

NEEDS ANALYSIS

Needs analysis (also known as Needs Assessment) has a vital role in the process of designing and carrying out any language course, whether it is (ESP) or GE courses, and its centrality has been acknowledged by several scholars and authors. Also, the importance of carrying out a needs analysis for developing EAP tests is emphasized by Fulcher (1999), McDonough (1984), and Carrol (1980, in Fulcher 1999)

- According to Iwai et al. (1999), the term needs analysis generally refers to the activities that are involved in collecting information that will serve as the basis for developing a curriculum that will meet the needs of a particular group of students. According to Iwai et al. (1999), **formal needs analysis is relatively new to the field of language teaching. However, informal needs analyses have been conducted** by teachers in order to assess what language points their students needed to master.
- “Needs analysis is a complex process, involving much more than simply looking at what the learners will have to do in the target situation” (Hutchinson & Waters 1987)
- “Needs analyses is generally regarded as criteria to ESP although ESP is by no means the only educational enterprise which makes use of it.” (Robinson 1981)
- “Needs analysis is the preliminary to the specification or design of a syllabus” (Munby 1978)
 - ❖ Needs analysis is the 1st step of an ESP situation.

Clearly, **the role of needs analysis in any ESP course is indisputable**. For Johns (1991), **needs analysis is the first step in course design and it provides validity and relevancy for all subsequent course design activities**. Though needs analysis, as we know it today, has gone through many stages, with the publication of Munby's *Communicative Syllabus Design* in 1978, situations and functions were set within the frame of needs analysis. In his book, Munby introduced 'communication needs processor' which is the basis of Munby's approach to needs analysis.

I. DEFINITION OF NEEDS

- “Needs can refer to student’s study or job requirements, that is what is what they have to able to do at the end of their language course, this is a goal-oriented definition of needs.” (Widdowson 1981). Needs in this sense are perhaps more appropriately described as **objectives**.
- Needs can mean “what the user, institution or society at large regards as necessary or desirable to be learnt from a programme of language instruction” (Mountford 1981)
- “We can consider what the students themselves would like to gain from the language courses. This view of needs implies that students may have personal aims in addition to or even in opposition to the requirements of their studies or jobs.” (Berwick 1989). He notes that such personal needs may be devalued by being viewed as wants or desire.

II. TYPES OF NEEDS

Under the general heading of needs we can identify 2 types of needs: **target needs and learning needs**. Target need is what the learner needs to do is the target situation; and learning need is what the learner needs to do in order to learn. (Hutchinson & Waters 1987). We can make a basic distinction between target needs and learning needs:

1. Target needs

Hide a number of important distinctions; it is more useful to look at the target situation in terms of necessities, lacks and wants. (Hutchinson & Waters 1987)

a) Necessities (objective needs)

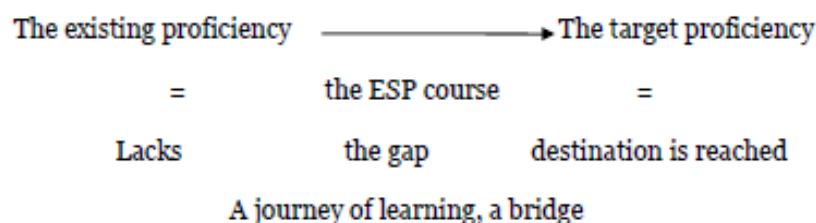
We can call necessities the type of needs determined by the demands of the target situation that is what the learner has to know in order to function effectively in target situation.

e.g.: a businessman might need to understand business letters to communicate effectively at sales' conferences, to get the necessary information from sales' catalogues and soon he will also need to know the linguistic features which can be functional, structural, lexical... which are commonly used in the situation identified. It is a matter of observing what situation the learner will need to function and then analyzing the constituent parts of it.

b) Lacks (weaknesses)

To identify necessities alone, however, is not enough since the concern in ESP is with the needs of particular learners; **we also need to know what the learner knows already so that we can decide which of the necessities the learner lacks.**

When target situation necessity might be to read a textbook in a particular subject area whether or not the learners need instruction in doing this, will depend on how well they can do it already. The target proficiency, in other words, needs to be matched against the existing proficiency of the learner. The gap between the two can be referred to as the learner's lacks. (Hutchinson, Waters & Breen, 1979)



c) Wants (subjective needs)

So far, we have considered target needs only in an objective sense with the actual learners playing no active role, but **the learners to have a view as to what their needs are**. It is quite possible that the learners' views will conflict with the perceptions of other interested parties such as course designers, ESP teachers, etc. there is no necessary relationship between necessities as perceived by the ESP teacher and what the learners want or feel they need. Bearing in mind the importance of learner's motivation in the learning processes learners perceived wants cannot be ignored.

