study and study setting e.g. university, classroom

- Other places

3.2 Physical setting: temporal

- Point of time i.e. when is English required most?

- Duration i.e. how many hours per day/week is English required?

- Frequency i.e. is English required regularly/ often/ occasionally/seldom?

3.3 Psychosocial setting is that in which the participant will use English e.g. culturally similar or different, age/sex discriminating or not, public or private, formal or informal.

4. Interaction: the situational variable that identifies the other participants with whom the input communicates in the target language and the relationships that may be predicted as existing between them i.e. social relationship e.g. instructor-learner, doctor-patient. For example, a Spanish-speaking teacher of English in a technical school in Mexico would have a target language role-set consisting only of the pupils he teaches and foreign visiting educationists. There are four components of this parameter.

4.1 Position: state the participant's position in which he enacts a particular role e.g. university lecturer/teacher.

4.2 Role set: identify the target language role-set i.e. the different people with whom he will interact in English, by virtue of his position, taking account into the physical setting, especially location and place of work/study e.g. students he teaches, other teachers, visiting educationists.

4.3 Role-set identity: identify participants for each member/group of the target language role-set in terms of the following:

4.3.1 Number e.g. individual, small group, large group.
4.3.2 Age-group e.g. elderly, adult, adolescent, child, mixed.
4.3.3 Sex e.g. male, female, mixed.
4.3.4 Nationality e.g. British, American.

4.4 Social relationships

This means those that are implied by the role relationships i.e. the interaction of the position with each member/group of the role set e.g. instructor-learner (teacher-learners), native-non-native (teacher-other teacher/visitors), stranger-stranger (teacher-visiting educationists).

5. Instrumentality: how information is obtained i.e. the medium and channel of communication that the particular participant requires.

5.1 Medium of communication

This refers to the basic distinction between speaking and writing. The participant's communication in the target language has to take place in either the spoken or written medium, or in both of them.

5.2 Mode of communication

There is a distinction between monologue and dialogue which results from nature of the participation in the language event. The required mode of communication may be specified in terms of the following:

5.2.1 monologue, spoken to be heard
5.2.2 monologue, spoken to be written
5.2.3 monologue, written to be read
5.2.4 monologue, written to be read as if heard
5.2.5 monologue, written to be spoken
5.2.6 monologue, written to be spoken as if not written
5.2.7 dialogue, spoken to be heard
5.2.8 dialogue, written to be read
5.2.9 dialogue, written to be read as if heard
5.2.10 dialogue, written to be spoken
5.2.11 dialogue, written to be spoken as if not written

5.3 Channel of communication

This is the channel through which the communication in the target language will take place, e.g. television, print. The example of the subcategories of channel may be illustrated as follows:

5.3.1 face-to-face (bilateral)

5.3.2 telephone

5.3.3 radio contact

5.3.4 print (bilateral)

5.3.4 face-to-face (unilateral)

5.3.5 public address system

5.3.6 radio (live relay)

5.3.7 television (live relay)

5.3.8 disc

5.3.9 tape (audio/video)

5.3.10 film

5.3.11 print (unilateral)

6. Dialect: it is necessary to identify, as part of the communication requirements of a participant, the dialects of the target language which they will have to command receptively and productively.

6.1 Regional dialect e.g. British English, American English, Australian English.

6.2 Social-class dialect e.g. upper class, middle class, working class English.

6.3 Temporal dialect e.g. old, middle, modern English.

7. Target level: this is to act as reference points in the development of the learning programs for specific categories of learners. It should be stated in terms that will guide the further processing through the model. The defining characteristics of level are its dimension, and the conditions on those dimensions, all as related to verbal medium. Six dimensions of level may be postulated. They are size of utterance/text, complexity of utterance/text, range of forms/micro-functions/micro-skills, delicacy of

forms/micro-functions/micro-skills, speed of communication, and flexibility of communication.

8. Communicative event: it is the main and other events that the participant is required to handle English at and then specify for each event its activities and subject matter. Events derive basically from the nature of the participant's work (information obtained from purposive domain) and the interaction of relevant inputs from the following variables: occupational/ educational purpose, physical setting, role-set, medium, mode and channel.

