

A FUNCTIONAL APPROACH TO TEACHING
ENGLISH IN BAHRAINI TECHNICAL SCHOOLS



by



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A B S T R A C T

Since the introduction of the City and Guilds courses in Basic Engineering Trade Subjects in Bahraini technical schools in 1968, the English language took a different role in technical education. English used to be taught as a foreign language, as in any other section in the educational system, but now technology is taught through the medium of English, mostly by British teachers. Thus, proficiency in the English language has become a necessity for passing technology examinations which are conducted in English. This was matched by the growing demand for English by the labour market due to the rapid expansion in commercial and industrial enterprises in Bahrain and the establishing of stronger links with international trade and industry.

Despite this change in the role of the English language in technical schools, approaches to language teaching has remained unchanged. It is true that new textbooks with more relevant content have been introduced, but unfortunately these books are, like their predecessors, based on a structural approach to language teaching. This approach is, in my opinion, incapable of serving the needs of the technical student to use the language for certain communicative functions in technical contexts, and therefore it is ineffective in developing the student's communicative competence.

The aim of this paper is to study the present situation of the English language in Bahraini technical schools and to consider both the need for and the possibility of adopting a functional approach to teaching English in these schools. It also attempts to suggest a guideline for a notional syllabus for use in Bahraini technical schools.

In a study of this nature, consideration of current theories of foreign language teaching and different approaches to syllabus design are inescapable topics. The paper has been divided into four parts:

Chapter One: The ELT Situation in Bahraini Technical Schools:

This chapter provides the background against which this paper is set. It discusses the factors influencing the status of the English language in Bahraini society in general and in the educational system in particular. It also assesses the suitability of the textbooks used in technical schools in relation to their merit in developing the student's communicative competence.

Chapter Two: Current Approaches to ELT in Bahraini Schools:

This chapter examines briefly the language teaching theories on which teaching is based in the pre-technical school stages, since entrants to technical schools are the output of those stages. It also explains why a functional approach should be adopted in teaching English to technical students.

Chapter Three: Approaches to Syllabus Design:

This chapter examines three types of syllabuses, structural, situational and notional, as presented and discussed by David Wilkins. It also discusses some features of ESP, as it represents the nature of the English language courses in Bahraini technical schools, and also the most suitable area for the application of notional syllabuses.

Chapter Four: A Suggested Framework for A Notional Syllabus for Teaching English in Bahraini Technical Schools:

The suggested framework presented in this chapter offers a guideline for the application of the notional approach to constructing English language syllabuses for Bahraini technical schools, and examines the main features of the type of language used in these schools, namely technical English. The chapter also discusses different

language skills which are related to the needs of a Bahraini technical student and suggests some language activities to meet those needs.

In the Conclusion, I have tried to pinpoint some of the pedagogical difficulties which are related to the implementation of notional syllabuses and the production of teaching materials to match these syllabuses.

CHAPTER ONE

THE ELT SITUATION IN BAHRAINI TECHNICAL SCHOOLS

I Introduction

It is an undisputed fact that the English language enjoys a very high social status in Bahraini society. At present it is the lingua franca of commerce and industry and as a result of the increasing demand for English in the scientific, industrial and commercial fields, its use and status is growing rapidly. It is the only foreign language which is used officially in hospitals, banks, airports, supermarkets, factories and other areas of social and commercial life. English is also widely used in governmental circles. In fact, it is used more than Arabic, the official language, in some governmental circles, such as The Post Office, Department of Civil Aviation, Ministry of Electricity, Water and Public Works, and Ministry of Health. The recent policy of the government to Bahrainize most of the posts in the general and private sectors which are occupied by English-speaking personnel has boosted the status of the English language amongst Bahrainis even more. It is the inevitable tool through which knowledge and skills are being transferred from the expatriates to the Bahrainis who will take over, and without which they cannot function.

Outside official circles, the status of English is growing even more rapidly. At present, those who speak English are regarded as invaluable members of society. English is their passport to better jobs and higher salaries. Nowadays most job advertisements in the local newspapers state the condition that "The applicant must read and write

English". School leavers whose English is reasonably good are usually recruited by the foreign companies and establishments where salaries are high and prospects are good. The rest usually join the government ministries where salaries are rather low but where the knowledge of English is not essential. In most of the large commercial and industrial establishments competence in English is a key factor in promotion, and thus ensuring better career prospects. The recent industrial development in Bahrain has also given the English language a dominant role. This is not only because English is undeniably the world language of science and technology but also because a fair amount of communication in many industrial establishments is conducted through English as a result of the large number of English-speaking personnel at management, supervision and training levels.

In the educational system English is the only compulsory foreign language. It is taught from the fourth form in primary school to the final year of secondary school. This means that all those who go to school learn English for an average of five hours a week for eight years. Furthermore, they have to pass an English language examination in the terminal and/or the annual examination. Failing in English in the annual examination could mean the repetition of the whole year. The only other subjects which enjoy similar status are Arabic and Religious Education. English is also the medium of instruction in most private schools and in the Gulf Technical College which offers post-secondary courses in technology and commerce. Another reason for the growing importance of English in education is the recent increase in scholarships offered by the government and some leading establishments for short and long courses in Britain, America and Canada in an attempt to meet the shortage of skilled personnel such as technicians and mechanical and electrical engineers.

II Factors influencing the status of English in Bahrain:

One cannot discuss the social status of a particular language in a particular society without studying the factors which influenced that status. English has acquired its high social status in Bahrain through the following four factors:

A The Political Factor:

For more than a century of British colonization since 1861 the English language was looked at as the language of the masters. Throughout the political relationship between Britain and Bahrain, the British needed a group of bilinguals, such as clerks, translators and representatives, who played an influential role in the British-Bahraini relationship. Thus, English offered superiority to those Bahrainis who could speak it and who played the role of mediators between the British and the people of Bahrain.

B The Economic Factor:

The economic relationships between Britain and Bahrain grew stronger and stronger through the colonial period. Bahrain, like any other country under British colonization, was used as a market for British products. English was the inevitable tool of communication. Bahrain also received a lot of British economic and educational aid, either in the form of equipment for industrial, medical and educational purposes, or in human resources such as administrators, advisors and teachers. This obviously made a contribution to the status of English in Bahrain. With their products and aid the British exported their language to Bahrain. The other important aspect of the economic factor is the discovery of oil in Bahrain in 1932. This marked the arrival of a large group of English-speaking nations, especially British and Americans, who worked in the oil producing industry. This was the first substantial contact between the people of Bahrain and the English language. In fact many of those

Bahrainis who worked in the oil industry picked up their English from these agents.

C The Social Factor:

The social status of English was also reinforced by an influx of British and members of other English-speaking nations, especially Indians, who took up jobs in the public sector as administrators, directors, advisors, engineers, doctors and nurses, and in the private sector as managers, supervisors, clerks and shop assistants. All these people helped to spread the English language in Bahraini society. Also, the increasing demand in the labour market for employees with a reasonable command of English has always given the language a high social prestige.

D The Educational Factor:

Due to the political, economic and social factors given above, English was introduced in the educational system and is now a first class subject in the school curriculum and the examination system. It is also a key subject in technical education, and consequently in selecting students for technical schools, as we shall see later in this paper. In fact English is of particular importance to technical students in Bahrain either in technical secondary schools where technology subjects are taught through English, or in the Gulf Technical College where the medium of instruction is English. The recent increase in scholarships to European and American universities has also reinforced the importance of English in education.

III English in the Educational System

Before studying the place of the English language in Bahraini technical schools a brief outline of the language situation in the other sections of the educational system is essential. English appears on the time-table for the first time in the fourth form in the primary school (See Appendix A) and is taught for six periods a week. Most teachers are unqualified and thus they rely heavily on the textbook as their Bible. The language standard of most of them is appalling and this is obviously reflected in the pupils' standards. The low competence in English of these teachers does not allow them to teach the language skills efficiently. In discussing the features which make a "good language teacher" Strevens (1971) indicates that "First, the teacher should have a reasonably error-free command of English within the limits of the syllabus." (p39). Pupils in primary school are poorly motivated. This is the result of two major reasons. First, pupils at this stage are very young (10-12 year age-group), and thus have no clear aims for learning English, or any other subject for this matter. English is just another subject on the time-table. Lee (1974) indicates that "It is often suggested that children learning a foreign language are less strongly motivated than adults, and therefore harder to teach .

..... Children sometimes speculate about the future, but on the whole the world of adult employment is still remote and in some ways unreal." (p8). Secondly, the teaching materials and methods usually create uninteresting learning situations which inevitably affect the learner's motivation.

The situation at the intermediate stage is similar except for the increase in the number of periods to eight and the somewhat more experienced teachers. But most of them are, like their colleagues at the primary stage, without initial training in language teaching. The teaching methods and materials used here continue to have a bad effect

on pupils' motivation. However, instrumental motivation begin to show here as pupils begin to realize the role of English as a necessity for better jobs and, for those who wish to go to a technical school, as a condition for acceptance.

At the secondary stage the English language has a distinct role in each of the three sections; general, commercial and technical, which consists of three years each and leads to the award of the Tawjiheah Certificate (The Certificate of Secondary Education). Broadly speaking, the role of English in the general section is purely academic since, in theory, this section mainly prepares students for entering colleges and universities. However, this is not always the case as many students in fact try to find jobs as soon as they leave school. Thus, as the destination of the students in this section is not quite clear, i.e. whether they are going to university or joining the labour force, the English language course tends to have an elastic and non-specific aim. It is common belief among language teachers that the language standard among the general section students is the lowest in secondary school. This belief is shared by most industrial and commercial establishments which recruit school leavers from the three sections. This low standard is attributed, to a certain extent, to the poor motivation among students in the general section due to the following factors:

- (a) There are no specific and defined aims, objective or priorities for teaching English, and thus students fail to see the purpose for learning the language, except perhaps to pass the examination.
- (b) The bad teaching methods, which are usually subject-centred, and the dull teaching materials create some difficulties in learning the language, and thus affect students' motivation. Pitman (1974) argues that "If English were made easier to learn, particularly in the earliest stages, more foreign-speaking students would be motivated to learn it, and that their early success would sustain

even higher motivation among beginners." (p9).

- (c) The students do not need to use the English language outside the classroom, and thus it does not satisfy any practical communicative needs.

In the commercial section the role of English can be categorized as being mainly vocational corresponding to the nature of this section which aims at preparing students for jobs in commerce. As some of the subjects in the curriculum, such as office practice and accountancy, are taught through English, and because the language courses are related to the commercial subjects, students' motivation is somewhat higher in this section and the aims of ELT are specific. However, some of the factors mentioned above, namely the unsuitable approaches to language teaching and the lack of reinforcement outside the classroom still have an impact on the students' motivation.

Since the situation of English in the technical section is a central point in this paper, I will deal with that situation in a separate section below and discuss in some detail some of the factors affecting the language teaching situation in this section. However, it is worth mentioning here that at almost all stages teaching is carried out in a subject-centred rather than student-centred manner, with the emphasis on finishing the given syllabus rather than on teaching the language skills effectively. Also, all stages suffer from the lack of modern audio-visual aids, except in the technical schools where language laboratories are available. As is the case with other subjects, the English language syllabuses and textbooks are dictated by the Ministry of Education.

IV English in Technical Schools:

Unlike the situation in the general secondary schools, English plays a dominant role in technical schools. This is the result of the introduction of new syllabuses based on City and Guilds 820 Course for Basic Engineering Trade Subjects in 1968 in an attempt to give technical education in Bahrain an international status acceptable by the labour market and colleges of technology. As suitable teachers were not available, a number of English-speaking teachers were recruited. This marked the significant shift towards using English as a "semi-medium" of instruction in technical schools as technology subjects in all sections, except carpentry and foundry, are now taught and examined in English. Also in workshops, where almost all heads of sections and about half of the instructors are English-speaking expatriates, English is the inevitable medium of instruction. The following breakdown of the number of technical teachers in the academic year 1974-75 according to their linguistic status, i.e. English or Arabic-speaking, should give an indication of the amount of English used in classroom or workshop communication:

<u>Section</u>	<u>Total Number of Teachers</u>	<u>Number of English-speaking Expatriates</u>
Fitting & Machine Shop	9	4
Blacksmithing & Welding	8	3
Auto Mechanics	5	2
Diesel Engines	2	1
Electricity	6	2
Refrigeration	3	2

It is worth mentioning that even in the case of the Arabic-speaking teachers a certain amount of English is usually used, especially by Bahraini teachers who have been educated and trained in Britain. This is quite expected, given the nature of the subjects and the rich English

language environment within each section due to the high percentage of expatriates. It is true, therefore, to suggest that students have to cope with English medium situations from the first day they join the technical school. Hence, English is the most important of the three key subjects in selecting students for technical education; the other two being maths and science. Finally, English appears as a separate subject in the curriculum and occupies about 20% of the time allotted to theoretical subjects.

An important aspect which is closely related to the use of English in Bahraini technical schools is the students' motivation. In fact students in the technical section are highly motivated, at least as far as instrumental motivation is concerned. This is due to the following factors:

- (a) There is an apparent relationship between the English language and the educational process, since all technology subjects are taught through English. The student realizes the importance of English as a vital tool for pursuing his education and thus his career.
- (b) English is used intensively both within the school curriculum and for face to face communication in the workshop situation. This provides effective reinforcement to the students' instrumental motivation as language satisfies his immediate communicative needs.
- (c) The apparent relationship between the English language and other technical subjects makes the process of learning the language more meaningful. The student realizes that he is not learning English for its sake but for acquiring new knowledge through it, and thus becomes more motivated, since motivation is usually related to the reasons for learning.
- (d) The necessity of English in the labour market, especially for technical school leavers, offers a strong incentive for achieving higher

standards in the language.

Judging by the relatively higher standards of our technical students in English, it seems that instrumental motivation in this case are as influential in learning as integrative motivation which so far has been given all the credit for successful language learning, according to the findings of Gardner and Lambert. In fact recent work by these two authors in the Philippines had shown that students who had instrumental reasons for learning a target language (e.g. job or studies) showed better progress than those who had integrative reasons (e.g. interest in the culture of the target language) (Maidment, 1974, p29). Larson and Smalley (1972) write: "It is motivation that determines ultimate proficiency in a second language, motivation usually fired by the recognition that one language is not enough, motivation for at least a token degree of de-alienation, or if not de-alienation, some more utilitarian purpose like a better job, scholarly interest, or even the power to exploit." (p4). Wilkins (1972) points out that "If, to satisfy our needs, to influence the actions and thoughts of others, to pursue our occupation and our recreation, it is necessary to use a foreign language, then we will learn that foreign language more rapidly and effectively than under any other condition." (p181). The type of motivation which will exist here is what Jupp (1974) calls a "functional motivation" which is central to successful foreign-language learning especially with adult learners. Thus, he believes that it would be feasible to create highly motivated language teaching situations if we started to ask why people learn a foreign language, rather than how people learn a language and what a language is.

V Factors Affecting the Language Standard in Technical Schools:

From this account of the role of English in Bahraini technical schools it is obvious that there is a heavy demand for the use of English for daily communication in these schools. However, despite the fact that the standard of English is notably higher in these schools than in the general secondary schools due to the motivation factor mentioned above, the students' ability to handle the language for communicative and academic functions is far from satisfactory. This is due to a number of factors. The first factor is that, as is the case in other sections, there are no well designed syllabuses with precise and realistic objectives. The so-called syllabus which exists now is merely a list of the names of textbooks, readers and supplementary material to be used in the three years, and a scheme of work which shows the amount of teaching material to be covered in each month of the academic year. (See Appendix B). The practice to date has been to choose a certain language course as a base for our language teaching and supplement it with a number of readers. This obviously means that the objectives and priorities of our language course are not those which are related to the needs of our students but those which the author of the course has adopted according to his pedagogical approach. Needless to say, those objectives and priorities are subject to change whenever the course is changed. It is not surprising in this situation to see a wide gap between what the students actually learn in the language course and what they ought to learn according to the type of language and situations they are engaged in in reality.

It is undeniable that the syllabus is the base for our teaching process and therefore it should set out to underline the aims and objectives of the language course according to the needs of the students, and how those aims and objectives can be effectively achieved.

Wilkins (1976) points out that "The first step in the construction of any language syllabus or course is to define objectives. Wherever possible these will be based on an analysis of the needs of the learners and these needs, in turn, will be expressed in terms of the particular type of communication in which the learner will need to engage." (p55). In his discussion of the essential factors in the successful learning and teaching of English, Strevens (1971) states that "The first essential is that the aims of the learner be stated as precisely as possible. The more detailed the specification of what is to be learned and what the learner is to be capable of at the end of his course, the greater are the chances of success in achieving it." (p37). The syllabus should also underline the priority of the course as far as the language skills are concerned, especially when it is designed for a specific purpose as is the case in Bahraini technical schools. This, in my opinion, would eliminate any wastage of time spent on teaching irrelevant skills or material and would ensure maximum harmony in work among teachers. It is impractical to leave the teacher with a free choice of priorities in a situation where our purposes are specific and where most of the teachers are untrained. In my opinion, the less trained the teachers are the more is the need for a detailed syllabus. In this situation the syllabus should tell the teacher why, when and how to teach the different language skills and thus will act as a guide to the teacher in achieving his goals which must be both specific and realistic. However, the syllabus should not be rigid in its approach, but should give guidelines and offer examples to help the teacher to fulfil his task. Where certain materials cannot be found in the textbook used, the syllabus should cater for that.

The second factor affecting the standards of English amongst Bahraini technical students is that most of the textbooks used are

unsuitable for use with technical students. The suitability of the textbook is in fact a major factor in the success of any foreign language teaching. In situations where the language teacher is untrained, the textbook will not only be the sole source of material he needs in his task, but also the **authority** which determines his teaching methods. In many situations the teacher is in fact a verbal mediator for the textbook. It is perhaps true that "Whether we like it or not, nearly all language-teaching is textbook orientated." (Alexander, 1976, p90). The textbook usually determines the major part of the teaching process and very largely dominates classroom instruction. The good text, by showing some good examples, can inspire the teacher to adopt better ways in his teaching.