2. Learning needs

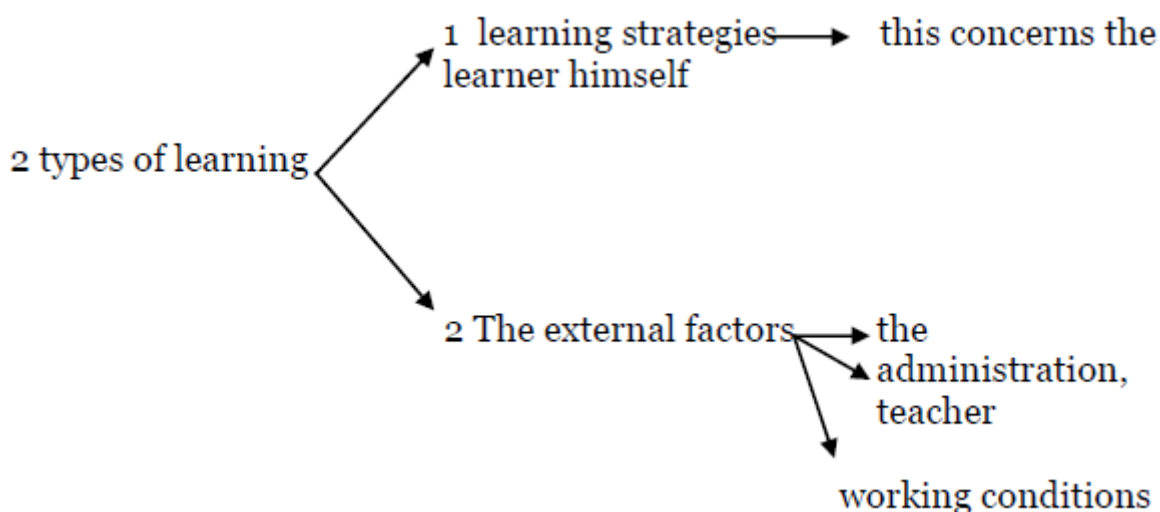
Using our analogy of the ESP course as a journey, what we have done so far is to consider the starting point: **lacks**, and the destination: **necessities**. Although we have also seen that there might be some dispute as to what distinction should be that is wants.

What we have not considered yet is **the route**, how are we going to get from our starting point to the destination? This indicates another kind of needs that is learning needs. To understand what is meant by learning needs let us look a little

more closely at what happens in the analysis of target situation needs. Hutchinson & Waters (1987) identified two types of learning needs which may be usefully separated:

- The 1st being **the learner's preferred learning strategies for progressing**: from where they are (present situation, lacks, deficiencies), to where they want to go (target situation, necessities)
- The 2nd is **the potential and constraints of the learning situation**. These are the external factors which may include the resources such as staff, time available, the prevailing attitudes and materials and methods available.

Analysis of the target situation can tell us what people do with language, what we also need to know is how people learn to do what they do with language. The target situation analysis can determine the destination, it can also act as a compass on the journey to give general direction, but **we must choose our route according to the vehicles and guides available** (i.e.: the conditions of the learning situation), **the existing roads within the learner's mind**, i.e., their knowledge, skills, strategies **and the learner's motivation for traveling**.



III. TYPES OF ANALYSES

Based on Munby's work, **Chambers** (1980) introduced the term **Target Situation Analysis**. From that time, several other terms have also been introduced: **Present Situation Analysis, Pedagogic Needs Analysis, Deficiency Analysis, Strategy Analysis or Learning Needs Analysis, Means Analysis, Register analysis, Discourse analysis, and Genre Analysis**.