9. Communicative key: this is concerned with how (in the sense of manner) one does the activities comprising an event (what he does). It is based on input information from relevant derivational sources, namely the participant's identity, role-set identity, social relationships, and psychosocial setting. For each event, the activities are identified together with keys which the participant needs to be able to produce, recognize and understand. For example, in the event of a customs officer checking for illegal export of goods, the activities may be ensuring passengers understand regulations on illegal exports. The keys are to be courteous, formal, and dissuasive.

Present Situation Analysis (PSA)

PSA is complementary to TSA. It investigates the students' state of language development at the beginning of the language course, ascertaining their strengths and weaknesses. According to Richterich and Chancerel (1980), there are three main sources of information: the students themselves, the language-teaching establishment, and the 'user-institution'. This approach concentrates on the learner, who is regarded as being the principle variable in the analyses, and all other variables need to be considered in relation to the language needs of the learner. The main focus is on 'the freedom of choice' of the learner after considering the other interdependent variables and also that 'identification of language needs is the most favourable means of seeking a compromise' between the interdependent variables (ibid).

The Language Audit

The language audit is a combination of TSA and PSA used in language training for business and industry. According to Pilbeam (1979 cited in Robinson 1991: 10), the first step is to identify 'the precise language skills needed to carry out specific jobs' and establish 'a *target profile of language skills* as part of a job description'. This is achieved by identifying the tasks or activities performed by the learners in their jobs and then determining the level of language proficiency required for these tasks. The next step is to establish a profile of present ability. Finally, the auditor must determine how much language training is needed to bridge any gap between the employee' present ability profile and the company's target profile.

In conclusion, it can be summarized that learners' needs analysis is very crucial and must be done before setting up the course so that the course serves the learners' needs. In this study, TSA is taken into account in order to analyse the English language needs of the Government Savings Bank staff. Since Munby's model covers the most expansive field of needs analysis, the researcher has applied it as a framework. The business skills checklist published in "Teaching Business English" (Ellis and Johnson 1995: 36) was also used as guidance to design questions for the questionnaire used in this study.

English for Business Purposes

Business English shares common characteristics with other varieties of English for specific purposes (ESP), as it is based on needs analysis, syllabus design, course design, and materials selection and development. It also requires defining a specific language corpus and uses particular kinds of communication in a specific context. However, as it is often a mix of specific context and general content, business English differs from other areas of ESP (Ellis and Johnson 1994: 3).

As English has become the international language of business, most English-medium communications in business are non-native speaker to non-native speaker (NNS-NNS), and the English they use is International English, not that of native speakers (NS) of English-medium countries such as the UK and Australia (Dudley-Evans 1998: 53).

Business English is difficult to define and, as highlighted by Pickett (1986: 16 cited in Dudley-Evans & St John 1998: 54), business communication is multifarious with some of it being 'a lot nearer the everyday language spoken by the general public than many other segments of ESP'. As shown in Figure 2.5, the emphasis is put on two particular aspects of business communication: communication with the public and communication among businesses:

GENERAL ENGLISH

↑

Communication with Public

↑

BUSINESS ENGLISH

↓

Communication Among Businesses

Insurance etc.   Petroleum etc. Banking etc.
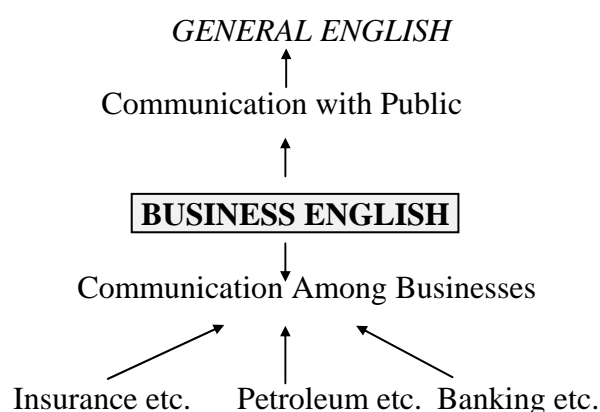
Figure 2.5 The specialised language of particular businesses
Source: Adapted from Dudley-Evans & St John (1998: 54)

According to Dudley-Evans and St John (1998: 55-56), EBP can be divided into English for General Business Purposes (EGBP) and English for Specific Business Purposes (ESBP). Intended for pre-experience learners or those at the very early stages of their career, EGBP courses are similar to general EFL courses with the materials set in business contexts. In contrast, ESBP courses are run for job-experienced learners who bring business knowledge and skills to the language-learning situation and are carefully adapted to their needs.