The unsuitability of the textbooks used in Bahraini technical schools stems from the fact that they are either global language courses with no specific type of learners in mind, such as Alexander's "Practice and Progress", or employ an unsuitable approach in teaching the language, such as Methold's and Waters' "Understanding Technical English". As these two courses represent the base for language teaching in Bahraini technical schools it is essential that we look at them in some detail. Before I do that it is only fair to say that my criticism of these two courses should not be taken as general deficiencies in them but rather as reasons why we should not use them as basic language courses in technical schools. Indeed they might be quite suitable for learners whose objectives coincide with the ones the authors have in mind. Nevertheless, it is essential to pinpoint these deficiencies as a step towards defining the type of language material we should use.

Being a global language course, "Practice and Progress" employs a strict structural grading approach in presenting the language items, without reference to certain structures or lexis of technical nature,

and obviously does not use technical contexts. The other serious deficiency of "Practice and Progress" with regards our technical students, is that it places a lot of emphasis on teaching certain written English structures such as "... not only ... but ... as well", "Both ... and ...", "After having ..." and "On being ...". These structures are obviously irrelevant to a technical student, even in his use of the language for written purposes. On the other hand, I believe that as far as the Bahraini technical student is concerned the emphasis should in fact be on developing the student's spoken English since it is the most needed skill. This is because:

- (a) Technology subjects, which are taught in English, are usually taught orally with the use of charts, slides and films.
- (b) An average of 44.4% of the learning time is spent in the workshop where communication is conducted through the spoken language.
- (c) A high percentage of technical school leavers join industrial establishments where spoken English is the medium of instruction both in workshops and training programmes.

If we agree that Bahraini technical students have a specific _____ purpose in using the language, namely communication in technical contexts, which will call for distinct type of structures and lexis, then the typical global English textbook such as "Practice and Progress" can hardly be described as suitable for such students. The correlation between the content of the language course and the needs of the learner is also important when we consider the question of motivation, since it is axiomatic that "the learner can be strongly motivated by the knowledge that what he is learning is relevant to his needs and that his learning will be made the more efficient by the **exclusion** of all that is irrelevant". (Wilkins, 1973b, p131).

Although Alexander's course contains recorded oral drills,

conversational language, which obviously has certain features and employs a distinct register, is virtually excluded from the course. Drill 12, for example, teaches the use of "shall" and "will" in isolated sentences like these:

Stimulus: Haven't Tom and Mary arrived yet?

Response: No, they will arrive tomorrow.

S : Haven't you read this magazine?

R : No. I shall read it tomorrow.

S : Haven't you and Mary written those postcards yet?

R : No, we shall write them tomorrow.

It is quite evident that this approach to teaching spoken English presents the language patterns in a meaningless and tedious way since there is no coherent relationship between these sentences. Teaching spoken English in this manner can never develop the learners ability to use language in real communication, since in real communication we do not jump from one subject to another as is the case in the drill given above. Furthermore, in unmarked spoken English we normally use the elided form "'ll" instead of the full form "will" or "shall".

"Understanding Technical English" which was introduced as a possible substitute to "Practice and Progress" is not as impressive as its title might suggest. This is because, like its predecessor, it suffers from certain deficiencies which unfortunately lessen its advantage in containing technically relevant material. Although it deals with some structures which are typical of technical English, these structures are presented in a typical written form. It also employs a structural approach in presenting the language items and teaches a graded set of structures which are common in any global English course. This common skeleton is filled by technical content and general technical vocabulary. Finally, the approach used for presenting the language structures in

both "Practice and Progress" and "Understanding Technical English" cannot cater for the most important priority in teaching English to a Bahraini technical student, and that is to develop his ability to communicate through spoken English, since both courses do not offer any practice in using the type of spoken English normally employed in dialogues and conversations in general, and in technical contexts in particular.

VI Communicative Competence:

If our ultimate aim is to develop the learner's ability to communicate through the language, then the structural approach, employed by both courses mentioned above, is not a practical one since this approach aims at building up the learner's language stock through a gradual exposure to language. The fact is that in real life situations we are often exposed to different types of grammatical structures at the same time. The problem arises when the learner has not yet been introduced to these structures. I will discuss this point in Chapter Three in relation to syllabus design, but it is important to mention here that even when the learner has achieved a command of certain grammatical structures, this does not necessarily mean that he will be capable of communicating through the language. The other important point is that the structural approach tends to concentrate on the sentence as the basic unit in language teaching. This limits the practicability of this approach in teaching language as communication, since "a knowledge of how the language functions in communication does not automatically follow from a knowledge of sentences." (Widdowson, 1973, p66).

Candlin (1973) points out that this concentration hinders the language learners' achievement of fluency since "the language they are learning from is unlike "real" language because its sentence-illustrating task excludes its proper communicative task as an illustrator of speakers' roles and verbal purposes." (p63).

Using language for communication then involves much more than manipulating sentence patterns to produce grammatical utterances in a controlled situation, since any utterance would usually yield different meanings in different contexts. Wilkins (1976, p56) illustrates this point by considering the functions of the utterance "It's raining" in different contexts. Apart from its usual informative function if said

by someone who has just come from outside, this utterance can serve the following communicative functions:

- (a) Phatic communication (when the context is not known), i.e. as a way to establish a relationship with the listener.
- (b) A suggestion to take an umbrella or put on a raincoat if said to someone who is about to leave the house.
- (c) A refusal if said by a mother to her child who has asked to go and play in the garden.

Therefore, it follows that to communicate means to use the appropriate utterance to the context given, and also to understand the meaning of the utterances used in that context. Thus, in order to use his language for communication the learner must not only be able to produce and understand grammatical sentences in the Chomskyan sense, but also to know when and how to use them. In other words, he should have a "communicative competence". It is perhaps interesting to note that some sociolinguists consider appropriateness as even more important than grammaticality in defining communicative competence. Campbell and Wales (1970), for example, look at it as "the ability to produce or understand utterances which are not so much GRAMMATICAL but, more important, APPROPRIATE TO THE CONTEXT IN WHICH THEY ARE MADE". (p247, their emphasis). This, in a way, is a reaction to Chomsky's view that competence and performance are concerned with grammatically acceptable sentences. He made this explicit in his view of linguistic theory when he wrote :

"Linguistic theory is concerned primarily with an ideal speaker-listener, in a completely homogeneous speech community, who knows its language perfectly and is unaffected by such grammatically irrelevant conditions as memory limitations, distractions, shifts of attention and interest, and errors (random or characteristic) in applying his knowledge

of the language in actual performance." (Chomsky, 1965, p3).

The focus on communicative competence has in fact initiated a wave of scepticism in the validity of Chomsky's distinction between "competence" and "performance". Chomsky (1965) writes "We thus make a fundamental distinction between competence (the speaker-hearer's knowledge of his language) and performance (the actual use of language in concrete situations)". (p4). Many sociolinguists reject this distinction. Cazden (1972) argues that "performance has both grammatical and pragmatic aspects. And it is a reflection of implicit knowledge or competence, both of grammar and use." (p295). Hymes (1972) believes that "Competence is dependent upon both (tacit) knowledge and (ability for) use." (p282).

The rejection of Chomsky's definition of competence and performance and his contention that acquisition of competence is independent of sociocultural factors has led to increasing investigations into the pragmatics of language use, and has established a strong relationship in the field of sociolinguistics between language description and social contexts in which language is used. It has also shifted the emphasis from the sentence to the utterance, or discourse, as the base for studying the communicative value of language.

Many applied linguists have recently emphasized the importance of focussing attention in language teaching, and also in producing teaching materials, on developing the learner's communicative competence. Candlin (1973) indicates that "if we understand pedagogics as being concerned with utterances, or linguistic competence realised, then it is necessary to introduce the notion 'communicative competence' into the basis of LT materials, resting courses and syllabuses on this communicative base." (p58). This move has resulted in placing a lot of emphasis on teaching what Hymes (1972) calls "the rules of use". Pit Corder (1973)

writes, "It is probably unnecessary to point out that when we are teaching a second language we are trying to develop in the learner not just grammatical competence in the Chomskyan sense, but communicative competence. We are teaching him not only what we call 'the formation rules' of the language, but in addition what Hymes has called 'the speaking rules'." (p93). With regards the teaching of grammar he indicates that Chomsky's distinction between competence and performance "is no longer seen as relevant. Grammatical ability is only one element contributing to communicative competence. This means that there is now an insistence on understanding the meaning of grammatical forms, and that the teaching of grammar cannot be divorced from the teaching of meaning ..." (p335).

This is not to argue, however, that the grammatical system should not be taught, since no meaningful utterance can be formed or understood if the speaker, and indeed the listener, are not familiar with the system. Also, "What we can express through language still depends on, among other things, how far we have mastered the grammatical rules that underlie the production of utterances." (Wilkins, 1976, p67). Nor for this reason are we arguing that language has to be related to certain communicative acts right from the beginning of learning a foreign language.

As far as the Bahraini technical student is concerned, the development of his communicative competence should be the principle aim of the language course. He has already learnt English for five years at the preceding two stages, during which he must have acquired the basic linguistic competence which is essential to build up his communicative competence. What he really needs is the ability to use his language to fulfil certain communicative functions, i.e. to ask or answer questions about certain technical processes related to his field, to form a

request, to describe a tool, to understand oral and written instructions, to state rules and give reasons, and so on. Obviously the language becomes more meaningful if used in this way to communicate certain speech functions. Unfortunately the structurally based courses such as "Practice and Progress" and "Understanding Technical English" do not cater for this type of language use, since they are mainly concerned with building the learner's ability to construct correct sentences, i.e. provide him with grammatical competence. One reason for this tendency is that these courses have always been based on language descriptions by grammarians who, until recently, "have been primarily concerned with exploring the nature of the language code as a separate and self-contained system." (Allen and Widdowson, 1975, p92).

It is not surprising that Bahraini students, by following a structurally based course, usually perform well in responding to the teacher's stimuli in a controlled situation in the classroom, but often cannot make an appropriate use of the language once they are exposed to real life situations outside the classroom. This is because they have achieved grammatical competence and not communicative competence. To develop the learner's communicative competence he must use his language to fulfil the communicative functions which are relevant to his needs in real life contexts. In other words, he should learn the use, and not the usage, of the language. This is particularly essential in the case of learners with a specific purpose like the Bahraini technical students.

One way of achieving communicative competence in the foreign language is, according to Widdowson (1968), by using the foreign language to teach other subjects such as science. In this way language will be used as natural behaviour in natural situations and not as controlled responses in especially devised situations. Thus, the meaningful use

of language becomes an aim, and not an aid, in language learning. This utilitarian approach to language learning will ensure positive influence on the learner's motivation which is a key factor in the learning process. In discussing the teaching of English for science and technology (EST) Widdowson (1975) states that the first objective of EST is "to change the student's concept of English from that which represents it as a separate set of facts about words and sentence patterns and grammatical rules to that which represents it as a means of communication similar in nature to his own language." (p8). It is with this in mind that Wilkins (1972) writes, "The solution may lie in doing away with the language lesson altogether. The need to use the language may be created by directing the pupils' attention not at the language itself but at something else that is being learned through the language." (p182).

Although this approach to language teaching might, from the first sight, sound an ideal one, it is not so if examined closely in the light of the situation in Bahrain. At present, technical students need to learn technology through English due to the reasons I discussed earlier. This obviously means that unless they achieve a suitable standard in the language which will enable them to understand the technology subjects, their education in general is at stake. English in this case is a means to an end and not an end in itself, which makes Widdowson's and Wilkins' suggestion inappropriate since they look at English as an end which could be achieved by another means, i.e. learning science. To abandon teaching English as such would be both impractical and harmful. Furthermore, it is highly unlikely that students will develop their communicative competence in a workshop situation with its variable communicative functions by learning English through science or technology for this matter. And since communication

can be carried out through different channels other than verbal language, the student might acquire most of the scientific and technical knowledge through models, pictures, diagrams, charts or non-verbal demonstrations, and there is no doubt that science and technology are perfect areas for using these devices. Thus, we cannot assume that the student will master the language as he learns his science or technology. There is also every chance that the teacher will exploit these non-verbal communicative channels in his frustration to teach the subject content especially if the students' language standard is low, as is the case with students in Bahrain.

Another complication in the "English through science" approach is that we will need scientists with EFL qualifications, or EFL teachers with scientific qualifications to fulfil this task, and both are scarce not just in Bahrain but in most countries where English is taught as a foreign language. Thus, what we really should do is to teach a functional type of English which is related to science or technology. However, the emphasis should not be on teaching the scientific or the technical knowledge but rather on showing how that knowledge is expressed through English.

CHAPTER TWO

CURRENT APPROACHES TO ELT IN BAHRAINI SCHOOLS

There is no doubt that the early stages in learning a foreign language are very crucial in shaping the manner in which the learner goes about learning that language and the attitude he takes towards it. The learner usually builds on the learning stages which stay available throughout the learning process and which appear sometimes in his language performance. Thus, information about the linguistic background of the learner are always considered vital in constructing language programmes, not just in order to decide what language items to teach at the following stage, but also to know the learning habits which has already been established at the previous stage. Such information will greatly influence the content and methodology of the language course.

Since entrants to technical schools in Bahrain are the product of the preceding two stages (primary and intermediate) they tend to carry with them certain features of the language learning process at those stages, which are usually manifested in their attitudes towards the language and the manner in which they set about learning it at this stage. The predominant view is that these attitudes and manner of learning are not always in harmony with the nature and objectives of the language courses in technical schools. However, this is quite expected, since the aims, the objectives, the priorities, and above all the purposes underlying language teaching in technical schools are quite different from those of the preceding stages. One of the major

differences is that English here is not just an examination subject but also, and more importantly, a medium of instruction for certain subjects. That is to say, it is a means through which education is acquired.

In order to recognize the attitudes, manner of learning and language problems of students entering technical schools, and to suggest suitable ways to deal with these problems in relation to the terminal objectives of the language courses in those schools, it is essential that we look critically at the language teaching situations at the preceding stages. Despite the fact that entrants to technical schools have in fact learnt English for five years, their command of the language is far from satisfactory, and they definitely cannot use it to fulfil certain basic communicative functions in classroom or workshop situations. This is partly due to the low professional status of the teachers and the poor teaching conditions at the two stages, and partly to the language learning theories on which English courses are based. These two factors together are responsible for the student's inability to use his language for communication even after five years of learning the language.

It is interesting perhaps to note that at the primary stage the teaching methods are based on the audio-lingual approach, whereas at the intermediate stage they are based on the cognitive code-learning approach. This in fact is manifested in the proposed new syllabus for the intermediate schools which states that the first specific aim of "Intermediate English" is "to complete in oral English the movement away from stimulus-orientated communication, begun in primary Education, to free communication, based on cognitive-creative acts." I will examine the two situations separately here and show their effects on developing the students' communicative competence.

I The Audio-lingual Approach at the Primary Stage:

Language teaching in primary schools tends to concern itself with establishing the right habits in language through stimulus-response mechanisms. This is because the audio-lingual habit theory is based on Skinner's behaviouristic approach to language learning. Skinner assumes that "verbal behavior, like any other behavior, is composed of stimulus-response bonds. In his opinion, language is a mechanical, not an intellectual, process. In order for behaviour to be conditioned, the student must be led through a series of stimulus-response situations in which his active response is followed by immediate reinforcement." (Chastain, 1971, p113). Thus, in the view of the audio-lingualists, language learning is a habit formation process. Brooks (1964) writes, "The simple paramount fact about language learning is that it concerns, not problem solving, but the formation and performance of habits." (p49).

In the audio-lingual approach, imitation and repetition of the structural patterns of the target language are vitally essential in the formation of language habits. This is in fact the central assumption on which the language teaching process in Bahraini primary schools is based. Allen and Cooke, the authors of the language course used in these schools, "Living English for the Arab World", write in their introduction to Teacher's Book I (1961) that "it is precisely those early days of listening, imitating and practising that are the most important for the pupils and the most rewarding for the teacher." (p4). They typically encourage rote learning by instructing the teacher to "Find time occasionally for learning rhymes and sentences by heart. A sentence of five words learnt by heart is worth much more than five words learnt in a list." (p4-5). In their introduction to Teacher's Book 2 (1962) they state that they aim at "increasing the pupils' knowledge of the MECHANICS of the language." (p1, their emphasis),

and that in teaching new words or structures, the teacher should follow these steps:

- "(a) The teacher gives the new word or structure orally, preferably in a meaningful phrase or sentence.
- (b) The pupils imitate you.
- (c) The teacher gives further sentences for practice, or asks questions or gives quick oral drills." (p2).

To them, grammar and structural patterns represent the framework of the language which we cannot learn from an explanation and a few examples, because it is not a question of KNOWLEDGE but of SKILL." (p3, their emphasis), and therefore can only be learnt through continuous drill and practice.

Since the audio-lingual approach assigns primacy to speech, language is taught mainly in the form of oral responses to aural stimuli through pattern drills and substitution tables. In fact these drills and tables constitute the most important component of the language period in primary schools in Bahrain. Substitution tables like the following are constantly provided in the teacher's book, and sometimes in the pupils' book, of "Living English for the Arab World".

EXERCISE 11

Make 10 sentences from this table:

We have	Arabic English maths science	once	a day
I eat		twice	
I drink	coffee tea milk water	three times	a week
They play	football basketball		
He cleans	his teeth his shoes the blackboard his bicycle	four times	a year

Perhaps the greatest deficiency of the audio-lingual approach to language teaching lies in its assumption that, through imitation, repetition and reinforcement, the learner will, unconsciously, develop an understanding of the rules of the language which he will then transfer to his use of that language in similar situations outside the classroom. Such an assumption seems to imply that in order to develop the learner's ability to communicate through the language, we would have to take him through all the sentence structures in the language. Obviously this would be almost impossible, because first, it would require a very long time, much more longer than what a second language learner usually has at hand, and secondly, since there is no one-to-one relationship between stimuli and responses in actual communication, it is almost impossible to predict the form of the response to any stimulus. The fact is that "A native speaker is continually creating new utterances, not merely repeating identical responses to previously met stimuli." (Chastain, 1971, p115). Therefore we have to tackle the problem of teaching the communicative use of the language in a more practical way than as fixed responses to fixed stimuli.