1. Target Situation Analysis (TSA)

Needs analysis was firmly established in the **mid 1970s** (West, 1998). In the earlier periods needs analysis was mainly concerned with linguistic and register analysis, and as Dudley-Evans and St. John (1998) suggest, **needs were seen as discrete language items of grammar and vocabulary**.

With the publication of Munby's **Communicative Syllabus Design** (1978) needs analysis moved towards placing the learner's purposes in the central position within the framework of needs analysis. Consequently, the notion of target needs became paramount and research proved that function and situation were also fundamental. his work Munby (1978) introduced **Communicative Needs Processor (CNP)**. As Hutchinson and Waters (1987: 54) say "With the

development of the CNP it seemed as if ESP had come of age. **The machinery for identifying the needs of any group of learners had been provided**: all the course designers had to do was to operate it."

In Munby's CNP, **the target needs and target level performance are established by investigating the target situation**, and his overall model clearly establishes the place of needs analysis as central to ESP.

Munby's overall model is made up of the following elements:

- 1) **Participants**: information about the identity and language of the learners: age, sex, nationality, present command of target language, other languages known and extent of command;
- 2) **Communication Needs Processor**: investigates the particular communication needs according to sociocultural and stylistic variables which interact to determine a profile of such needs;
- 3) **Profile of Needs**: is established through the processing of data in the CNP.
- 4) In the **Meaning Processor** "**parts of the socioculturally determined profile of communication needs are converted into semantic subcategories of a predominantly pragmatic kind, and marked with attitudinal tone**" (Munby 42)
- 5) **The Language Skills Selector**: identifies "the specific language skills that are required to realize the events or activities that have been identified in the CNP" (40)
- 6) **The Linguistic Encoder**: considers "the dimension of contextual appropriacy" (49), once the encoding stage has been reached.
- 7) **The Communicative Competence Specification**: indicates the target communicative competence of the participant and is the translated profile of needs.

From the above-mentioned elements of the Munby model, **the predominant one** or at least the one that has been referred to by other researchers of needs analysis is the **Communication Needs Processor (CNP)** which is the basis of Munby's approach to needs analysis and establishes the profile of needs through the processing of eight parameters the processing of which gives us a detailed description of particular communication needs (Munby, 1978). The parameters specified by Munby (1987) are:

- **Purposive domain**: the type of ESP, and the purpose which the TL will be used for at the end of the course.
- **Setting**: the physical setting (spatial and temporal aspects of the situation where English will be used) + the psychological setting (the different environment in which English will be used.)
- **Interaction**: identifies the **learner's interlocutors** and predicts **relationship between them**.
- **Instrumentality**: specifies **the medium**, i.e., whether the language to be used is written, spoken, or both; **mode**, i.e., whether the language to be used is in the form of monologue, dialogue or any other; and **channel of communication**, i.e., whether it is face to face, radio, or any other.
- **Dialect**: dialects learners will have to understand or produce in terms of **their spatial, temporal, or social aspect**.
- **Communicative event**: what the participants will have to do **productively or receptively**.
- **Communicative key**: **the manner** in which the participants will have to do the activities comprising an event, e.g. politely or impolitely.
- **Target level**: level of linguistic proficiency at the end of the ESP course which might be different for different skills.

The aim of Munby's CNP is to find as thoroughly as possible the linguistic form a prospective ESP learner is likely to use in various situations in his target working environment. The outcome of the processing data by means of Munby's model is, as Hutchinson and Waters (1987) say, **what the learner needs to know in order to function effectively in the target situation**. Most subsequent target needs analysis research was based on Munby's model for the reason that it offers comprehensive data banks and target performance (Robinson, 1991).

Many researchers in the field of target situation needs analysis followed Munby's **CNP**. Hutchinson and Waters (1987) provide a comprehensive target situation analysis framework, which consists of a list of questions the analyst should find answers to. For Hutchinson and Waters (1987: 59) the analysis of target situation needs is **"in essence a matter of asking questions about the target situation and the attitudes towards that situation of various participants in the learning process"**.

Nevertheless, most of these questions relate to the Munbian model. These relations can be found summarized below:

1) Why is language needed?

for study; • for work; • for training; • for a combination of these; • for some other **purposes**, e.g. status, examination, promotion (Munbian purposive domain)

2) How will the language be used?