As one of the main characteristics of Business English is the emphasis on performance, most business learners need to acquire confidence and fluency in speaking, skills for organizing and structuring information, sufficient language accuracy to be able to communicate ideas without ambiguity and without stress for the listener, strategies for following the main points of fast, complex, and imperfect speech, strategies for clarifying and checking unclear information, speech of reaction to the utterances of others, clear pronunciation and delivery, and an awareness of appropriate language and behaviour for the cultures and situations in which they will operate.

These criteria need to be considered in the context of specific business situations which the learner will be involved in. In order to successfully carry out the tasks required in their profession, a learner will have to master various skills (Ellis and Johnson 1994: 35-36). A checklist of business skills is given in Table 2.1.

Table 2.1 Business Skills Checklist

Listening
- Following presentations, lectures, or talks
- Following instructions
- Following descriptions and explanations
- Following training sessions
Speaking
- Giving a formal presentation
- Giving an informal presentation
- Instructing of demonstrating on the job
- Giving descriptions and explanations

Table 2.1 (Continued)

Reading	
Documents	*Skills*
- Telexes	Reading for detail
- Letters and faxes	
- Memos and short reports	
- Professional journals	Reading quickly for general information
- Textbooks	
- Long reports	Scanning for specific points
- Contracts and legal documents	
- Technical specifications and manuals	

Writing

- Telexes

- Letters and faxes

- Long reports and article for professional journals

- Editing the letters or reports of others

Interacting

- Visiting a company or receiving visitors

- Showing visitors around or being shown around

- Entertaining or being entertained

- Participating in discussions and informal meetings

- Participating in formal meetings

- Chairing meetings

- Interviewing

- Negotiating

- Telephoning

A Review of Previous Studies

Review of Topics in Needs Analysis Studies

Many research studies have been conducted in Thailand and worldwide on needs analysis, concerning ESP, for both English for Occupational Purposes (EOP) and English for Academic Purposes (EAP). This section presents needs analysis studies concerning EAP, EOP, and EBP, respectively.

Needs Analysis of English for Academic Purposes

Parkhurst (1994) analysed the verbal communication needs of pharmacy students at Massachusetts College of Pharmacy and Allied Health Sciences. The results showed that the students needed a greater awareness of, and ability to repair, their verbal communication deficiencies.

Kormos (2002) investigated the language needs of English majors in Hungary. It was found that students used English mainly for academic purposes during their university studies. The most important functions for English majors in their future occupation seemed to be expressing their opinion, reading texts on the Internet, conversing with non-native speakers, writing e-mail messages, giving explanations and instructions, and translating oral and written English in a variety of occupations.

Deutch (2003) conducted a needs analysis of Israeli law students studying English as a foreign language. The findings revealed that needs were simultaneously global, stemming from both the historical and present indebtedness of Israeli law to English law and the common law system, and individual, including both short term and long term needs. This study provided a balanced presentation of the language learning situation in Israeli law schools.

Jackson (2003) studied the problems facing professors who used cases in their business courses (case leaders) and explored the views of Asian business students concerning case-based learning in a Hong Kong university. The results highlighted the needs for culture and context-specific preparation for case leaders and students.

Pritchard and Nasr (2004) carried out a needs analysis to establish the major skill deficiencies of the third level engineering students at an Egyptian College of Technology. It was found that the ESP teachers needed to assimilate subject concepts from their learners and negotiate meaning with them rather than presenting themselves as the primary information providers.

Kim (2005) surveyed the attitudes of East Asian international graduate students concerning required academic oral communication skill levels in their university courses. They considered formal oral presentations and listening comprehension the most important skills for academic success in graduate courses, and pronunciation of English and note-taking skills the least important.

Seingsawang (2006) studied the academic writing needs of MA/ESP students at Kasetsart University. All participants shared specific needs and objectives in academic writing in English. The needs to perform were found to be academic-related tasks such as preparation of a thesis, assignments, essays and reports.

Evans and Green (2007) investigated the language problems experienced by Cantonese-speaking students at Hong Kong's largest English-medium university. The results revealed that a large number of participants encountered difficulties when studying content subjects in the English language, mainly in the fields of academic writing and academic speaking. The students' receptive and productive vocabularies were also found to be insufficient. Academic listening seemed to present students with fewer difficulties than writing, speaking and reading.

Needs Analysis of English for Occupational Purposes

Ketkhew (1997) investigated the needs for English, the important functions of the language, the problems in using the language and the need to improve the English skills of the cabin attendants of Thai Airways International. The results revealed that the most needed skills were speaking and listening.