The other important point is that, in its attempt to develop automatic responses, at least in the early stages of language learning, the audio-lingual approach tends to overlook the question of meaning. Meaning is substituted by "appropriateness" of the response to the stimulus provided. As the drilled patterns are rarely related to real life situations, this approach to language teaching can hardly be considered effective in developing meaningful use of the target language. Wilkins (1972) points out that "In practice the greatest deficiency of the audio-lingual method is its failure to prepare the learner to use his language for communication." (p168). Carroll (1966) indicates that "The more meaningful the material to be

learned, the greater the facility in learning and retention. The audiolingual habit theory tends to play down meaningfulness in favor of producing automaticity." (p104). Wilkins (1972) believes that this is "a serious deficiency since the whole object of language is to communicate meaning." (p167), and suggests that "The meaning of language needs to be much more carefully planned and taught than assigning it to a simple stimulus-response relationship permits." (p168). The lack of explanation of the structure of the language is another deficiency in the audio-lingual approach. Learners are usually unaware of what is involved in correct use of language since the pattern drills or substitution tables do not offer explicit explanation of the structure of the language.

Finally, if the highest point of mastering a second language is the ability to think in that second language, then this cannot be achieved through rote learning of pattern drills. Catford (1971), argues that "the only valid and interesting sense of 'thinking in a second language' must imply more than this kind of superficial automatism. It must imply categorizing one's experience directly in the terms laid down by the deep grammatical system of the language." (p93).

II The Cognitive Code-learning Approach at the Intermediate Stage:

The study of the basic principles on which language teaching is based at the intermediate stage is also essential in this critical analysis of approaches to ELT, if only because this stage is directly responsible for the standard of English of technical school entrants. As I mentioned earlier, the situation in intermediate schools is quite different. Drills and substitution tables are no longer considered the way to teach the language. Most teachers tend to devote a part of the lesson, or sometimes a period, to teaching the grammar of the language. This is usually followed by written practice exercises. Thus we can say, as in fact the syllabus stresses, that the approach here is based on the cognitive code-learning theory which, as Carroll (1966) points out, is a modified, up-to-date grammar translation theory. He writes:

"According to this theory, learning a language is a process of acquiring conscious control of the phonological, grammatical, and lexical patterns of a second-language, largely through study and analysis of these patterns as a body of knowledge. The theory attaches more importance to the learner's understanding of the structure of the foreign language than to his facility in using that structure, since it is believed that provided the student has a proper degree of cognitive control over the structures of the language, facility will develop automatically with use of the language in meaningful situations." (p102).

This theory is closely linked to the mentalists' view of first language acquisition which "attributes to the child specific innate competencies which guide his discovery of the rules of the natural language to which he is exposed." (Jakobovits, 1970, p24). In the view of the mentalists language acquisition is a process of internalizing the language rules which are then applied in constructing

or understanding utterances. Based on this view, the cognitive code-learning theory places substantial emphasis on the mastery of the rules of the target language through adequate exposure. Wilkins (1972), makes the point that "if language is 'rule-governed creativity', as Chomsky has called it, it is not that sentences in a language ARE structures, it is that they HAVE structure. This structure is on each occasion created by applying the rules of the language Obviously language teaching cannot prepare the pupil for all the actual sentence structures he may meet. What we must do instead is familiarize the pupil with the elements of structures of a language and the rules governing the relationships between them. Then he is able to construct and recognize sentences as occasion demands." (p72-3). Hence, the cognitive code-learning theorists reject the conceptions of imitation and repetition as effective techniques in language learning. They point out that repetition of correct responses in a controlled situation does not mean that the learner has mastered the rules of the language, as is usually discovered when the same learner is transferred to a free situation. Thus, the pattern drills, emphasized by the audio-lingualists, are replaced by transformation exercises dealing with the phonology, syntax and semantics of the target language.

One of the major criticism of **this** approach to language teaching is that it offers the learner very little help in using the language. Knowing about the language obviously does not mean knowing the language. That is to say, learning the grammatical rules of a certain language does not necessarily lead to using it for communication when it is needed. Wilkins (1972) points out that the child "does not learn to produce language by watching and hearing other people use it. Nor does he learn by having language use described or explained to him. If it is active language use that he is to learn, his responses must

be active language responses." (p162-3). Thus, what the learner needs is continuous practice in using the different structures of the language for communication. Finally, behaviourists, like Brooks and Rivers, who believe that learning a language is a skill do not believe that this skill can be learnt by learning the rules which underlie it. Wilkins (1972) points out that these behaviourists argue that "Learning a language is like learning to type, to ride a bicycle or to carry out any of the other routines that we characterize as habits. They are forms of human activity which, once learned, can be carried out without the conscious use of one's cognitive processes. The belief is that conscious attention to the principles underlying the skill does not assist the learning of the skill." (p164).

We have seen that neither the audio-lingual habit theory nor the cognitive code-learning theory is sufficient on its own to provide the learner with an active command of the language to fulfil certain communicative functions. The audio-lingual approach fails to do this since it principally aims at developing the learner's automatic responses to fixed stimuli in a controlled situation. But communication cannot be tied down to automaticity or fixed stimuli. The cognitive code-learning approach on the other hand fails to provide the learner with a functional command of the language since it does not give enough priority to language practice which every language learner needs and which most psycholinguists would claim that it is what language learning is all about. The other important point is that both of these approaches are mainly concerned with the teaching of the syntactic aspects of the language without paying much attention to semantics which is undeniably a fundamental constituent of any communicative act. If, for instance, we consider these two pairs of sentences:

(a) I closed the door.

(b) I slammed the door.

(c) He took the book.

(d) He snatched the book.

we find that (a) differs from (b) and (c) differs from (d), but the difference is not a syntactic but a semantic one, since (a) and (c) have what has been called "ideational" or "propositional" meaning, while (b) and (d) have some features of what Palmer (1976) calls an "evaluative" or "emotive" meaning. Both approaches fail to teach this distinction in using the language.

The importance of semantics in using language for different communicative functions is related to the appropriacy of language use which includes, among some other categories, stylistic appropriacy. This concerns the use of the appropriate form of language for the appropriate context, i.e. the use of certain words or phrases which are related to specialist subjects such as technology, science, astronomy, and so on. It is these aspects of language use that the language learner should be able to handle if he is to use the language meaningfully. Leech (1974) talks about "unsemantic" utterances or expressions in the sense that "although they obey the grammatical rules of the language concerned ... they are aberrant or odd from the point of view of meaning." (p6). He refers to certain forms of oddity such as tautology as in "Monday came before the day which followed it", contradiction as in "Everything I like I dislike", and utterances with absurd presuppositions as in "Do you know how the man who killed his widow was punished?" This suggests that we can speak of "linguistic competence" and "semantic competence" as two integral components of "communicative competence".

Finally, since both the audio-lingual and the code cognitive approach are grammatically oriented, they cannot lead to developing the learner's

communicative competence. This is because they do not cater for the fact that there are two sets of rules, rules of grammar and rules of use, which represent the major constituents of language as a communicative tool, and that the communicative function of a certain utterance is sometimes determined by the rules of use and not by the rules of grammar. The first person singular pronoun in the sentence "I should see a doctor" would refer to the second person pronoun "you" if the sentence was addressed to a sick person, since the communicative function of this sentence would be an advice and not a statement as it might sound from its linguistic form. Hymes (1972) indicates that "There are rules of use without which the rules of grammar would be useless. Just as rules of syntax can control aspects of phonology, and just as semantic rules perhaps control aspects of syntax, so rules of speech acts enter as a controlling factor for linguistic form as a whole." (p278). Much of the failure of many language courses to develop the learner's communicative competence is in fact due to their failure to realize, or make it explicit to the learner, that the two sets of rules are not identical.

III The Case for a Functional Approach to Teaching English:

Given our aims and specific purposes for teaching English to technical students (see Chapter One) it seems that we have to look at our task from another angle. If our aim is to teach the use of language, then it is logical that we should base our teaching on the functions of the language in relation to the learner's needs. In other words we should teach language as a social behaviour in the contexts underlined by the learner's needs and not as an abstraction. Explaining the rules of the language, or practising unrelated bits of language will never provide the learner with the ability to communicate through the language. As language is used in **reality** to fulfil different functions, the student should learn how to use the structure of the language to do just that. Thus, "what the student has to learn is not 'language' but 'communication' and the test of his success is not performance in the classroom, where attention is concentrated upon his linguistic accuracy, but successful communication in the real world..." (Jupp and Hodlin, 1975, p7). This becomes more feasible in the case of Bahraini technical students, bearing in mind that these students are not absolute beginners, and that they have specific purposes. I will discuss the communicative functions related to the Bahraini technical student later in this paper, but for the moment it is worth mentioning that typical examples of the sort of functions he would need to perform through English would be: describing tools or processes, asking and responding to questions, making requests, giving reasons, stating rules, and so on. The functional approach to language teaching is of course not without difficulty. The fact is that we may use different linguistic forms to fulfil the same function. All the following forms, for example, may be considered as making a request:

(a) Close the window, please. It's freezing in here.

(b) I wish you would close the window. It's freezing in here.

(c) Would you mind closing the window. It's freezing in here.

The other important fact, of course, is that most utterances are multi-functional. (see p22). This of course creates a problem in selecting the grammatical structures to be taught within a functional framework. However, this problem could, to a certain extent, be reduced if we considered some other paralinguistic aspects which are related to the use of language in fulfilling a certain communicative function, the most important ones being the relationship between the participants involved in the communicative act and the context in which communication is taking place. Thus, we can perhaps rightly assume that in sentence (a) above the relationship is an informal or casual (e.g. two ladies working in the same office) whereas in (b) it is intimate (e.g. wife-husband) and in (c) it is formal (e.g. two **strangers** on a bus). The other factor which usually governs our choice of a linguistic form to fulfil a certain communicative function is the mode of communication, i.e. whether it is spoken or written, and therefore in making a request, for instance, the form "I should be grateful if you could let me have an estimate for the repairs to be carried out in my car." would almost be impossible in spoken English. Thus, the selection and presentation of the grammatical structures could, in this case, be based on sociolinguistic or stylistic conditions, which will obviously require investigations into the purposes of the learner as a starting stage. Furthermore, although there is no one-to-one correspondence between the linguistic form and the communicative function of an utterance, there are, nevertheless, certain conventions of use which are identifiable in the absence of contextual information. Widdowson (1971) for instance, argues that "though there are several different kinds of act that can be performed by the imperative, when an order is given, it is always

the imperative which is used." (p39). In a functional approach to language teaching it is these conventions of use that we should focus on.

Applying the functional approach in Bahraini technical schools would mean that we should not focus on the linguistic properties of the different language patterns but rather on their functions as communicative acts in a technical context, and thus we should not focus on teaching "prepositions" but on teaching "location of objects", not on "comparative and superlative forms" but on "relation between objects", not on "conjunctions" but on "relation between statements", and not on "the imperative" but on "giving instructions".

IV The State of the Art:

It is perhaps not out of context in this brief discussion of the different approaches to foreign language teaching to mention that the fact that there is no general agreement on the "best" approach to teaching a foreign language is a clear indication that we still do not have sound solutions to the problems concerning language teaching. It seems that despite our increasing investigations in language teaching and other related disciplines such as linguistics and psychology, the teaching of foreign languages seems to be still engulfed in a state of uncertainty. Wardhaugh (1971) indicates that "A reading of the recent history of teaching English to speakers of other languages and of many recent books and articles on specific pedagogical issues will alert the reader to the fact that the present state of the art may be characterized by the word uncertainty. This uncertainty arises from the current ferment in those disciplines which underlie second-language teaching: linguistics, psychology and pedagogy." (p11). Carroll (1966) writes, "We do not yet have either a good general theory concerning the conditions under which learning takes place or a general theory of language behavior that would enable us to select optional components of a foreign language teaching system for any given case." (p101).

The uncertainty in foreign language teaching is also due to other factors, among them:

- (a) The changes in languages or at least our understanding of them.
- (b) The diversity of the learners, their ages, motivation, backgrounds, aptitudes, attitudes and purposes for learning a certain language.
- (c) The diversity of the social, educational, economic and even political situations in which the learning is taking place.
- (d) The growing influence of linguistics on language teaching which usually leads to adopting different methods in teaching and material

production.

Furthermore, it is perhaps possible to argue that this state of uncertainty in foreign language teaching is also related, to a certain extent, to the fact that we still do not know enough about how children acquire their first language in the first place. Argument is still fierce between the behaviourists and the mentalists. This of course is not without relevance to foreign language learning. In discussing the developments in language learning psychology, Girard (1972) states that "we have been given some idea of the mental processes through which the young child learns his own language, and this information is casting light on the acquisition of a second language." (p12).

It is not surprising that almost all those who have written about the teaching of foreign languages had to relate their discussions in some way to first language acquisition, and that most of the current theories of foreign language learning have in fact sprung from those concerned with first language acquisition. This is not to suggest, of course, that the two situations are similar, but only that some knowledge concerning first language acquisition might, to a certain extent, be valid in second language learning, especially in the case of young learners.

To conclude my discussion of approaches to teaching foreign languages, it is important to point out that our attitude should not be to reject the "old" in favour of the "new", but rather to make use of different approaches for different learners in different situations, since "any language teaching operation takes place in a context of highly variable external factors, and must be adjusted to suit them." (Catford, 1964, p141). It is also important to realise that there is no such a thing as the "best" method for teaching a foreign language, and that every method has good aspects as well as bad ones. Earlier, Henry Sweet (1899) pointed out that "until everyone recognizes that

there is no royal road to languages the public will continue to run after one new method after the other, only to return disappointed to the old routine." (pvii). Thus, we should adopt an evolutionary rather than revolutionary attitude towards the teaching methods. We should also pay equal attention to paralinguistic factors which heavily influence the process of language learning, those factors such as the language aptitude of the learner, his linguistic background, age, and motivation. We have seen in the previous chapter how strong instrumental motivation is in fact responsible for the comparatively higher standard in English among Bahraini technical students.

It seems that whatever our approach might be to language teaching the ultimate aim of any foreign language course is to help the learner to develop the ability to communicate through that language. This definitely is the principal aim of teaching English in Bahraini technical schools due to its role in the curriculum and workshop situations. (see Chapter One). If it is active communication we are after, then the student should learn how to express certain communicative functions in technical contexts in this case. This, in my opinion, would mean that he has to acquire the following skills:

- (a) To understand how the language system is organised to fulfil certain communicative acts in a technical discourse.
- (b) To practise those forms of communicative acts in dialogues or discourse .
- (c) To use those forms meaningfully in appropriate contexts.

This means that we may need a combination of the three approaches mentioned so far to fulfil our aim, the cognitive code-learning for presentation, the audio-lingual for practice and the functional for use. The need for a combination of different techniques in most foreign language situations has been stressed by Allen (1974) whose view is

"that successful language teaching depends on a mixture of habit-forming and analytic-deductive procedures, realised in various combinations according to the nature of the learning task and the type of students involved." (p84). If, for example, the student is learning how to respond to questions on measurements, he should first know that there are two ways of forming a question for this purpose:

(a) How high (thick, wide, etc.) is the door?

(c) What is the height (thickness, width, etc.) of the door?

and consequently the answers corresponding to these two types of questions will be different. Then he should practise answering one type or both types of these questions in a dialogue dealing with measurements, such as the following:

Teacher: How thick is the steel plate?

Student: It's one inch thick.

Teacher: And how wide is it?

Student: It's 10 inches wide.

Teacher: And how big is the piece you need?

Student: I need a 4 foot by 10 inch piece.

Teacher: All right, and how will you cut it?

Student: I'll use a 12 inch hacksaw.

Teacher: No, we don't cut a one inch plate with a hacksaw. We use an oxy-acetylene flame.

The crucial stage is the use of this form in an appropriate context. This calls for maximum collaboration between the language teacher and the technology teacher or the workshop instructor to put this form in use immediately after it has been learnt in the classroom by conducting activities in the workshop involving measurements and insisting on the use of the new form. Thus, the student can see the use of the language he is learning in helping him to express certain communicative functions,

and this will obviously influence his motivation. This collaboration is also essential in dealing with common errors among students, or deciding the type of communicative functions which need to be taught. The technology teacher and the workshop instructor should, whenever possible, supply the language teacher with a check-list of certain functions they would like the students to be able to perform through English. It is unfortunate that this relationship does not exist at the moment in Bahraini technical schools which says a lot about our failure to meet the linguistic needs of the students.

C H A P T E R T H R E E

APPROACHES TO SYLLABUS DESIGN

In my discussion so far I have adopted the view that in order to achieve proficiency in language, the learner "must know not only the basic structural principles of the language (the code) but also how to use sentences in performing acts of communication, and how to combine them to create coherent passages of discourse (use of the code)." (Allen and Widdowson, 1975, p89). This suggests that our approach to foreign language teaching should be semantically rather than syntactically based. That is to say, we should teach the learner how to use the language to express certain meanings in certain situations (communicative functions) rather than how to construct isolated grammatical sentences.

The question of what to teach in a language course leads us to examine current approaches to syllabus design. But first, it is essential to note that the principle task of any syllabus is to define explicitly the linguistic content of the language course which is to be taught to certain learners in a certain situation. Some syllabuses, however, go beyond this and include examples of teaching material, and incorporate advice on methodology especially in situations where teachers are either ill-trained or completely untrained. Whatever the content of the syllabus, the fundamental criterion in judging its merit is that the content must be suitable for the situation in which it is intended to be implemented. This implies that the syllabus designer should have some information about the learner and his purpose for

learning the given foreign language, since it is almost impossible to decide what to teach if we do not know the learner and his needs. Information concerning the role of the foreign language in society in general and in the educational system in particular is also essential in deciding what to teach. This in fact explains the recent trend to produce tailored syllabuses, and of course textbooks, which are closely related to certain learners in certain situations. It is perhaps true to suggest, however, that whatever our criteria, our approach to syllabus design will reflect our attitude towards theories of language description and language learning.