Medium: speaking, writing, reading, etc.; • **Channel**: e.g. telephone, face to face; • **Types of text or discourse**: e.g. academic text, lectures, catalogues, etc. (Munbian instrumentality)

3) What will the content areas be?

Subjects: e.g. medicine, biology, commerce, shipping, etc.; • **Level**: technician, craftsman, postgraduate, etc. (Munbian Communicative event)

4) Where will the language be used?

Physical setting: e.g. office, lecture theater, hotel, workshop, library; • **Human context**: alone, meetings, demonstrations, on telephone; • **Linguistic context**: e.g. in own country, abroad. (Munbian Setting "physical and psychological")

5) When will the language be used?

• **Concurrently** with the ESP course or **subsequently**; • **Frequently**, seldom, in small amounts, in large chunks.

❖ Criticism

Like any other model/approach, however, Munby's model is not without its critiques. Munby provided detailed lists of micro-functions in his CNP; what he did not include is **how to prioritize them or any of the affective factors which today are recognized as important** (Dudley-Evans and St. John, 1998). West (1994: 9-10) mentions the shortcomings of the Munby's model in terms of four headings:

1. **Complexity**: Munby's attempt to be systematic and comprehensive inevitably made his instrument inflexible, complex, and time-consuming.

2. **Learner-centeredness:** Munby claims that his CNP is learner-centered. The starting point may be the learner but the model collects data “**about**” the learner rather than “**from**” the learner.

3. **Constraints:** Munby’s idea is that constraints should be considered after the needs analysis procedure, while many researchers feel that these practical constraints should be considered at the start of the needs analysis process.

4. **Language:** Munby fails to provide a procedure for converting the learner profile into a language syllabus. Hutchinson and Waters (1987) also point out that it is too time-consuming to write a target profile for each student based on Munby’s model. This model only considers one viewpoint, i.e. that of the analyst, but neglects others (those of the learners, user-institutions, etc.). Meanwhile, it does not take into account of the learning needs nor it makes a distinction between necessities, wants, and lacks.

2. Present Situation Analysis (PSA)

Present situation analysis may be posited as a **complement to target situation analysis** (Robinson, 1991; Jordan, 1997). If target situation analysis tries to establish what the learners are expected to be like at the end of the language course, present situation analysis **attempts to identify what they are like at the beginning of it**. As Dudley-Evans and St. John (1998: 125) state “**a PSA estimates strengths and weaknesses in language, skills, learning experiences.**” If the destination point to which the students need to get is to be established, first the starting point has to be defined, and this is provided by means of PSA.

The PSA can be carried out by means of established **placement tests**. However, the background information, e.g. years of learning English, level of education, etc. about learners can provide us with enough information about their present abilities which can thus be predicted to some extent.

Needs analysis may be seen as a combination of TSA and PSA. As noted, within the realm of ESP, one cannot rely either on TSA or PSA as a reliable indicator of what is needed to enhance learning and reaching the desired goals. Consequently, other approaches to needs analysis have been proposed, such as *Pedagogic Needs Analysis*.

3. Pedagogic Needs Analysis

The term “pedagogic needs analysis” was proposed by West (1998) as an umbrella term to describe the following three elements of needs analysis. He states the fact that shortcomings of target needs analysis should be compensated for by collecting data about the learner and the learning environment. The term ‘pedagogic needs **analysis**’ covers **deficiency analysis, strategy analysis or learning needs analysis, and means analysis**.

a. Deficiency Analysis

What Hutchinson and Waters define as **lacks** can be matched with **deficiency analysis**. Deficiency analysis is the route to cover from point A (present situation) to point B (target situation), always keeping the learning needs in mind. Therefore, deficiency analysis can form **the basis of the language syllabus** (Jordan, 1997) because **it should provide data about both the gap between present and target** extra-linguistic knowledge, mastery of general English, language skills, and learning strategies.

b. Strategy Analysis or Learning Needs Analysis

As it is apparent from the name, this type of needs analysis has to do with **the strategies that learners employ in order to learn another language**. This tries to establish how the learners wish to learn rather than what they need to learn (West, 1998). All the above-mentioned approaches to needs analysis, TSA, PSA, and to some extent deficiency analysis, have not been concerned with the learners' views of learning.