Blue and Harun (2002) studied the 'hospitality language' (particular patterns of language associated with host-guest interaction) of the hotel staff of four hotels in Southampton in the United Kingdom, and found that some hospitality skills could be developed through in-service training.

Meemark (2002) investigated the English language needs of tourist police officers in Thailand, focusing on the English language used in routine jobs and the problems faced by the officers. The results indicated that the tourist police of all sections strongly needed all four English language skills (listening, speaking, writing, and reading). Listening was considered the most important.

Aunruen (2005) studied the needs analysis of English for travel agents in Chiang Mai and the problems they experienced when using English to communicate with foreign clients. The findings showed that English was rated as important, speaking was the most needed skill and the lowest needs were grammar, appropriate expressions and pronunciation. The participants hardly encountered problems with tourism vocabulary and reading skills.

Dejkunjorn (2005) identified the English language needs of Thai Airways International pilots, the language problems they faced in using English both during flight duties and when stationed abroad, and their needs of language skills improvement. It was found that most of the pilots considered their English language abilities as "moderate"; English was rated as highly significant; listening and speaking skills were mostly needed; the pilots needed to improve their listening and speaking skills most; and mispronunciation was a problem during flight duties.

Malison (2006) examined the English language needs of Thai students during their participation in the work and travel USA program in 2005. The participants mostly needed English to communicate with their employers, colleagues, and customers. The most needed skills were listening, speaking and reading respectively and writing was perceived as the least needed. The difficulties encountered concerned speaking and listening.

Viboolphant (2005) investigated the English communicative competence needs of non-native English speaking front-line staff of international airlines in Thailand and the English usage problems that occurred between the staff and foreign customers. It was found that the English communicative competence needs of non-native English speaking front-line staff was at a satisfactory level and that the customers expected understanding and effective communication from the staff.

Needs Analysis of English for Business Purposes

Crosling and Ward (2002) surveyed the oral communication needs and uses of business graduate employees at Monash University in Australia. The results indicated that, although graduate business employees may undertake some formal presentations, most of their workplace oral communication was informal in nature and that the skills employed were different than those developed through formal presentation.

Li So-mui and Mead (2000) investigated the workplace English needs of textile and clothing merchandisers in Hong Kong who communicate in the international marketplace. The results showed that English was used by the participants in their communications with most countries, even though it is not the first language in many of them, and that written English was more widely used than spoken English.

Chew (2005) investigated the English language skills used by new employees working in various departments in four banks of Hong Kong. The findings showed that English was used in written discourse while most oral communicative tasks were

carried out in Cantonese. Most participants considered their English reading and writing skills as average and the demands posed by the language were found to be an important source of difficulty.

Review of Methods in Needs Analysis Studies

According to Richards (2001), a variety of procedures can be used in conducting needs analysis and the kind of information obtained is often dependent on the type of procedure selected. He proposes eight instruments including questionnaires, self-ratings, interviews, meetings, observation, collecting learner language samples, task analysis, and case studies, that can be employed to assess learners' needs. He also claims that questionnaires are one of the most common instruments used.

The review of the previous studies has also shown that the most popular research method in needs analysis seems to be questionnaires, used by many researchers such as Ketkhew (1997), Crosling and Ward (2002), Kormos (2002), Meemark (2002), Deuthch (2003), Aunruen (2005), Dejkunjorn (2005), Kim (2005), and Malison (2006).

Some researchers employed a combination of methods and procedures for collecting data in needs analysis. For instance, Parkhurst (1994) conducted a study regarding needs analysis by the means of both observation and interviews, Jackson (2003), Chew (2005), Viboolphant (2005), and Evans and Green (2007) used a combination of questionnaires and interviews as the instruments to gather the data, So-mui and Mead (2000) collected the data through questionnaire surveys, telephone interviews, analysis of authentic correspondence and visits to the workplace.

Two researchers including Blue and Harun (2002) and Seingsawang (2006) governed interviews as an instrument to collect data. Lastly, experimental method was utilized by Pritchard and Nasr (2004).

This chapter has presented definitions of key terms and needs analysis conceptual frameworks. A review of previous needs analysis studies has also been provided in terms of relevant research topics and research methods used in those studies. The review has provided a good basis for the design of the present research, which will be discussed in the next chapter.