According to Wilkins (1976) the current language syllabuses can be conceptually grouped into two types; "synthetic" and "analytic". Synthetic syllabuses aim to facilitate the learner's task by exposing him to the language through a gradual organized process. The language is broken into small parts which are then "taught separately and step-by-step so that acquisition is a process of gradual accumulation of the parts until the whole structure of the language has been built up" (p2). A structural (or grammatical) syllabus is an example of a synthetic syllabus. Analytic syllabuses, on the other hand, are not based on the learner's capacity to synthesize the small parts of the language which he had learnt over many stages, but on his capacity to analyse the language behaviour as it is realized in certain situations. Analytic syllabuses are, therefore, "organized in terms of the purposes for which people are learning language and the kinds of language performance that are necessary to meet those purposes." (Wilkins, 1976, p13). Thus, the learner is exposed from the beginning to various linguistic structures as they are used in actual language behaviour, and not restricted to the structures he is familiar with from direct teaching. The underlying strategy being to focus on, rather than to **include only**, the structures

we want to teach. Situational, functional and notional syllabuses are examples of analytic syllabuses.

To decide on the most appropriate type of syllabus for use in Bahraini technical schools, I will examine three approaches to syllabus design, a grammatical (structural), a situational and a notional.

I Grammatical (structural) Syllabuses:

Briefly, the grammatical approach aims at conveying the language structure to the learner through step-by-step presentation of graded grammatical patterns and vocabulary. The grading is mainly according to difficulty in relation to other patterns. The hope is that when the learner has accumulated the grammatical rules of the language, either directly or through learning certain patterns, he will use them for communication. Thus, communicative mastery of language is obviously delayed until the last stage when all the rules have been learnt. If our aim in teaching a certain language is, as I have mentioned earlier, to develop the learner's ability to use that language for communication in real situations, then this approach is not an appropriate one. The learner will be incapable of using his receptive or productive language skills in contexts which call for language usages he has not yet been exposed to. Also, such an approach usually aims at teaching the whole grammatical system of the language, and thus ignores the specific communicative needs of the learner.

The other important point is that grammatical syllabuses usually teach the structures of the language as forms and not as meanings, and thus ignore the fact that one form can serve different meanings (functions) and also that one meaning (function) can be conveyed by different forms. Widdowson (1971, p38-39) provides an example for the first case when he considers the use of the imperative to fulfil different functions in the following sentences:

- | | |
|----------------------------------|---------------|
| (a) Bake the pie in a slow oven. | "instruction" |
| (b) Come for dinner tomorrow. | "invitation" |
| (c) Forgive us our trespasses. | "prayer" |
| (d) Take up his offer. | "advice" |

He then illustrates the second case by quoting Labov's examples

(1969) of the different ways to phrase a command:

- (a) This should be done again.
- (b) You'll have to do this again.
- (c) You can do better than this.
- (d) It's my job to get you to do better than this.

It is obvious then that the acquisition of grammatical forms in isolation does not mean the acquisition of a communicative competence, the aim with which we are mainly concerned here.

A grammatical syllabus sets out to break the language into small parts which are then taught separately as isolated bits of language. Each bit has to be practised thoroughly before proceeding to the next. Howatt (1974) calls this a "linear" way of learning a language and indicates that "we cannot reasonably expect full control of a new bit of language at a first encounter" (p20). He suggests that we learn our language in a "spiral" way, that is to say, "we continually experience a new word or phrase and endeavour to assimilate it by trying it out on people and listening to the way other people use it." (p20). This means that we learn new bits of language gradually through the recurrence of those bits in different combinations and different situations. In grammatical syllabuses great emphasis is placed on grading and sequencing the language units so that our input matches the learner's intake, which is always assumed to be low, to facilitate the learning process. The result is that these syllabuses usually contain very little language in each unit. It is not surprising that most structural textbooks hardly contain any language. Achieving a reasonable command of the language in this way will require years of learning since the language items are thinly spread over a long period. This usually affects the learner's motivation since it is difficult in this situation to sustain the interest of the learner who wants to see immediate return for his effort, especially

if he desperately needs to use the language for communication.

The other important point is that a grammatical syllabus usually contains an inventory of structures to be taught which are often given pure grammatical labels. The following are some of the language items which appear in a syllabus prepared for Tanzanian secondary schools in 1969:

1. The Standard Sentence.
2. The Article.
3. Tenses: Simple Past and Past Continuous, Present Perfect and Present Perfect Continuous, Past Perfect, etc. (with negative and interrogative)
4. Direct Speech.
5. Relative.
6. Uncountable Nouns.
7. Comparatives.
8. Conditionals, and so on.

The hope is that once we have taught the Present Progressive, for instance, the learner will use it whenever he is making an utterance about an event happening at the time of making that utterance. This inadequate recognition of the possible interchange between these morphological forms in real life communication, and of the semantic aspects of the verb usually creates confusion. In real life communication the Present Progressive is often used with reference to other times as well, as in the following examples:

- (a) The government is introducing a new pension scheme next summer. (Future)
- (b) He is always complaining about the weather. (Habitual)

If, for example, we have taught the Present Simple as the form used for expressing habits and general truths, as most grammatical syllabuses and textbooks would do, then the learner will be confused when he hears

this tense used in referring to events which do not fall under those two categories, as in:

- (a) Their plane arrives at ten o'clock. (referring to the future)
- (b) Keegan plays a nice ball to Highway. (referring to a present action
in a commentary)
- (c) Suddenly someone opens the door and starts running down the road.
(referring to an action in the past in telling a story)

If we teach the students that the Negative is formed by adding "not" or "auxiliary + not", then we are excluding a substantial group of negative sentences which are formed in other different ways, as in:

- (a) I have never met your girl friend.
- (b) There are no chairs in this room.
- (c) This is hardly the time to go for a walk.
- (d) I disagree with you.

Grammatical syllabuses usually do not teach this type of negative since there are no suitable grammatical labels they can be introduced under. The point is that by concentrating on the formal properties of the language structures and ignoring the **interaction** between the syntactic and semantic aspects of those structures, grammatical syllabuses usually lead the learner to confusion and failure to realize the interrelation between the components of any utterance in communicating meaning. He may also fail to realize that internally different structures can fulfil an identical communicative function. Finally, the emphasis on careful grading of the grammatical system, which is a typical feature of a grammatical syllabus, leads to presenting together sentences which are structurally identical but semantically heterogeneous. This is a highly artificial approach in language presentation which cannot lead to developing the learner's communicative competence since "in real acts of communication it is the sentences that are alike in meaning that occur together and not those that are alike in structure". (Wilkins, 1973a, p3).

II Situational Syllabuses:

The dissatisfaction with grammatical syllabuses is based mainly on the fact that these syllabuses place substantial emphasis on the internal properties of the patterns of the language and thus fails to prepare the learner to use the language in social situations. This dissatisfaction has led syllabus constructors, and of course textbook writers, to look at language teaching as a learner-oriented rather than a subject-oriented process. One way of doing this would be to "predict the situations in which the learner is likely to need the language and then teach the language that is necessary to perform linguistically in those situations." (Wilkins, 1976, p16). This obviously implies that different learners will have different syllabuses. Also, the linguistic content of a situational syllabus would be the result of linguistic analysis of the language situations decided upon which would take into account certain features of the situation, among them are:

- (a) The physical context: whether the language is being used on a bus, at a party, or at the post office.
- (b) The mode of language: whether the language used is written or spoken.
- (c) The social relationship between the interlocutors: whether it is husband-wife or manager-secretary relationship.
- (d) The subject matter: whether discussing the football results or describing how an accident had happened.
- (e) The type of language activity: whether it is productive or receptive.

In a situational syllabus the grammatical labels are replaced by situational labels. Courses constructed on a situational approach contain units dealing with certain situations such as "Asking the way", "On a bus", "In a restaurant", "In a post office", "At the doctor's

surgery", and so on. (See Ockenden, 1972, "Situational Dialogues").

Although a situational syllabus may be successful in certain respects, when used in certain situations which have fairly definable linguistic content, it is not always so if we considered more realistically what we might say in any particular situation. It would seem impractical, if not impossible, to predict the language which is likely to be used in a certain situation since there are almost unlimited utterances which a speaker could make in that situation according to his intentions and purposes. One might go to a public library to borrow a book, to ask about certain classes for further education, to buy a ticket for a concert, to get information about local clubs, or to use the photocopying machine (which may require no language use at all). All these functions are quite legitimate and highly expected in the situation given, and would certainly require distinct language uses. And even in a situation with a fairly definable linguistic function, like "At the grocers", there is a variety of language usage which can only be determined by the characteristics of the speaker. Asking for a dozen of eggs, for instance, he may say:

- (a) I'd like a dozen of eggs, please.
- (b) I'll have a dozen of eggs, please.
- (c) Could I have a dozen of eggs, please?
- (d) Can you give me a dozen of eggs, please?

Pit-Corder (1973) writes, "Language has semantic links with the world outside language, but it does not follow that there is any simple one-to-one relation with internalized linguistic representation and 'situations'. Chomsky has said that language is 'stimulus-free', meaning that we have not yet been able, and perhaps never will be able, to relate in any simple way situational stimuli with linguistic responses in the form of whole utterances. If we should ever be able to do so it

would rob language of meaning or its communicative function, since it would be wholly predictable from a knowledge of the situation." (p128).

The other equally important factor which limits the effectiveness of the situational approach as a way to develop a meaningful use of the language is the fact that it ignores the interruption of other participants involved in any linguistic situation which usually makes us change our minds, and thus our utterances, in the course of our conversation. This in fact is one of the features of language as a social behaviour.

It seems that a situational syllabus can only be successful if used for certain restricted situations, with highly predictable stimuli. Just as a grammatical syllabus is limited in meeting the learner's specific language needs, a situational syllabus is limited in meeting his general needs.

III Notional Syllabuses:

The basic underlying strategy in a notional syllabus is that "instead of asking how speakers of the language express themselves or when and where they use the language, we ask what it is they communicate through language. We are then able to organize language teaching in terms of the content rather than the form of the language." (Wilkins, 1976, p18). In other words, we should first decide what language functions the learner should be able to perform according to his needs and then how these functions are most appropriately realized linguistically. This implies that we can organize both special courses as well as general ones since the linguistic content of the syllabus will be determined by the needs of the learner. The linguistic content of a notional syllabus is therefore semantically based. Since a certain function can be expressed in various forms (see page 51) the linguistic contents of a notional syllabus have to be heterogeneous. This will obviously have further implication in the process of grading and presentation of different forms, as utterances are introduced according to their deep structure (meaning) and not surface structure (form).

Thus, sentences like:

- (a) Whittle invented the jet engine.
- (b) The jet engine was invented by Whittle.
- (c) It was Whittle who invented the jet engine.

could be introduced at the same time since, although they are structurally heterogeneous, they are thematically related. This obviously will help the learner to see the semantic relationship between such sentences which is not manifested by the surface structure.

Since any linguistic situation is a combination of linguistic and paralinguistic components (i.e. social and psychological) the grammatical and lexical contents of a notional syllabus will have to be decided on

according to the subject-matter and situation. The aim being to teach the use of language to convey the types of meaning which Wilkins (1976) defines as being "ideational", i.e. how we express our perceptions of the world, "modal", i.e. how we express our attitude towards what we are saying or writing, and "functional", i.e. how we employ language for certain use. To express each type of meaning Wilkins provides an inventory of categories which can be used as a base for constructing a notional syllabus, and which he labels accordingly as 'semantico-grammatical categories', 'categories of modal meaning' and 'categories of communicative function'. (See Appendix C). However, it is worth mentioning here certain points which Wilkins makes with regards the use of these categories for language teaching:

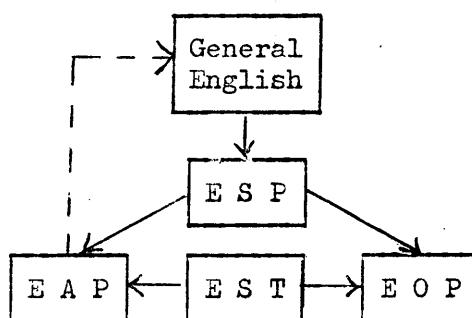
- (a) Although the semantico-grammatical categories may be universal, since many different languages express similar types of meaning, it is uncertain whether the categories of communicative function are universal.
- (b) It is possible to produce functional syllabuses based on categories of communicative function to teach the use of the language to express functional (social) meaning, and conceptual syllabuses based on semantico-grammatical categories to teach the use of the language to express conceptional (formal) meaning. But a fully notional syllabus must include functional, modal and conceptual categories.
- (c) These categories are not mutually exclusive, since any utterance would usually contain different concepts and functions, and therefore any language teaching situation would involve a bundle of concepts and language functions.
- (d) These categories form a large inventory and the construction of an actual notional syllabus would require the selection and ordering of the appropriate categories according to the needs of the learner.

In considering the application of notional syllabuses in language teaching Wilkins (1976) points out that "it is doubtful whether global courses provide the most effective field of application of the notional approach. In the first place the needs of the learners are in practice difficult to define, secondly, for most of the learners the opportunity actually to use the language may be long deferred." (p69).

However, these very reasons in fact make a notional syllabus the most practical approach to language teaching in Bahraini technical schools since prediction of the learner's needs can be made with some accuracy and the situations which will require the use of language are specific and, to a certain extent, definable. This will be discussed in detail in the next chapter. The application of notional syllabuses in language teaching to cater for the specific needs of certain learners leads us to consider some aspects of an important area in constructing English language syllabuses which is commonly known as "English for Specific Purposes" (ESP).

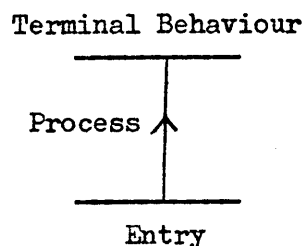
IV ESP Courses:

Recently, there has been a lot of dissatisfaction with common-core English courses which are not related to the learner's immediate needs and which do not foster definite and restricted objectives. Perhaps the most influential factor responsible for generating such dissatisfaction is the change in motivation for learning English. This in fact was noted over twenty years ago when West (1956) indicated that in learning English "The dominant motive is no longer literary and social (interest in the British way of life) but commercial, technical and scientific" (p153). This change in attitude towards learning English created a need for adopting more practical approaches in deciding what to teach. Most of these approaches have so far been based on the principle that the needs of the learner should represent the central point in constructing syllabuses or writing teaching materials. Hence the recent development of language courses which are closely linked to the needs of certain learners or to certain disciplines under the notion "English for Special Purposes" (ESP), and which can be divided into two main areas, "English for Academic Purposes" (EAP) and "English for Occupational Purposes" (EOP). Another area which should be included here is "English for Science and Technology" (EST) which is considered as a key area within EAP. It is worth noting that despite some distinct features in these areas, they in fact overlap to some extent. The following diagram shows this overlap.



(See Appendix D for a full discussion of these areas and the linguistic distinctions between ESP and general English)

The basic principle underlying ESP is that it attempts to specify, as accurately as possible, and in relation to EFL, (a) the entry characteristics of the learner, (b) the process he should go through, and (c) the terminal behaviour he should achieve. This relationship can be presented in the following diagram:



At the beginning the concern was to produce materials suitable for learners with special needs and who are dealing with the use of the language for certain disciplines (e.g. English for scientists, English for nurses, English for waiters, and so on). Recent developments in ESP, however, have yielded new approaches which place a lot of emphasis on teaching the social rather than the linguistic functions of the language, and which are attributed to developments in sociolinguistics. Thus, the emphasis now in ESP is to teach the use of language as a terminal behaviour in certain situations to fulfil certain communicative functions (e.g. to use the language to instruct, to advise, to describe, to enquire, to request, and so on). This is the result of the recognition that ESP courses should not only be concerned with the type of structures and lexis the learner will need in dealing with certain disciplines but also the communicative functions he is likely to perform through the language. Also, that the mode of communication the learner is expected to employ in his use of the language, i.e. spoken or written, has a great influence on the type of the teaching material and the manner in which it is taught. Hence, the term has recently been slightly modified to stand for "English for Specific Purposes".

It is perhaps true to suggest that the shift towards ESP was

influenced by certain historical trends in EFL, the main ones are:

A Socio-economic: Over the last decade or so, there has been a large demand from commercial and industrial sectors in many developing countries for special language courses which deal with specific disciplines.

Writers and publishers believed that by producing courses suitable for certain learners, and most importantly, for certain countries, they are bound to find a good market at least in the country or region concerned. (e.g. Allen's and Cooke's "Living English for the Arab World", although this is not an ESP course in a linguistic sense). However, this has not always been the case. In fact the opposite seems to be true in some cases where certain general courses have proved to be best sellers despite the fact that they are not tied to any specific learner, except in linguistic sense, and are not intended for teaching a certain type of English. Nevertheless, the move towards ESP courses could be described as a geographical one at first, to provide courses for Africa, Australia, the Arab World, and so on, and then a sociolinguistic one, to provide courses for a specific group of learners in society dealing with specific disciplines, such as English for nurses, English for Students of Agriculture, English for Medicine Students, and so on. It is obvious that in writing courses for Bahraini technical students both features would have to be considered.

B Linguistic Theory: In the 1950's and 1960's linguists started to take an interest in studying register in language and functional dialects, i.e. variations appropriate for language purposes. Also, there was an interest in investigating the language used for certain subjects which contributed to the development of stylistic analysis. Investigations in register were based on text descriptions and were mainly concerned with scientific subjects. One result of those investigations was, for example, the belief that scientific language contained more passives than the

normal use of language. These investigations however, led to more precise specification of language needs of certain learners.

C Communicative Competence: The growing interest in the study of the social functions of language has been reflected in language teaching by the increasing emphasis on developing the learner's communicative competence, i.e. the ability to produce sentences which are not just grammatically correct but are contextually appropriate. Communicative competence in this sense includes rules of grammar and rules of use. The concern with appropriacy of the utterance involves studying how interactions are specified in certain situations and how sentences operate in a certain discourse. Widdowson (1973) points out that "If we are to teach language in use, we have to shift our attention from sentences in isolation to the manner in which they combine in text on the one hand, and to the manner in which they are used to perform communicative acts in discourse on the other." (p69). Thus, linguists have begun to look beyond syntax to semantics, and take into account not only the form of language but also other aspects related to the use of language such as the purpose of the utterance. This in fact has extended the study of language to include other disciplines such as sociolinguistics and psycholinguistics.