Allwright who was a pioneer in the field of *strategy analysis* (West, 1994) started from the students' perceptions of their needs in their own terms (Jordan, 1997). It is **Allwright** who makes a distinction between **needs** (the skills which a student sees as being relevant to himself or herself), **wants** (those needs on which students put a high priority in the available, limited time), and **lacks** (the difference between the student's present competence and the desired competence). His ideas were adopted later by Hutchinson and Waters (1987), who advocate a learning-centered approach in which learners' learning needs play a vital role. If the analyst, by means of target situation analysis, tries to find out what learners do with language (Hutchinson and Waters, 1987) learning needs analysis will tell us "**what the learner needs to do in order to learn**" (1987: 54). Obviously, they advocate a process-oriented approach, not a product- or goal-oriented one. For them ESP is not "**a product but an approach to language teaching which is directed by specific and apparent reasons for learning**" (Hutchinson and Waters 1987: 16).

What learners should be taught are skills that enable them to reach the target, the process of learning and motivation should be considered as well as the fact that different learners learn in different ways (Dudley-Evans and St. John, 1998). Jordan (1997: 26) quotes **Bower** (1980) who has noted the importance of learning needs: "**If we accept...that a student will learn best if what he wants to learn, less well what he only needs to learn, less well still what he either wants or needs to learn, it is clearly important to leave room in a learning programme for the learner's own wishes regarding both goals and processes.**"

Hutchinson and Waters' definition (1987) of **wants** (perceived or subjective needs of learners) corresponds to learning needs. Similar to the process used for target needs analysis, they suggest a framework for analyzing learning needs which consists of several questions, each divided into more detailed questions. The framework proposed by Hutchinson and Waters (1987) for analysis of learning needs is the following:

- 1) Why are the learners taking the course? • Compulsory or optional; • Apparent need or not; • Are status, money, promotion involved? What do learners think they will achieve? • What is their attitude towards the ESP course? • Do they want to improve their English or do they resent the time they have to spend on it?
- 2) How do the learners learn? • What is their learning background? • What is their concept of teaching and learning? • What methodology will appeal to them? • What sort of techniques bore/alienate them?
- 3) What sources are available? • Number and professional competence of teachers; • Attitude of teachers to ESP; • Teachers' knowledge of and attitude to subject content; • Materials; • Aids; • Opportunities for out-of-class activities.
- 4) Who are the learners? • Age/sex/nationality; • What do they know already about English? • What subject knowledge do they have? • What are their interests? • What is their socio-cultural background? • What teaching styles are they used to? • What is their attitude to English or to the cultures of the English speaking world?

Finally, as Allwright (1982, in West 1994) says the investigation of learners' preferred learning styles and strategies gives us a picture of the learners' conception of learning.

c. Means Analysis

Means analysis tries to investigate those considerations that Munby excludes (West 1998), that is, **matters of logistics and pedagogy** that led to debate about practicalities and constraints in implementing needs-based language courses (West, 1994). Dudley-Evans and St. John (1998: 125) suggest that means analysis provides us “**information about the environment in which the course will be run**” and thus attempts to adapt to ESP course to the cultural environment in which it will be run.

One of the main issues means analysis is concerned with is an “acknowledgement that what works well in one situation may not work in another” (Dudley-Evans and St. John 1998: 124), and that, as noted above, ESP syllabi should be sensitive to the particular cultural environment in which the course will be imposed, or as **Jordan** (1997) says it should provide us with a tool for designing an environmentally sensitive course.

4. Register, Discourse, and Genre Analysis

In this part of the lesson, the focus will be on the description of the language in ESP. The terms **Register Analysis, Discourse Analysis, and Genre analysis** will be discussed below.

a. Register analysis

Changing approaches to linguistic analysis for ESP involve not only change in method but also changing ideas of what is to be included in language and its description (Robinson, 1991). The main motive behind register analysis was the pedagogic one of **making the ESP course more relevant to learners' needs** (Hutchinson and Waters 1987). Register analysis, also called “**lexicostatistics**” by Swales and “**frequency analysis**” by Robinson focused on the grammar and “structural and nonstructural” vocabulary (Ewer and Latorre 1967: 223, in West 1998). The assumption behind register analysis was that, while the grammar of scientific and technical writing does not differ from that of general English, certain grammatical and lexical forms are used much more frequently (Dudley-Evans and St. John 1998). As noted, register analysis operates only at word and sentence level and does not go beyond these levels.

❖ The criticism on register analysis can be summarized as the following:

- It restricts the analysis of texts to the word and sentence level (West 1998).
- It is only descriptive, not explanatory (Robinson 1991).
- Most materials produced under the banner of register analysis follow a similar pattern, beginning with a long specialist reading passage which lacks authenticity (Dudley-Evans and St. John 1998).

b. Discourse Analysis

The reaction against register analysis in the early 1970s concentrated on the communicative values of discourse rather than the lexical and grammatical properties of register hence the second phase of development shifted attention to the level above the sentence and tried to find out how sentences were combined into discourse. The pioneers in the field of discourse analysis (also called **rhetorical or textual analysis**) were Lackstorm, Selinker, and Trimble whose focus was on **the text rather than on the sentence, and on the writer's purpose rather than on form** (Robison, 1991). In practice, according to West (1998), this approach tended to concentrate on how sentences are used in the performance of acts of communication and to generate materials based on functions.

❖ Criticism

One of the shortcomings of the discourse analysis is that its treatment remains **fragmentary**, identifying the functional units of which discourse was composed at sentence/utterance level but offering limited guidance on how functions and sentences/utterances fit together to form text (West, 1998). There is also the danger that **the findings of discourse analysis**, which are concerned with texts and how they work as pieces of discourse, **fail to take sufficient account of the academic or business context** in which communication takes place (Dudley-Evans and St. John, 1998).

c. Genre Analysis

Discourse analysis may overlap with genre analysis. Dudley-Evans and St. John (1998: 87) give a clear distinction between the two terms: "Any study of language or, more specifically, text at a level above that of sentence is a discourse study. This may involve the study of cohesive links between sentences, of paragraphs, or the structure of the whole text. The results of this type of analysis make statements about how texts -any text- work. This is applied discourse analysis. Where, however, **the focus of text analysis is on the regularities of structures that distinguish one type of text from another**, this is genre analysis and the results focus on the differences between text types, or genres."

The term '**genre**' was first used by Swales (1981, in Robinson 1991). His definition of genre is: "**a more or less standardized communicative event with a goal or set of goals mutually understood by the participants in that event and occurring within a functional rather than a personal or social setting**" (Swales 1981: 10-11, in Robinson 1991). Bhatia who is one of the researchers in the field of genre analysis has his definition of 'genre analysis' as the study of linguistic behavior in institutionalized academic or professional setting. In his article, Bhatia distinguishes **four**, though systematically related, areas of competence that an ESP learner needs to develop so as to get over his/her lack of confidence in dealing with specialist discourse. These four areas are:

- 1) **Knowledge of the Code** which is the pre-requisite for developing communicative expertise in specialist or even everyday discourse.
- 2) **Acquisition of Genre Knowledge** which is the familiarity with and awareness of appropriate rhetorical procedures and conventions typically associated with the specialist discourse community.
- 3) **Sensitivity to Cognitive Structures**, that is, since certain lexical items have specialist meanings in specific professional genres, a number of syntactic forms may also carry genre specific restricted values in addition to their general meanings codified in grammar books. Thus, it is imperative that the specialist learner become aware of restricted aspects of linguistic code in addition to the general competence he or she requires in the language.
- 4) **Exploitation of Generic Knowledge**, that is, it is only after learners have developed some acquaintance or, better yet, expertise at levels discussed above, that they can confidently interpret, use or even take liberties with specialist discourse.