Thus, the basic assumption in ESP is that the aims are more restricted than those of general English. However, if we looked closely at different types of ESP courses in terms of what each type sets out to achieve we might come out with a different conclusion. ESP courses can be presented on a cline according to their content with English for Occupational Purposes (EOP) and English for Academic Purposes (EAP) as poles. Other types can be placed along the cline. In EOP courses language use is often very restricted because the language functions are highly predictable and very precise as in the case of air/traffic control.

staff talking to pilots. In fact it is doubtful in this situation whether we can classify the language used by air/^{traffic}control staff as language use and not merely language-like behaviour since there is no real active and free use of language but rather definable responses to defined stimuli. At the other end of the cline we find that EAP courses may be so comprehensive in fostering language functions and skills that they can be classified as general courses, since the learner in this situation may need all the language skills for his academic purposes, especially in the case of a learner at an advanced academic level.

The pedagogical implication of a notional syllabus with regards to ESP courses is that we would be able to cater for the communicative needs of the learner in his specialized use of the language, i.e. to use the language to agree or disagree, to suggest, to advise, to instruct, to describe, and so on, and not just the conceptual features of the type of English he wishes to learn with its specialized lexis and restricted range of grammatical features which is what a grammatical syllabus would set out to do. It would also solve the problem of predicting what language functions might occur in any given situation, a deficiency which is often associated with situational syllabuses. Wilkins (1976) sums up the superiority of the notional syllabus when he writes:

"The advantage of the notional syllabus is that it takes the communicative facts of language into account from the beginning without losing sight of grammatical and situational factors. It is potentially superior to the grammatical syllabus because it will produce a communicative competence and because its evident concern with the use of language will sustain motivation of the learner. It is superior to the situational syllabus because it can ensure that the most important grammatical forms are included and because it can cover all kinds of language functions,

and not only those that typically occur in certain situations." (p19).

As for the selection of the linguistic items to be included in a notional syllabus and the language skills and forms to be taught, this will obviously depend on the type of language functions the learner is expected to perform through the language. If the learner is, for instance, a trainee air host, he will have to be able to use mainly formal and polite spoken English to fulfil certain notional categories such as:

- (a) Time: point of time, duration, time relations, sequence.
- (b) Quantity: grammatical number, numerals.
- (c) Space: dimensions, location, motion.
- (d) Suasion: inducement, prediction.
- (e) Emotional relations: greetings, sympathy, gratitude.

Obviously each of the categories can be realized through a wide range of linguistic forms, and to decide what forms the learner should acquire will depend on his linguistic background (his level in the language) and the length of the course. Generally speaking, a notional syllabus can be organized to teach the notional categories in a cyclic manner, by teaching the learner to express those categories in a simple manner, using simple forms, and progressively building up his semantic repertoire as he proceeds to higher levels of learning. This means that he will have to recycle the notional categories, but at each cycle he is introduced to more advanced linguistic forms, and thus by the end of his language course he will be capable of communicating these categories through a range of expressions.

It is in fact within this framework that we should consider the task of organizing English language syllabuses for Bahraini technical students. I believe that a syllabus based on a notional approach to deal with certain functions and concepts in a technical context will

be the most practical approach to develop communicative competence in our students. This is because firstly, their language needs can be defined fairly precisely, and secondly, they are exposed to English language situations in which they are usually expected to understand and use heterogeneous linguistic forms in communication. As far as the Bahraini technical student is concerned, I have already argued that spoken English should be considered a top priority in our language teaching programme, and should be the means through which we should attempt to develop the student's communicative competence in classroom and workshop situations. Surprisingly, the spoken skill has in fact been neglected so far in most language courses for technical students.

Since the learner is a technical student, however, other skills, i.e. reading and writing, will have to be developed to meet the academic purposes for which he is learning the language, and will have to be related to the type of language activities he is likely to be engaged in throughout his education. And since one of the aims of the language teaching programme is to prepare the Bahraini technical student to use his language for vocational purposes, he should be trained to carry out certain skills which are related to his career. Such skills include filling in application forms, writing short business letters and reading manuals and workshop instructions. These are in general terms the needs of the Bahraini technical student which the language syllabus should attempt to fulfil. In the next chapter I will consider the possibility of developing the student's communicative competence through a notional syllabus, and offer some suggestions for developing certain language skills, such as reading and writing, and the type of activities to which they should be related.

CHAPTER FOUR

A SUGGESTED FRAMEWORK FOR A NOTIONAL SYLLABUS FOR TEACHING ENGLISH IN BAHRAINI TECHNICAL SCHOOLS

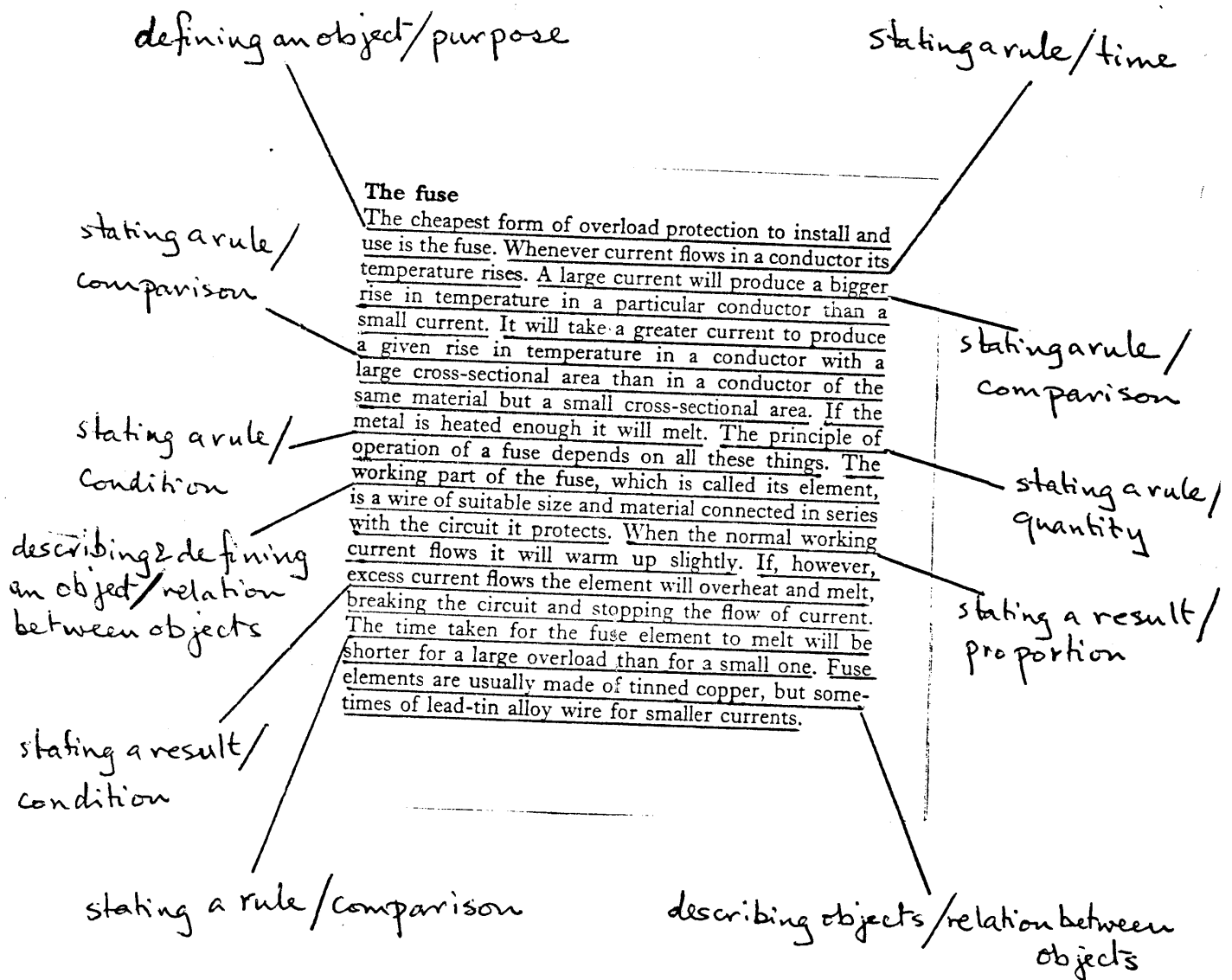
I Specifications of the Main Features of the Language to be Taught (Technical English):

I have argued earlier that a global language course would be unsuitable for use in Bahraini Technical schools since it would most definitely deal with aspects of language which are irrelevant to the Bahraini technical student and ignore the language functions related to his needs. Bates and Dudley-Evans (1974) summed up their reasons for rejecting a general English course for students of science and technology at the University of Tabriz by stating that "much of the language taught would be irrelevant to the specialized needs of these students, because it would (a) involve forms, styles, and functions of language which are of interest to students of the Arts or to visitors to English-speaking countries rather than to students of science, and (b) include many distracting and unnecessary cultural associations." (p12). Thus, it seems logical that in defining the linguistic content of the language syllabus for Bahraini technical schools we have to approach this task by considering the needs of the learner according to the communicative functions which he is expected to perform, and analysing the type of language which might be used to realize those functions.

As the learner in this case is a technical student, the type of language he should learn has to be obviously of a technical bias. This leads us to consider the main features of technical English. Pittman (1957)

suggests that technical English is "differentiated from the rest of the language by its marked objectivity, its neutral character. It is concerned with things, materials, quantities, dimensions, relations between, and actions on, things and materials." (p39). In this sense, technical English is not emotive but informative and instructive, and is confined to basic facts.

The difference between technical English and general English is clearly manifested in the type of language functions which are usually associated with each of these two types. While a high proportion of general English usually deals with language functions which express personal emotions such as pleasure, satisfaction, surprise, fascination, shock, sorrow, scorn, and so on, and emotional relations such as greetings, sympathy, gratitude, and so on, technical English deals mainly with impersonal language functions such as describing a process or objects, stating rules or results, giving instructions, stating purposes or reasons, and so on. The paragraph given below illustrates the type of functions which are usually employed in a technical discourse, and shows that in addition to the general rhetorical function, which is to describe an object, specific functions are employed to develop the general function. However, it is important to note that in actual use of language functions we normally relate them to conceptual meanings. That is to say, when we describe an object we describe it in relation to its shape, measurement, location, purpose or as compared to other objects. When we state a rule that rule is related to time, quantity, or subjected to a condition. When we ask a question we ask about measurement, quantity, location, motion, time, and so on. In other words, we normally deal with notions. The following paragraph illustrates this in relation to technical English.



(From "Basic Engineering Craft Studies: Electrical Bias" by E R Beynon
 and T J Cummins, Hutchinson Educational, 1971, p19)

Pittman (1957, p⁴¹⁻⁴⁵) indicates that technical English is concerned with:

- (a) Description and Definition: This area is concerned with classification, arrangement in space and time, appearance, use, quality, grade and purity. These functions employ words like: kind, sort, type, similarity, difference, regular, continuous, situated, horizontal, circular, vertical, inclined and medium.
- (b) Measurement: Examples of words associated with measurement are: approximately, accurately, exactly, dimension, adequate, equal, limited, minimum, maximum, capacity, resistance, and tolerance.
- (c) Degree and Proportion: This area employs words like: extent, degree, partly, completely, and entirely.
- (d) Development and Processes: This area includes words like: produce, phase, alter, progress, completion, convey, and transfer.

Structurally, technical English tends to be economic in language use because it is meant to be precise and thus phrases such as "One can argue ...", "It is not clear, however, whether ..." and "Perhaps it is true to assume ..." are eliminated from a technical discourse. However, the precision of technical English, especially in defining and describing, leads to a high frequency of embedded sentences as in the following paragraph:

"The basic requirements for earthing (D22) are that the earthing arrangements of the consumer's installation are such that the occurrence of a fault of negligible impedance from a phase or non-earthed conductor to adjacent exposed metal, a current corresponding to three times the fuse rating or 1.5 times the setting of an overcurrent circuit breaker can flow, so that the faulty circuit is made dead. The earthing arrangement should be such that the maximum sustained voltage developed under

fault conditions between exposed metal required to be earthed and the consumer's earth terminal should not exceed 40V."

(From "Electrical Installation and Workshop Technology" Volume I, by F G Thompson, Longman, 1973, p146.)

But technical English also employs a great deal of a formal type of language with its general vocabulary and usage, because technical English after all is a part of that language. In analysing the verb frequency in a set of technical textbooks, Phillips et al (1974, p2) found that semi-technical verbs such as absorb, derive, evaporate, and accelerate, which are the most frequently occurring forms in technical English (60% to 70%) are also used in general English without any reference to technical subjects. However, there are certain features which are predominant in technical English such as the intensive use of adjectives and the high frequency of the present simple tense, the imperative and the passive voice. The simple present tense is frequently used in observational and instructional contexts and also for the presentation of hypothesis. These uses are obviously different, to some extent, from the common use of this tense in general English.

Another important feature of technical English is the frequent use of affixes to form new words, as in the following cases:

oil	: oily
wood	: wooden
short	: shorten
block	: blockage
thick	: thickness
liquid	: liquidate
act	: interact
let	: inlet/outlet

Certain prefixes are also frequently used to change a word into its negative, as in the following cases:

de : defrost, demagnetize
 dis : dismantel, disconnect
 im : immovable, impure
 in : inaccurate, incorrect
 ir : irreplaceable, irregular
 non : non-conductor, **non-ferrous**
 un : unfold, unload

Written technical English usually uses more formal words instead of common ones either to provide a precise meaning or to maintain the technical style. Smith (1970, p232) gives the following examples:

inside	is replaced by	interior
outside	" " "	exterior
height	" " "	altitude
size	" " "	magnitude
show	" " "	demonstrate
turn	" " "	rotate
carry along	" " "	convey
find out	" " "	determine
basic	" " "	fundamental
large	" " "	substantial

Finally, technical English uses a large number of compound nouns which can be categorized as:

- i united words: as in camshaft, airframe, crankcase, bodywork, and flywheel.
- ii hyphenated words: as in push-rod, oil-ways, horse-power, sparking-plugs, fire-bricks, and tin-plate.
- iii standard phrases: as in high frequency, disc brake, electric saw,

air filter, and master cylinder.

These compound nouns, however, are sometimes extended to form complex noun phrases as in "a power driven hacksaw", "electric arc welding", "a high speed cutting tool", and "a work-hardened mild steel bar".

If we are to provide the Bahraini technical student with the type of language which is most suitable to his needs, then we have to give sufficient attention to these features in defining the linguistic content of our syllabus.

II Specification of General Aims and Priorities of the Language

Course and Students' Needs:

Given the role of the English language both within the technical school curriculum and the labour market in Bahrain, the following general aims would, in my opinion, be both practical and realistic for the three year language course:

By the end of the third year, the student should be able to perform the following skills reasonably well:

1. To communicate intelligibly with his teacher and his fellow students using communicative functions related to technical contexts and within the limit of his knowledge of his subject.
2. To follow intelligibly a short explanatory account of a technical process related to his specialization and within the limit of his vocabulary and knowledge of the subject concerned.
3. To understand simple workshop-type instructions delivered in oral or written form.
4. To report both in oral and written form on a simple technical process related to his field of specialization, and within his linguistic ability.
5. To fill in application forms, material requisition forms and technical reports on conditions of certain tools and machinery.
6. To write short business letters.
7. To read intensively as well as extensively simplified technical articles in magazines and references related to his field of specialization and within his linguistic ability.
8. To look up general and technical dictionaries.

In relation to these general aims, it is equally important to underline the priorities of our language course. To say, for instance, that our aim is to teach "technical English" is by no means enough to

decide the framework of our language course or select our teaching material, for even within technical English lies a set of priorities which would yield different teaching material. Generally speaking, the priorities of any language course would be determined not just by the type of functions the student is required to perform through the language within the school curriculum and/or after leaving school, but also the mode through which those functions are going to be realized. In the case of the Bahraini technical student this mode is mainly spoken English, and although the four skills, i.e. listening, speaking, reading and writing, might all be considered important to be developed, the first two are, in my opinion, the most fundamental ones due to the reasons mentioned earlier in this paper. (See page 18). Thus, our first concern should be to develop the student's aural/oral skill through dialogues and conversations based on technical contexts to ensure that he not only understands the language used during technology lessons and in workshop communication but that he also participates in these communicative acts.

The second priority should be to develop the student's reading ability, both intensively and extensively. This is because:

- (a) Almost all the technical literature available in Bahraini technical schools is in English.
- (b) The basic technical textbooks used in all sections are in English (e.g. the 500 series in Basic Engineering Craft Studies, published by Hutchinson Educational). Students are also frequently referred to other technical books in the library for further information.
- (c) Teachers usually prepare handouts as a means for providing students with simplified technical materials or summaries on topics dealt with. (See Appendix E).
- (d) Students are required to read, and carry out, the instructions given

on the practical exercises worksheets which constitute a fundamental component of the practical part of their technical education. (See Appendices F-M).

- (e) Students are required to read and follow instructions usually displayed in workshops which are usually in English and which concern safety rules or instructions for operating different tools and machinery.
- (f) Half of the technology examination is conducted in written form and students must obviously be able to read and understand the questions in order to answer them.

All these factors make reading another important skill to master for students in Bahraini technical schools. It is worth noting here that in all the situations mentioned above the student needs only his silent reading skill which, incidentally, is the most important practice for comprehension. Therefore reading aloud should be avoided. As the student has already passed the initial stage in reading, since he is not an absolute beginner, we should focus our attention on two main targets at this stage; speed and comprehension. However, these two skills should be looked at as integral, rather than separable, skills affecting reading competence. If a student reads letter by letter or word by word, he loses his comprehension. If, on the other hand, he reads fast without comprehension, his reading is a complete waste.

This leaves us with the writing skill which is usually needed for taking notes from the blackboard summary during technology lessons or from references in the library, and for answering the theoretical exercises and examination papers in technology.