Genre-analysis approach goes two steps beyond register analysis and one step beyond discourse analysis (though it draws on the findings of both). As Bhatia states the main benefit of a genre-based approach to the teaching and learning of specialist English is that the learner does not learn language in isolation from specialist contexts, but is encouraged to make the relevant connection between the use of language on the one hand and the purpose of communication on the other, always aware of the question, **why do members of the specialist discourse community use the language in this way?**

CONCLUSION

Different approaches to needs analysis attempt to meet the needs of the learners in the process of learning a second language. Not a single approach to needs analysis can be a reliable indicator of what is needed to enhance learning. A modern and comprehensive concept of needs analysis is proposed by Dudley-Evans and St. John (1998: 125) which encompasses all the above-mentioned approaches. Their current concept of needs analysis includes the following:

- **Environmental situation** - information about the situation in which the course will be run (means analysis)
- **Personal information** about learners - factors which may affect the way they learn (wants, means, subjective needs).
- **Language information** about learners - what their current skills and language use are (present situation analysis).
- **Learner's lacks** (the gap between the present situation and professional information about learners).
- **Learner's needs** from course - what is wanted from the course (short-term needs).
- **Language learning needs** - effective ways of learning the skills and language determined by lacks.
- **Professional information** about learners - the tasks and activities English learners are/will be using English for (Target Situation Analysis and objective needs).
- **How to communicate** in the target situation – knowledge of how language and skills are used in the target situation (register analysis, discourse analysis, genre analysis).

Today, there is an awareness of the fact that different types of needs analyses are not exclusive but complementary and that each of them provides a piece to complete the picture of needs analysis (Figure 1). All the work done in ESP has sought to promote the communicative nature of language teaching, because starting with register analysis; ESP teachers have been very concerned with the needs of students as they used the language, rather than language per se. For this reason, today needs analysis should not be (and is not) of concern only within the field of ESP, but also that of General English because the needs of the learners is of paramount importance in any language process.

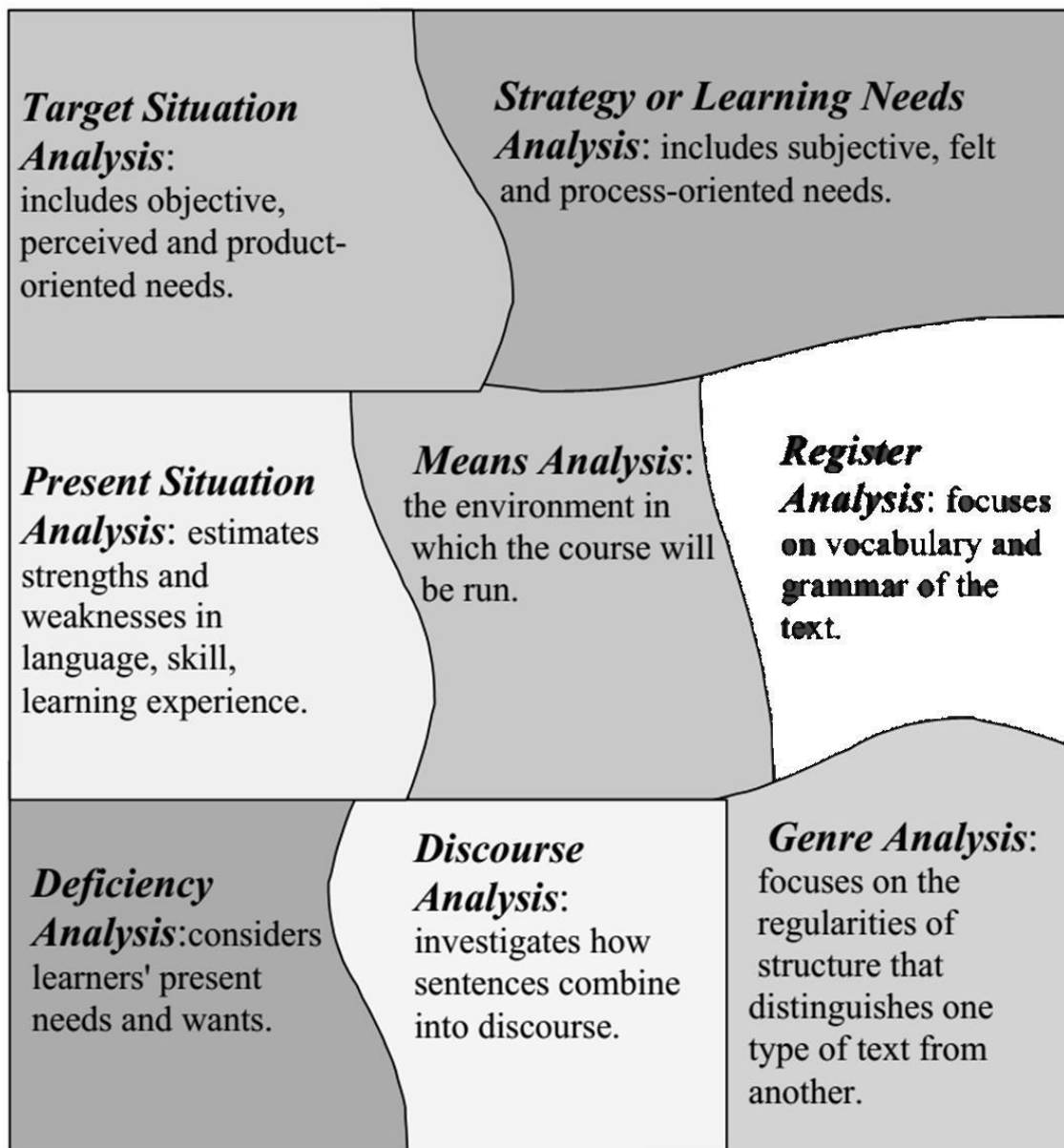


Figure 1. Needs Analysis

IV. Means of Data Collection

There are a number of ways in which information about needs can be gathered such as: **questionnaires, interviews, observation and tests**. It is recommended to use more than one of these means but the choice will obviously depend on the time and resources available. In analyzing the needs of the students, it will be normal practically, to ask both the lecturers and students about their needs. It is obviously necessary to obtain answers from a variety of sources and then try to negotiate a satisfactory compromise.

a. Questionnaires

It is essential to try a pilot-questionnaire on a few respondents (informants), first to see if the questions are comprehensible, or whether the answers can be easily compared and analyzed or not. This pilot-questionnaire can be easily modified for a final quest. The latter will seek information for both the TSA and PSA about a large number of points like headings-items, etc. The advantage of a questionnaire is that **it can be sent easily to a huge number of people**. The disadvantage is that **not many people will bother themselves to fill in and return it**; however, the needs analyst has more control if the interview method is used.

b. Interview

Mackay (1978) advocates the structured interview where the interviewee is guided by the interviewer through a questionnaire (oral). The advantage of this is that the interviewer (analyst) is able to help the interviewee **with linguistic clarification, recall their answers and explanations and detect whether they are honest or not**. The disadvantage is that they are **time consuming**.

c. Additional Means

- **Observations**

The analyst needs to supplement these with (in)-direct observation. One particular type of observation is the **KEY** study in which one individual is shadowed over a period of time. Schmidh (1981) suggests that the advantages of the **CASE** study method are that **it gives the possibility of in-depth study over a period of time**, the opportunity to appeal to the student's intuitions about his/her difficulties and needs in more details than in the oral interview/questionnaire and the occasion for the curriculum developer to do direct observation of the student and the teacher's interaction in the classroom and study the situation. The disadvantage is that this method is **time consuming and the information is very complicated to be gathered and processed before designing the syllabus**.

- **Tests (Placement Test)**

Ideally, students should be **tested before the start of ESP courses** so that the course designer may have **some ideas about their present level and ability**; the test may require students to perform tasks revealing where their deficiencies lie. Having identified features of the target community (clients, audience, learners) the course designer may become aware of what is needed to help the tutors and administration design the syllabus and courses. (Robinson 1991)

V. Data Analysis

The data obtained from the means of data collection should be **quantified, qualified, analyzed and compared**. For this purpose, a number of tables, diagrams and figures can show different results with respect to the learners, the teachers and administration's viewpoints and judgments as well as the country's. (The two questionnaires designed for the students on one hand and for the teacher on the other are conducted to collect information from different bodies in the same line of study) In other words, the researchers' concern is to check whether there is a conflict or match of thoughts between these partners. The data reported from students' questionnaire for instance should reveal nearly the same results as those of the teachers' questionnaire and the rest's. The use of any means of data collection will probably allow the designer to identify students' needs, interests and linguistic problems and try to design a syllabus accordingly.