III Specification of Language Skills and Suggestions for

Operations to Fulfil those Skills in Teaching Situations:

In order to fulfil the aims and priorities specified above, the teaching process should develop both the receptive and productive linguistic ability of the learners. These can be specified as:

- (a) Receptive ability: which covers the skills of listening and reading and involves the ability to grasp the essence of an utterance or of a series of utterances.
- (b) Productive ability: which covers the skills of speaking and writing and involves the ability to make oneself easily understood in the foreign language to a native speaker of that language. (Adopted from Van Ek, 1973, p124).

However, since students in this case are concerned with a specific type of language, i.e. technical, the process of developing their communicative competence should be related to technical contexts. They should be trained to express notions which are related to both workshop and classroom situations. Before discussing those notions and the language skills through which they have to be demonstrated, it is worth noting that since these students have already learnt English previously but have not achieved a satisfactory standard, the course in the first year should be based on remedial work to deal with weaknesses in the students' grammatical competence. This would mean that we have to review and consolidate the grammatical structures taught at the previous two stages. This process, however, should not be carried out in a structural approach, but in a functional one, i.e. by re-presenting these structures as one way of realizing certain communicative functions. They should also be related to technical contexts and general technical vocabulary. As students proceed through the course a wider range of grammatical structures may be introduced in fulfilling each communicative function, and

thus gradually expand the students' repertoire of using these language functions. This is because it is almost impossible to teach all language forms which may realize a certain function at one stage.

Since a fully notional approach to language teaching should contain both functional and conceptual meanings, a practical way of presenting a notional syllabus would be to use a grid. (See page 80). The vertical line of the grid represents the language functions which technical students will need to communicate, while the horizontal line represents the concepts which students will need to express when dealing with technical contexts. The intersection between a certain function and a concept represents the notion, and consequently the linguistic form, which the student will have to achieve. However, certain points should be taken into consideration in relation to this grid:

- (a) The grid includes the main concepts and functions which are related to the needs of technical students at a secondary level. This, however, does not mean to exclude other functions, such as greeting, inviting, apologising, suggesting, advising, etc., which are typical of everyday interaction and which are essential for developing conversational ability. These functions will have to be integrated within the framework of the notional syllabus and dealt with whenever the opportunity occurs.
- (b) Since the grammatical competence of the learner is a basic requirement for developing his communicative competence, this notional framework should be accompanied by a grammatical inventory of the type prepared by L G Alexander (in Van Ek, 1975, pl85-227) which should be used as a check-list to ensure that a progressive range of grammatical structures is built up and utilized in developing the learner's ability to express the notions dealt with in the syllabus. This inventory, however, should be confined to the

structures mostly needed by students in using the language to deal with technical contexts.

- (c) Since this grid is meant to be used for a three year course, it is inevitable that most of these functional and conceptual meanings will be recursive, but will be realized at each level in a different linguistic form, thus giving the student a wide range of expression to communicate the same notions and at the same time building up his grammatical competence.
- (d) As these functions and concepts are not exhaustive, the grid may be expanded to include new functions and concepts.
- (e) Although some of the functions may intersect with all the concepts this is not always the case, and therefore although we may, for example, ask questions about all the concepts mentioned on the grid, it is not possible to make requests corresponding to all of those concepts.
- (f) As any utterance usually deals with a set of ideas related to each other, a set of concepts may interweave to realize a certain function.

If we consider the sentence:

When the crankshaft rotates, the pistons are driven upwards and downwards.

we can see that three concepts are involved in realizing one function

(Describing a Process):

- i. A concept of "Time" represented by the conjunction "When".
- ii. A concept of "Relationship between objects" represented by the lexical items "crankshaft" and "pistons".
- iii. A concept of "motion" represented by the prepositions "upwards" and "downwards".

This suggests that concepts cannot be looked at as isolated blocks, but rather as integral elements of notions, and therefore should be

chnical English

those Notions.

Condition (IF)	Purpose and Reason
If the air filter is very dirty change it.	Use a file to smooth the edges.
	A sparking plug is used to ignite the mixture.
	Calipers are instru- ments which are used for measuring dimen- sions.
What happens if you touch two live conductors?	Why must we wear goggles when weld- ing?
Would you mind helping me if you have nothing to do?	Do you mind telling me what this fan is for?
You'll have to adjust the flame if you want to get a good weld.	The brakes need adjusting because they're dangerous.
	Therefore a fuse is fixed in the equip- ment for safety.
If the moving parts had been lubricated they wouldn't have seized up.	We should wear gloves when filing in order to protect our hands.

taught in this manner.

- (g) The chronological order of the language functions and concepts has no significant relation to the order in which they should be taught. These functions and concepts should be taught as the situation or the need arises.

A Listening

The listening skill is an important component of the student's communicative competence, since a substantial proportion of teaching and instructing is delivered through speech. If the student fails to understand a certain utterance he will not be able to respond. Thus, the student should receive constant training in the language laboratory to develop his listening ability. This can be achieved through such language activities as:

- (a) Following instructions given in spoken form: e.g. drawing or tracing a route or a direction on a diagram, marking parts of a drawing with a line, or inserting names of parts on a diagram.
- (b) Listening to short simple descriptive accounts of a certain process or an object which are then followed by Yes/No questions.

B Speaking

The teaching of the notions mentioned on the grid should represent the core of the "Spoken English" component. This should be presented through dialogues and conversations, in the classroom or in the language laboratory, based on technical contexts which are related to the student's specialization, and then followed by sufficient practice of the structures used, and finally a reconstruction of the dialogue by students through role-playing.

In teaching expression of obligation, for example, to students in the auto section, the following dialogue can be first presented on a video tape or in the language laboratory:

Customer: Hello, I brought my car in to be checked over this morning.

Is it ready yet?

Mechanic: Which one's yours?

Customer: That one over there. The blue one. Is there anything wrong with it?

Mechanic: Let me see. I've got the mechanic's report here. Do you want me to tell you about it?

Customer: Yes, please. What do I have to have done?

Mechanic: First of all, the battery is flat. It'll have to be recharged.

Customer: Mm.

Mechanic: And then there's the points. They need to be adjusted.

Customer: But I only adjusted them last week.

Mechanic: Well, they need adjusting again.

Customer: All right. Anything else?

Mechanic: I'm afraid so. You must have your brakes relined. They're very dangerous.

Customer: Oh dear. I hope that's all now.

Mechanic: Just one more thing. Your front nearside tyre is worn and ought to be replaced.

Customer: And how long will it take to do all these jobs?

Mechanic: Let me see. If we start on it tomorrow morning, you can have it by six o'clock in the evening. Does that suit you?

Customer: Yes, that's fine. I'll leave it with you then. See you tomorrow. Bye.

The teacher then asks the students if they have noticed the different ways of telling someone they need to have something done (i.e. expressing obligation). The teacher then replays the tape and writes the different forms of expression of obligation on the blackboard. He then replays the tape, stopping for repetition and practice. He then arranges the

class in twos and gives out the following worksheet, and asks the groups to practice expressing obligation using different phrases.

UNIVERSITY GARAGE
25 Bedford Way WC1

Tel. 636 1500

The Senior Mechanic's Report

Date: 22.6.77

Vehicle: FORD ESCORT Reg. No: WYK 487 H Job No: 315

Recorded Mileage: 45304

Component	Condition	Work Required	Time Required
Battery	flat	recharge	6 hours
Wiper motor	stuck	repair	30 mins.
Indicator switch	burnt out	replace	10 mins.
Points	burnt	adjust	20 mins.
Brakes	worn	reline	1 hour
Distributor	not working properly	readjust	15 mins.
Front nearside tyre	worn	replace	15 mins.

For labour charges and prices of replacement parts, please see the reception.

Job to be carried out on 23.6.77.

Signature of Mechanic

H. A. D. Hay

Column 4 (Time Required) has been added so that the exercise can be extended to teach other notions such as expressing time and approximation, as in:

- i. It'll take about (nearly) six hours to recharge the battery.
- ii. We need at least an hour to reline the brakes.
- iii. It shouldn't take more than twenty minutes to adjust the points.

The existing language laboratories should be utalized to give constant practice in spoken English through such language activities as:

- (a) Describing objects or diagrams presented visually (real or pictures),
e.g. a galvanometer, different types of hammers.
- (b) Describing, briefly, a technical process presented visually (a single picture or series of pictures) e.g. how to remove or fix a certain part in a car, how to use a hacksaw, the route of the oil in the brake system.
- (c) Playing a role in a simulated situation as in the exercise given above.

Other aspects of spoken English, i.e. pronunciation and intonation, should be integrated in this teaching plan and dealt with whenever a need arises or a difficulty is faced. However, the following areas have to be given special attention because they usually represent common difficulties among Bahraini students in general and affect intelligibility:

- (a) The distinction between and production of the two vowels /e/ and /i/ as in /red/ and /rid/.
- (b) The distinction between and production of the two consonants /b/ and /p/ as in /big/ and /pig/.
- (c) The pronunciation of initial and final consonant clusters as in /stri:t/ and /egenst/.
- (d) Stress in relation to the grammatical function of the word as in
'increase (n) and in'crease (v)
'record (n) and re'cord (v)
- (e) Change in the tonic syllable to change the meaning in connected speech as in:

We changed the plugs yesterday. (and not them)

We changed the plugs yesterday. (we did not clean them)

We changed the plugs yesterday. (and not the points)

We changed the plugs yesterday. (and not last week)

Finally, an important point has to be mentioned here and that is the teacher should be aware of the fact that students are required to make constant use of their spoken English in workshops and during technology lessons and therefore should encourage them to make maximum use of their spoken skill and to be participants rather than listeners. He should also relate his teaching of the language skills to workshop situations and, whenever possible, draw examples from them. The effectiveness of such a teaching mode will obviously require full collaboration between the language teacher, the technology teacher and the workshop instructor to supply the technical information required for the language period, and thus make the language teacher more competent in his discussion, and also to pinpoint the areas of language where remedial work is needed as observed by the technical staff.

C Reading

The emphasis in the first year should be on developing "Extensive Reading" which should aim at:

- (a) developing the habit of reading.
- (b) improving recognition and response to vocabulary and structures already learnt.
- (c) developing speed reading.

This will obviously be the base for developing the skill of reading for detailed information which will be required later on in the course.

But at this stage the students should be trained to be able to read, with understanding, written instructions of the type used in practical exercises and phase test worksheets as in Appendix F, G and H. Since

we are mainly concerned here with speed reading, it is vitally important that the vocabulary and structures should be kept within the students' language ability. The reading material should be based on technical contexts, and students should, for example, read and discuss with the teacher a short account on a technical process they have already experienced in the workshop, or use one of the handouts supplied by their technology teacher for reading comprehension exercise. However, to sustain the interest of the students, they should be encouraged to read short articles and books on technical subjects other than their school textbooks. A good source for this type of reading material is the Ladybird series and the SRA Reading Laboratory, particularly the "Rate Builders" reading cards. Examples of reading cards in this section which deal with technical topics are:

From SRA 11a: Olive 4, Brown 3, Blue 8, Green 4, 9, Red 5, 9, Tan 1, 2.

From SRA 111a: Blue 10, Purple 1, Violet 2, 6, 12 Rose 13, 14.

Another rather important skill which is related to the reading skill and which students should acquire at this stage is looking up words in dictionaries, especially the technical ones, as they gradually meet new general and special technical vocabulary.

In the second and third year "Intensive Reading" becomes an essential skill to acquire as students begin their specialization and start to use the library more intensively for detailed information from technical references in their fields of specialization especially for answering technology exercises. Students should be trained to get maximum information from chapters or books they read. However, they still need their "Extensive Reading" skill to read workshop manuals and practical exercises worksheets of the type given in Appendices I-M. For more interesting reading material the students should use readers dealing with technical and scientific topics such as "Oil" and "Man and Modern

"Science" from Longman Structural Readers, Stage 4 and 5, and "Men and Women at Work" series, Published by Oxford University Press, or short stories of a technical bias such as "Gold Robbery and Mine Mystery", and "Fast Circuit" from Longman Structural Readers, Stage 4. Some passages in Thornleys "Elementary Scientific English Practice" (Longman) could also be useful here if treated as extensive reading material and not texts to be studied thoroughly as apparently is the aim of this book. Once more the SRA Reading Laboratory can be useful, particularly some of the "Power Builders" cards which deal with general technical topics. Examples of the relevant cards are:

For Second Year: From SRA 11a: Olive 2, 4, 11, Blue 2, Brown 1, 10,
Green 12, Tan 1.

For Third Year: From SRA 11a: Gold 2, 12, Aqua 9, Purple 7, Rose 6,
Silver 8.

and from the "Rate Builders" cards:

For Second Year: From SRA 11a: Gold 12, Aqua 6, 10, Purple 5.

From SRA 111a: Orange 1, 7, 10, 15, Gold 4.

For Third Year: From SRA 111a: Brown 1, 5, 8, 10, Tan 2, 6, 8, 9, 14,
Lime 8, 9, 14, Green 8.

The need to search for particular relevant information in a certain chapter or book calls for the ability to skim, a skill which students have to develop in the second and third year. This will involve developing reading speed using techniques of the type outlined in Fry, "Teaching Faster Reading", (1963, p51-63).

D Writing

The written work should be related to the notions presented on the grid given above. However, the linguistic forms have to be those employed in written form, with the technical register in mind. As students are required by the examination system to answer technology

questions in written form, they should be trained to respond to this type of language activity as efficiently as possible. They should learn how to answer questions of the kind mentioned on the practical exercise worksheets shown in Appendices H, I, K, and M.

Examples of the sort of operations which students in the first year will have to be engaged in in this area are:

- (a) Written comprehension passages on related topics followed by multiple-choice questions and/or free response questions.
- (b) Filling in skeleton passages on technical topics with articles, singular/plural nouns, right forms of given verbs, comparative adjectives, relative pronouns, and so on. This will help the students to develop an understanding of the relationship between the items of the language semantically and syntactically, and of how communication develops in a discourse.
- (c) Constructing short paragraphs describing:
 - i. simple tools or instruments presented visually (real or pictures) concerning shape, substance, purpose, operation
 - ii. technical processes presented visually (a single picture or series of pictures) such as using a hacksaw, filing an iron bar, fixing a fuse, and so on.
- (d) Writing instructions such as rules for safety in the workshop corresponding to certain posters.
- (e) Converting short descriptive paragraphs, dealing with procedures of a technical process, into instructions and vice-versa.

In the second year similar activities should be given but related to different specializations, using special technical vocabulary. (See Section E, page 91 & 92). Students should also use compound and complex sentences in answering questions given on the practical exercise worksheets as in Appendix I and K. They should also be trained to fill

in reports on results of processes carried out in the workshop of the type shown in Appendix K. In the third year similar exercises as in the second year should be offered for personal study and examination purposes. Appendix M shows the type of questions students are required to answer in written English. There should also be written exercises dealing with

- (a) writing short reports describing work carried out in the workshop and the results obtained.
- (b) writing information on charts and diagrams.
- (c) writing workshop reports on specific objects such as an electrician's report on faults in a wiring system, or a mechanic's report on the condition of certain parts in a car and the work required, as in the exercise given on page .

Since one of the principle aims of the language course at this stage is to provide students with language needs not only those related to their school work but also the ones they will require after leaving school, it is essential to cater for those needs. This will mean training students to fill in application forms for higher courses in colleges of technology of the type shown in Appendix N, or for employment as in Appendix O. They should also be taught to write short business letters applying for jobs or ordering materials.

Another skill which is important to students in the third year for personal study is note-taking from orally delivered lessons as well as from printed materials in books and articles.

E Vocabulary

As entrants to technical schools have never dealt with technical literature at the previous two levels of their language course, the task of building up their technical vocabulary, both general and special, becomes an urgent one. Thus, all examples and situations

presented should be set up in technical contexts. Since there is no specialization in the first year, the aim should be to introduce students to general technical vocabulary which is common to all sections, and which will serve the technical concepts of the type mentioned above in Pittman's article. (See page 70). The following are examples of the kind of items of general technical vocabulary which students should be familiar with at this stage:

absorb	convert	grind	plug	solder
adjust	corrode	harden	protect	strike
apply	damage	hold	produce	supply
assemble	decrease	improve	remove	tap
bind	distribute	insert	replace	test
blow	drill	install	resist	turn
brush	ensure	inspect	require	use
carry	equipment	maintain	repair	valve
composed	expand	measure	rotate	vapour
compress	fill	mend	rust	vertical
combine	form	obtain	section	wide
condition	frame	operate	service	wrought

This is a typical kind of general technical vocabulary which is usually used in basic technical textbooks such as the 500 series on Basic Engineering Craft Studies, published by Hutchinson Educational, and which are the basic reference in Bahraini technical schools.

As students are divided in the second and third year into different specializations, such as Auto, Electrical, Welding, and so on, they should be acquainted with special technical vocabulary related to their specializations. They should also be encouraged to use technical vocabulary items instead of general ones in written English, and thus use "rotate" for "turn", "convey" for "carry along" and "exterior" for "outside". These vocabulary items should form an integral part of

the structures serving certain functions and concepts. Words such as "automatic", "stationary" and "static" should be related to the function of "Describing and Defining Objects", and words like "distribution" "fusion" and "expansion" to the function of "Describing Processes", and words like "meter", "volt" and "horse-power" to the concept of "Measurement". The following are some specimens of special vocabulary items related to three sections:

Auto:

accelerate/acceleration, adjust/adjustment, assemble, automatic, axle, block/blockage, combustion, cylinder, camshaft, crankcase, disc, dismantle, exhaust, float, friction, guage, gear, horse-power, ignite, internal, jet, leak, locomotive, maintain/maintenance, mechanic/mechanical/mechanism, nut (and bolt), outlet, piston, pollute/pollution, pressure, pump, radiate/radiation/radiator, rotate/rotary/rotation, seal,sequence, shaft, stationary, stroke, transport/transportation, vaccum, van, vessel, windscreen.

This type of vocabulary is typical of technical textbooks used in Bahrain which deal with automotive engineering, such as the "Automobile Maintenance Series", published by Chapman and Hall.

Electrical:

alternate, amplify/amplification/amplifier, arc, atmosphere, beam, charge, circuit, circulate/circulation, coil, condense/condensation/condenser, conduct/conductor, connect/connection, contact, current, detect/detection, distribute/distribution/distributor, duct, earth, extend/extension/extent, flash, force, gap, generate/generation/generator, impulse, install/installation, insulate/insulation/insulator, load, magnet/magnetic/magnetism, main, meter, neutral, overload, plug, positive, power, pylon, ray, relay, resist/resistance, shock, static, switch, transform/transformer, volume, wave.

This is a typical type of vocabulary which usually appears in technical textbooks of an electrical bias, such as F G Thompson's "Electrical Installation and Workshop Technology", published by Longman.

Welding:

acid/acidity, alloy, anvil, angle, bend/bent, blast, blend, boil, brittle, braze, cast, construct/construction, corrode/corrosion, coat, crack, dimension, erode/erosion, expand/expansion, flame, flux, fold, forge, fracture, furnace, fuse/fusion/fusible, glow, goggles, inflammable, inject/injection/injector, joint, layout, lead, malleable, melt/molten, mix/mixture, mould, nozzle, pattern, pivot, pot, proportion, rivet, rod, roll, rust, scrap, scrape, scribe, shape, sheet, shield, solder, spark, surface, tap, tarnish, temperature, torch, valve, watertight, weld/welder.

This type of vocabulary is usually used in technical textbooks which deal with welding and metallurgy, such as the "British Welding Research Association" series, published by Cambridge University Press.

At the end of this discussion of students' needs and suggestions on the language skills which will have to be developed to meet those needs, it is perhaps true to suggest that language teaching in Bahraini technical schools is mainly, but not exclusively, for academic purposes, since we are dealing with learners who are, in the first place, students at a secondary school. The following diagram will help to summarize the language skills, and the type of the related language functions, which should underlie our language teaching programme.

Language Skills Related to Academic Purposes
(with reference to Bahraini Technical Students)

RECEPTIVE SKILLS

CLASSROOM AND WORKSHOP	<u>LISTENING (& NOTE-TAKING IN 3RD YEAR)</u> <u>Discrimination:</u> (i) Main v Secondary ideas; (ii) relationship between ideas; (iii) idea v example ; (iv) obligation v instruction; (v) verbal v action in response to instructions, etc. (Plus use of conventional abbreviations, figures, diagrams and charts)
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PRIVATE STUDY	<u>READING (& NOTE-TAKING IN 3RD YEAR)</u> <u>Reading:</u> A Intensive B Extensive (skimming) <u>Discrimination:</u> (i) main v secondary ideas; (ii) relationship between ideas; (iii) idea v example, etc. (Plus use of conventional abbreviations, figures and diagrams)
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PRODUCTIVE SKILLS

CLASSROOM AND WORKSHOP	<u>SPEAKING</u> <u>Initiation and Responding (as a student):</u> describe, define, classify, compare, give reasons or purposes, state rules and results, interrupt, ask questions, make requests, etc.
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PRIVATE STUDY (EXAMS)	<u>WRITING (other than Note-Taking)</u> (a) General: i.e. summarize, paraphrase, conclude, etc. (b) Specific Academic Concepts i.e. describe, define, exemplify, classify, compare, give reasons and purposes, state rules and results, etc. (Plus use of conventional abbreviations, figures and diagrams)
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Adopted from a diagram prepared by A J Mountford for the British Council Seminar on EAP in London in 1976.
Source: EITC Archives, the British Council.

I would like to conclude here that the framework given above for designing an English language syllabus for Bahraini technical schools should only be looked at as an indication to the lines on which a revised syllabus might be written. Clearly this framework would need to be developed and elaborated and filled in in considerable detail. Also, a time scale and specific suggestions on methodology would need to be added before it might become a practical working document. What is presented above is no more than a first approximation at a revision.

C O N C L U S I O N

In this paper I have tried to throw some light on the deficiencies of the structural approach in teaching and designing a language course. I have also argued that in order to develop the communicative competence of the learner, we have to adopt a functional approach in presenting and teaching the target language. In other words we have to teach the use rather than the usage of the language. However, this has to be carried out without losing sight of the grammatical system of the language since it is the base on which any utterance is constructed. But on the other hand our attention should be shifted from the formal properties of the structures of the language to its characteristics as a tool fulfilling certain communicative functions. This means that we have to consider two categories of meaning in using the language:

- (a) Functional meaning: dealing with the functions we decide to give our utterances, e.g. to ask, to request, to describe, to report, etc. and which Wilkins (1976) defines as "categories of communicative function".
- (b) Conceptual meaning: dealing with the concepts we want our utterances to deal with, e.g. time, place, quantity, location, etc. and which Wilkins defines as "semantico-grammatical categories".

One way of relating these two categories of meaning in teaching a foreign language is by using a notional syllabus. In this paper I have provided an example of how this can be achieved in relation to teaching English to technical students in Bahrain.

As practical and effective as it might be in teaching the use of language, the notional approach is not without deficiencies in its claim

of what it sets out to achieve. There are also certain difficulties in implementing this approach, especially from a pedagogical point of view, which yet need to be resolved. It is important to consider some of these problems here:

- (a) The notional approach tends to present language functions and concepts as isolated self-contained units of meaning, as Widdowson (1977) points out. Presented as it is in isolation from context, the notional inventory ignores the interaction relationship between the participants in any communicative act on which meaning is dependent. Widdowson (1977) points out that "What we are offered in Wilkins (1976) is really only a very partial and imprecise description of certain semantic and pragmatic rules which are used for reference when people interact. They tell us nothing whatever about the procedures people employ in the application of these rules when they are actually engaged in communicative activity. These are 'communicative facts' which are ignored..... The move from sentence to notion is, I believe, an advance. But not a very big one. It still leaves us with a long way to go. We still have to face the complexity of real communication, the way in which notions are realised in discourse." (p4). Harsh as this criticism might be (Widdowson actually admits this) this limitation in the notional approach is worth recognizing.

- (b) In implementing a notional syllabus there is a pedagogical difficulty which is related to the grading of the linguistic forms which may realize a certain communicative function. Even when we consider the mode of communication, i.e. spoken as opposed to written, or the style, i.e. informal as opposed to formal, there is usually a number of linguistic forms which may realize a certain communicative function. The notional approach on its own does not offer any suggestions on how to grade and order these linguistic forms since it is impossible

to deal with them all in one unit. This problem is even more serious when a notional approach is applied in a global language course and where learners are absolute beginners.

- (c) Another problem in implementing notional syllabuses is related to the process of producing teaching materials. Notional syllabuses introduce categories of communicative functions under clear-cut and neatly defined headings as basis for producing teaching units. However, this is not always easy when we consider how each function may be expounded, since in actual communication there is usually an overlap in these functions which means that a certain utterance may fall under a number of functions at the same time. The sentence "How about going for a drink tonight?" may fall under the category "suggestion", but could also in the same context be considered as an "invitation".
- (d) Since categories of communicative functions provided so far by Wilkins (1973 and 1976) and Van Ek (1973 and 1975) are related to Western European context, it is questionable whether they are applicable in other learning contexts. The danger is that by teaching these communicative functions the teacher might impose certain social behaviour which does not exist in the society where learning is taking place (e.g. apologising or inviting or accepting an invitation in a certain manner).
- (e) Testing is another problem which faces a notional approach to language teaching, since there is yet no systematic way of testing the learner's communicative competence, the basic objective of the notional approach. Testing is of course important to assess both the learner's proficiency and our success in reaching the objectives we set to ourselves. Wilkins (1976, p81) rejects the synthetic testing techniques, i.e. testing the component parts of the target language in isolation, on

the grounds that they tend to test correctness and not appropriateness, fluency and spontaneity in using the language. However, he does not offer an alternative technique, but concedes that testing will remain a problem facing the notional approach until someone develops a new testing technique to match this approach. He states that "At the moment, I think it is true to say that we do not know how to obtain the answers to such questions. We do not know how to establish the communicative proficiency of the learner" (p82). The problem of testing is even intensified when it is related to testing the learner's receptive skill.

- (f) Finally, I would like to consider a crucial problem which is not related particularly to the notional approach but to the teaching of English for science and technology in general. The problem, as Ewer (1976) points out, is that despite the rapid growth of EST programmes, there is a serious lack of language teachers who are trained to teach scientific and technical English. The result is that "considerable difficulties are being experienced in putting these programmes into effective operation on the scale required." (Ewer, 1976, p247). In fact, language teachers in Bahraini technical schools are generally untrained, let alone prepared to teach technical English. This obviously hinders their professional competence and has a considerable effect on the students' standards. In addition to their initial training these teachers need to be trained in teaching technical English, for methodology will differ considerably, Swales (1973) draws attention to the necessity for training teachers for ESP by indicating that "teacher re-training in this area requires more careful consideration than it has so far received, otherwise the 'best' ESP courses we can construct may turn out to be a somewhat disastrous educational experience for both teachers

and pupils." (p12). Earlier, the Chile Conference on the Teaching of English for Science and Technology strongly emphasised the importance of teacher training in this field and suggested a draft syllabus for training courses for EST teachers (see Appendix P) whose aim was "to introduce practising teachers to the conceptual backgrounds and main linguistic features of these areas of specialised English, to acquaint them with teaching materials available in each field and their appropriate methodology and to give them training in developing additional materials and techniques for their own particular circumstances." (Ewer , 1972, Appendix A). The training programme included such activities as visits to industries, lectures on basic theories in technology and reading of simple scientific and technical books, to help these teachers to get acquainted with the type of language used in this specialized field, and to provide them with the suitable background.

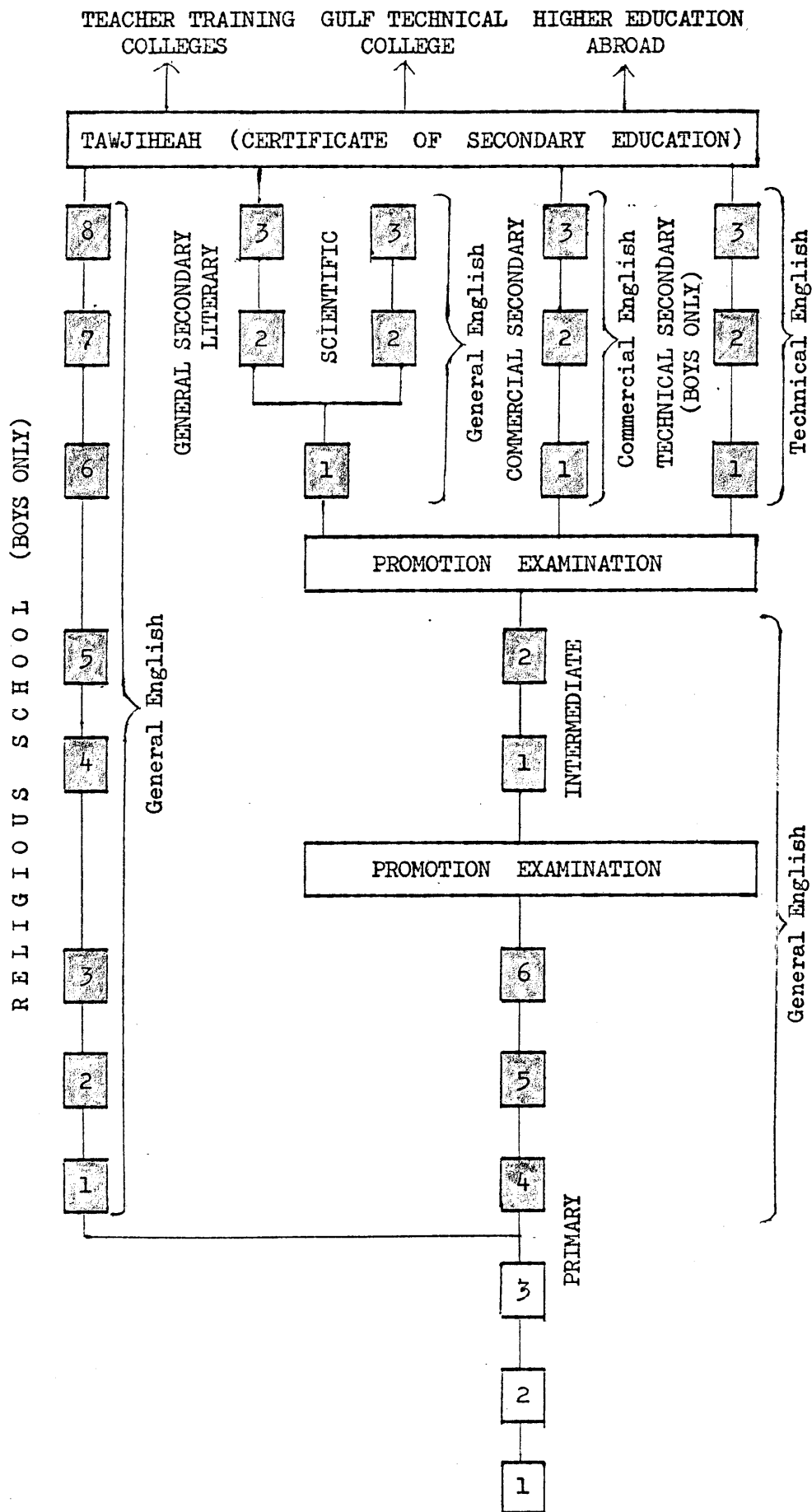
The unavailability of well qualified teachers in EST is, in my opinion, a serious problem facing us in Bahrain; one which needs an urgent solution if we are to achieve tangible success in our language teaching programme. This problem can be solved partially through in-service courses. However, it remains essential to incorporate such training in the initial training programmes of teachers. This is where teacher training colleges in Bahrain should play the leading role. This undoubtedly requires keeping in touch with what is going on in technical schools in so far as language syllabuses, methodology and teaching materials are concerned.

I would like to conclude that the difficulties mentioned above should not, in my opinion, deter us from trying to adopt a notional approach to teaching English in Bahraini technical schools. Also, they should not prevent us from exploring one area of the notional approach

which is still intact, and that is writing suitable teaching materials based on this approach and related to the needs of Bahraini technical students. But, as I mentioned at the beginning, this has to be achieved without losing sight of the value of the grammatical and situational approaches in this context at least for the moment, since the notional approach is still in the developing stages, and our knowledge of how communicative functions are linguistically realized is still inadequate.

APPENDIX (A)

The Nature of English Language Courses in Bahrain in
Relation to the Educational Ladder



APPENDIX (B)English Language Syllabus for Bahraini Technical Schools, 1975/76TEXTBOOKS

- 1st Year: 1. *Basic Engineering English Language Course (BEEELCO),
with Language Laboratory exercises.
2. Understanding Technical English, Bk I by Methold (Longmans)
3. Tales from Arab History, LSR stage 3 (Longmans)
4. Return Journey, Longmans Practical Readers, stage 3
- 2nd Year: 1. Practice & Progress, Unit 2 by Alexander, (Longmans)
with Language Laboratory exercises.
2. Composition Course for Use in Secondary Schools, by Mulley
& Kenworthy (Bahrain Ministry of Education)
3. Understanding Technical English, Bk II
4. Gold Robbery/Mine Mystery LSR stage 4 (Longmans)
5. Elementary Scientific English Practice (selected units)
by Thornley (Longmans)
- 3rd Year: 1. (The 3rd Year classes have been grouped to facilitate the
provision of special English coursebooks to each of the
three main varieties of student.)
- | | |
|------------------------------|--|
| Machine Shop | |
| Welding | <u>English in Workshop Practice</u> |
| Foundry | by Mountford (Oxford University Press) |
| Carpentry | |
| Electrical | |
| Radio & TV | ** <u>Electric English</u> |
| Refrigeration
& Air Cond. | |
| Auto (Petrol) | <u>The Motor Car</u> , Bk I |
| Auto (Diesel) | by Yeadon (Collier Macmillan) |
2. Guided Composition Exercises by Spencer (Longman)
(Selected exercises up to Ex.177)
3. Oil, LSR stage 4
4. Man & Modern Science, LSR stage 5
5. Some Language Laboratory work, based on class textbooks,
will be done where appropriate.

* BEEELCO is being written by the ELT Coordinator in cooperation with
various Heads of technical Departments.

** Electric English is being written by the ELT Coordinator and the
Head of Electrical & Refrigeration Sections, Manama TSS.

The Language Laboratory material used in 2nd Year was written by
Norman Pritchard, former Head of Department. Various other teaching
materials to supplement textbooks have been written by members of
the English language teaching staff.

APPENDIX (B) (contd.)

-2-

General Note

It has been our intention for some years to phase out Practice & Progress in favour of material more closely relevant to the special needs of our students. The academic year 1975/76 is very much one of experiment in the English department. We have introduced new material in the 1st and 3rd years.

The technical content of BEELCO is geared to our Basic Engineering Induction Course, and the 'teaching grammar' embodied in the language progression has been specially worked out to meet the needs of 1st Year students 'thrown in at the deep end' of technical instruction in a foreign language.

No suitable, ready-made course could be found to parallel English in Workshop Practice and The Motor Car, for our 'electrical' students. Rather than give up the idea completely, we decided to write "Electric English".

The 3rd Year experiment consists in sacrificing the administrative simplicity of a single syllabus common to all disciplines, in return for the assurance that the majority of the time allocated to English is spent in the context and idiom of each student's chosen technical specialisation. This inevitably demands a higher than usual degree of preparation on the part of teachers, who will be looking to their 'technical' colleagues for continuous help and advice.

Examinations

In the 1st and 2nd years, the promotion examinations will take their usual form of one written paper of 2½ or possibly 3 hours.

The Leaving Certificate examination will have to include a well-balanced choice of questions to cater for that part of the syllabus which is not in common. It has been our intention for some time to introduce an Oral Test as part of this final examination. The decision of ETAC to press for this in the General Secondaries (June 1976) may well prove the deciding factor with us.

As in the past two years, the readers, Oil and Man and Modern Science, will be available to students in the examination hall. The questions set will again be a test of the student's ability to use the books as reference books efficiently, speedily and accurately.

Our unexpectedly high pass-rate last June in the Royal Society of Arts, English for Foreigners Stage I examination (12 out of 20) makes it likely that we will again offer extra (afternoon) tuition to a selection of students who seem capable of passing an 'international' examination at this level, with relatively little extra effort.

Library

This year well-stocked technical and 'general interest' libraries will be open in both schools, and all students will be encouraged to borrow frequently.

English Language Schedule of Work1975/76

As some of the textbooks are new to us, allowance has been made for variations in the actual coverage. As usual, this schedule should be seen by teachers as a guide, not a timetable to be adhered to at all costs.

FIRST YEAR

OCTOBER	U.T.E. Bk I T.A.H. Lang/lab	units 1, 2 and 3 stories A, B and C introduction to use
NOVEMBER	BEE LCO (plus Lang/lab) U.T.E. T.A.H.	units 1 and 2 units 4 and 5 stories D, E and F.
DECEMBER	BEE LCO (plus Lang/lab) U.T.E. T.A.H.	units 2 and 3 units 6 and 7 stories G, H and I.
JANUARY	BEE LCO (plus Lang/lab) U.T.E. Return Journey (plus check-slips)	units 4 and 5 units 6, 7 and 8. chapters 1, 2 and 3.
FEBRUARY	BEE LCO (plus Lang/lab) U.T.E. R.J. (plus check-slips)	units 5 and 6 units 9 and 10 chapters 3, 4 and 5
MARCH/ APRIL	BEE LCO (plus Lang/lab) U.T.E. R.J. (plus check-slips)	units 7 and 8 units 11, 12 and 13. 6, 7, 8, 9 and 10.
MAY/JUNE	BEE LCO (plus Lang/lab) U.T.E. R.J. (plus check-slips) (Remainder of <u>Return Journey</u> to be done privately) General revision.	units 9 and 10 units 14, 15 and 16 chapters 11, 12 and 13.

SECOND YEAR

OCT/ NOVEMBER	Practice & Progress Lang/lab U.T.E Bk II Gold Robbery	lessons 25, 28, 29, 31 & 32 ditto units 2, 4 and 6 chapters 1, 2 and 3
DECEMBER	P & P (plus Lang/lab) U.T.E. Gold Robbery 'Mulworthy' Composition	lessons 33, 34 & 35 units 7 and 9 chapter 4 lessons 10 and 11
JANUARY	P & P (plus Lang/lab) U.T.E. Mulworthy Comp.	lessons 37, 39, 40 & 41 units 10, 11 and 12 lessons 12, 13 and 14.
FEBRUARY	P & P (plus Lang/lab) P & P (revision) U.T.E Mulworthy Comp.	lessons 42, 43, 44 & 45 lessons 47 and 48 Revise lessons 1 to 12 lessons 15 and 16
MARCH/ APRIL	U.T.E. Mulworthy Comp. Elementary Sc. Eng. Practice Mine Mystery	units 13, 14, 15 and 16 lessons 17 and 18 chapters 2, 4, 5, & 10 chapters 1 and 2
MAY/JUNE	U.T.E. Mulworthy Comp. E.S.E.P. Mine Mystery General revision.	units 17, 18, 19 and 20 lessons 19 and 20 chapters 14, 17, 21 & 26 (28?) chapters 3 and 4

THIRD YEAR

NOTE: Group A: Electrical, Radio & TV and Refrigeration & AC
 Group B: Auto, Petrol and Diesel
 Group C: Machine Shop, Welding, Foundry and Carpentry

OCTOBER/ NOVEMBER	Group A: Practice & Progress	lessons 49, 50, 52, 53 & 54 plus L/lab
	B: The Motor Car Bk I	units 1, 2 and (3?)
	C: English in W/shop Practice	units 1 (and 2?)
	<u>all groups:</u> Guided Composition Exercises	Nos. 1-70 (omitting 17, 19, 28, 29, 30, 39, In- direct Speech in toto) 54, 58, 63 & 68
	"Oil"	chapters 1, 2 & 3
DECEMBER	Group A: Electric English	units 1 & 2
	B: The Motor Car	(3), 4 and (5)
	C: E in W/shop P.	units 2 and 3
	Guided Comp.	71-100 (omitting 72, 74, 75, 78, 90 & 95)
	"Oil"	(3), 4 and 5
JANUARY	Group A: Electric English	units 3 and 4
	B: The Motor Car	units (5), 6 and (7)
	C: E. in W/shop P.	units 4 and 5
	Guided Comp.	Nos. 121-132 (omitting 126, 127c 128b, 129 & 131)
	"Oil"	6, 7 and 8
FEBRUARY	Group A: Electric English	units 5 and 6
	B: The Motor Car	units (7), 8 and (9)
	C: E. in W/shop P.	units 5 and 6
	Guided Comp.	Nos. 137-139 and 150-152
	Man and Modern Science	chapters 1, 2 and 3
MARCH/ APRIL	Group A: Electric English	units 7 and 8
	B: The Motor Car	units 9, 10, 11 & (12)
	C: E. in W/shop P.	units 7 and 8
	Guided Comp.	Nos. 156-165 (omitting 157 and 163) Nos. 169, 171 (omit a, e, h) 172, 173 & 174
	Man and Modern Science	chapters 4, 5 and 6
MAY/JUNE	Group A: Electric English	units 9 and 10 + Revise
	B: The Motor Car	units 12-14 (15, 16?)
	C: English in W.P.	unit 8 + revise
	Guided Comp.	No. 177 + revision
	Man and Modern Science	Revision
	General Revision	

Categories for a Notional Syllabus: (Adopted from Wilkins' "Notional Syllabuses")

Semantico-grammatical categories	- Time	- Point of time - Duration - Time relations - Frequency - Sequence	
	- Quantity	- Divided and undivided reference - Numerals - Operations	
	- Space	- Dimensions - Location - Motion	
	- Relational Meaning	- Sentential relations - Prediction and attribution	- Agent - Initiator - Object - Beneficiary - Instrument
	- Deixis	- Time - Place - Person	
Categories of modal meaning	- Modality	- Scale of certainty - Scale of commitment	- Impersonalized - Personalized - Intention - Obligation
	- Judgement and evaluation	- Valuation - Verdiction - Approval - Disapproval	- Committal - Release
Categories of communicative function	- Suasion	- Inducement - Compulsion - Prediction - Tolerance	
	- Argument	- Information - Agreement - Disagreement - Concession	- Asserted - Sought - Denied
	- Rational enquiry and exposition		
	- Personal emotions	- Positive - Negative	
	- Emotional relations	- Greetings - Sympathy - Gratitude - Flattery - Hostility	

APPENDIX (D)

To be used at the International Seminar on
English for Special Purposes
Bogota, Colombia, 17-22 April 1977

A STATEMENT ON ESP (ENGLISH FOR SPECIFIC PURPOSES)

1. This statement has been prepared at the request of ODM and attempts to answer the questions posed in their letter ES 217/07 of 2 March 1976.
2. The statement must begin with a caution: ESP is something that we cannot yet describe with finality. It is not a fixed body of dogma but should be viewed as a growing accumulation of knowledge and insights which derive from attempts to provide for a correspondingly growing realisation of consumers' needs. New demands and developments throw up challenges or ideas which have to be met or integrated into existing practice. As a result, research into and pragmatic responses to such aspects as the investigations of needs, programme design, teaching materials, and terminal objectives are undergoing significant change. Among the reasons for this present lack of definition - which should be seen as encouraging, not discouraging - is one that deserves specific mention. This is the interdisciplinary nature of the problem. The extent to which the linguist or layman teacher penetrates, or can penetrate, into the territory of the special field, or vice versa, is still a large matter for debate. How the two sets of specialists are to collaborate, how their approaches relate, what balance of specialist to language content there should be in teaching materials - to all these questions, and others, no globally agreed answers are as yet available.

ESP should not be thought of, therefore, as a set of tenets available for mechanical application; but rather as a set of developing guidelines as to how to provide for demands which are different from those we have normally been accustomed to deal with.

2.1 ESP, then, is a term applied to the special language needs of foreign students, professionals and others who need to use English in various ways in their studies or jobs. Many examples could be located on a scale ranging from, say, a Thai science undergraduate whose only textbook is in English, through the foreman in a Philippine garage needing to assimilate and disseminate the information in a service manual, to a francophone engineer from Mali who is following postgraduate studies in UK before working at home in collaboration with a firm of British consultants.

2.1.1 The essential thing about it is that it provides access to essential knowledge and related skills. For people in many developing countries, English opens the widest door to science, technology, economics, planning and so on, all of which are essentials in development terms. For industry, agriculture, public administration, social and economic planning and so on, progress beyond rather minimal levels is impossible without the use of a language other than the native one. This need not necessarily be English, but it usually is. It is the preferred language; it is vastly in demand; and in our view it is important that we should do whatever we can to meet it. It is worth noting too that the demand is by no means confined to developing countries.

2.1.2 Operationally, we divide ESP into EAP (English for Academic Purposes) and EOP (English for Occupational Purposes). These two divisions overlap to some extent, of course, but are sufficiently distinct to warrant separate operational consideration.

EAP is concerned with those communication skills in English which are required for study purposes in formal education systems. It is curriculum-oriented, and in areas such as Anglophone Africa where English is the main study language it involves primary and secondary as well as tertiary levels. The key area within EAP is perhaps English for Science and Technology (EST). EOP is concerned with the precise demands that specific occupations (in commerce, medicine, technology, etc) place upon communicative ability in English. It is activity-oriented and more narrowly focused than EAP, although its range may vary from a technician consulting an instruction manual or a waiter in a tourist hotel to a doctor in casualty or the conduct of a large business. The major overlap between EAP and EOP lies in those educational areas (eg technical colleges) which are highly vocational.

3. In order to indicate the linguistic, as opposed to the purposive, distinctions between ESP and 'general' English, it is necessary to explain the following rather more technical points.

3.1 Vocabulary. That the vocabulary of, say, particle physics, is 'different' is obvious enough. So obvious, in fact, that there are twin dangers associated with it. A teacher of English may simply be switched off by the apparent impossibility of his dealing with a stretch of authentic text; or he may be tempted to 'explain' technical terms of which he cannot possibly have a proper understanding. However, there is a very important area of academic lexis which is not special to any one field, but which occurs in virtually all disciplines. This the English teacher can and should deal with, especially since much of it rarely figures in conventional courses.

3.2 Grammar. There is a definite tendency for certain grammatical patterns to be more frequent in ESP, and these can be specified and taught. This was, in fact, the characteristic of ESP which researchers began to concentrate on particularly some 10-15 years ago, and many of the earlier published materials make it the main feature of the contents.

3.3 Rhetorical structure. This is an area which has attracted a great deal of attention recently, and which most of us consider to be of basic importance. 'Rhetoric' here should not be understood in its traditional sense but rather as referring to the ways in which text is organised so that meaningful connections are understood across sentence and paragraph boundaries and throughout large stretches of text. This may seem very obvious - and indeed, the skilled reader makes use of the devices of rhetoric virtually unconsciously, so accustomed is he to them - but may be very much less obvious to the foreign learner, especially if his reading skills in the first language are poorly developed. Moreover, traditional ELT, especially in countries where American influence has been strong, has failed almost entirely to deal effectively with meaning above the level of the single sentence. Yet ability to take in information so conveyed is an essential ingredient in any recipe for using English effectively for work or study.

3.4 Communicative functions. In ESP a great deal of importance is attached to analysing the circumstances and the modes in and through which the learner will need to communicate and be communicated with - for instance, in a seminar, in writing a term paper, or in preparing a persuasive document for a potential investor. In these and in many

other cases, the user's selection of language items, skills and strategies will vary, yet in the standard high school course overseas, almost certainly no attention will have been paid to them.

3.5 Reading. Above all, and forming an essential item for virtually all learners, come adequate reading skills. Traditional ELT has either approached these ineffectively or left them to develop in some hazy conceived manner from the standard drills. Now, however, the insights derived from the analysis of rhetorical structure and communicative function are providing powerful tools for improving the teaching of efficient reading. It is unfortunate that at present such tools are being used virtually in ESP programmes only, but there are signs that migration to standard courses is beginning to be considered.

3.6 Listening comprehension. More attention has been paid to this in conventional courses, but not normally in a form which would be useful to the learner in the demands which will be made on him in, especially, the study context. Playing an active role in a tutorial, for instance, or auditing a lecture, writing adequate notes on it, and being able to understand these later involve combinations of skills which, though (or because?) of a high order, have not usually received much instruction or planned development. ESP, and especially EAP, programmes normally attempt to fill this gap.

4. As will be seen from the foregoing, ESP is more of an approach to language learning than a subject in itself. ESP is needed because of the still increasing worldwide use of English as a common language for science, technology, commerce, and international communication. Its relevance to extracting the maximum benefit from TA awards hardly needs to be stressed.

5. Because of our view of ESP as an approach rather than a subject, it is preferable not to categorise its manifestations in terms of the user's own special field: in all six of the areas discussed above there is a marked overlap across fields. What can be said, however, is that the largest demand usually comes from those working or studying in engineering, technology, exact sciences, medicine, public administration, economics and planning. This short list, however, does not make clear the large range of subjects which users require English for, so Appendix A is attached to give a more detailed picture. It gives the special fields for which English instruction was being provided in about 160 institutions in Southeast Asia in 1974/75. The source is a survey conducted by a Council officer at RELC Singapore.

6. There is no doubt that the need for ESP is increasing. This is partly due to an absolute increase in the number of people requiring it, but much more so to the rapidly spreading realisation that standard school and other ELT courses do not adequately cater for ESP needs. As far as we know the provision of true ESP courses was virtually unknown in 1965 (except possibly in the University of Chile, Santiago) whereas now there are significant operations in train all over the world. These include: many UK universities, especially Edinburgh, Lancaster, Birmingham, Newcastle, Aston and Manchester; other post-secondary institutions in UK; universities in Sudan, Malaysia, Indonesia, Colombia, Thailand, Singapore, Saudi Arabia, Chile, Mexico, Brazil, Iran, Egypt, Algeria, Yemen, Poland; and other types of institutions in Yugoslavia, Malaysia, Brazil, Philippines. The amount of published teaching material has correspondingly increased. In the Council's Information Guide on ESP (No.2, Feb. 75, copy enclosed), out of 209 textbook listings, 17 were published earlier than 1965 but 126 between 1970 and 1974. Similarly for articles in professional journals, 17 are listed pre-65, 82 for the 70-74 period.

STATE OF BAHRAIN
MINISTRY OF EDUCATION
TECHNICAL EDUCATION &
VOCATIONAL TRAINING DEPT.

GOVERNORS

- OBJECT: It is fitted generally at the end of the camshaft and aims at, normally two things.
1. To limit maximum speed at which engine can be run, by withdrawing the control rod when pre-set speed is reached.
 2. The governor manipulates the control rod at idling speed to prevent erratic running. (Hunting)
 3. To permit the driver to control the speed between these two limits by means of the pedal.
- This depends on the type of governor.

TYPES

PNEUMATIC: It is designed to control the output of the pump and engine throughout the entire range. The maximum and minimum limits are set by stop screw adjustment.

PRINCIPLES and CONSTRUCTION

Air passing through a pipe tends to create a pressure drop in any smaller pipe adjoining it at an angle. (e.g. Air-flow through a PITOT tube). In this case, the engine suction provides the necessary air flow past the PITOT tube, the pressure drop being transferred by means of a flexible pipe to a diaphragm, connected to the control rod of the pump.

NOTE:- Engine must not be run without the following being attached, due to lack of governor control.

1. Intake manifold
2. Vacuum pipe
3. Governor or any of its parts

Care must be taken with air vent to keep it clean.

MECHANICAL (QUANTITY GOVERNOR)

Consists of a spring opposed centrifugally actuated flyweights mounted on an extension to the camshaft. Bell crank levers connect the weights to a coupling rod and floating lever, to the rack (i.e. control rod).

STARTING Accelerator pedal fully depressed, control rod is moved to maximum delivery via linkage. When engine is started governor weights control fuel delivery and accelerator pedal should be released. Engine will run at a pre-set idling speed. Two sets of springs control weight movement. One set for idling, both sets for speeds approaching maximum.

APPENDIX (E) (contd.)

-2-

IDLING: Weights compress outer spring only, control rod retains a constant idling delivery, i.e. if speed rises, weights and lever move the control rod towards minimum position, hence less fuel is delivered and idling is restored to normal.

NORMAL SPEED RANGE: (Intermediate of Cruising)

Controlled by accelerator pedal independent of governor, i.e. centrifugal force causes weights to press against spring plates (collars) holding the springs. They remain in this position until maximum speed is reached.

MAXIMUM SPEED:

The weights overcome spring tension. This action is transmitted through bellcrank levers, which in turn move the crosshead towards the weights, this in turn will move the rack towards stop position, therefore less fuel will be delivered. Equilibrium is set up between weights and pedal control.

CONTROL ROD STOP:

This is fitted to the end of the pump housing, remote from the governor and provides a means of adjusting maximum fueling.

ADJUSTING: (On Test Bed)

1. Run engine at Mid range position, developing full power.
2. Remove dust cap and split pin.
3. Screw in adjusting stop until engine power shows a power drop.
4. Retract stop until power is restored.
5. Retract further 1 to $1\frac{1}{2}$ turns, replace split pin and dust cover.

EXCESS FUEL DEVICE

OBJECT: To over ride maximum fuel stop, hence an excess of fuel for starting.

DESCRIPTION:

The spring is carried on a spring loaded plunger with the control rod in maximum position, the end of control rod bears on stop screw. With engine stopped, plunger is depressed, the stop screw is aligned with recess in control rod, hence control rod moves beyond the maximum position. (Excess fuel)

With engine started, accelerator released, control rod returns to minimum position. Plunger with fuel stop is returned to normal position by spring action.

APPENDIX (E) (contd.)

-3-

Generator Output

- a) Ammeter in the same position as test 6
- b) Increase engine speed

RESULTS

1. Ammeter reading should increase with speed
2. The reading will vary as to battery condition and electrical load.

Reverse Current (discharge)

- a) Ammeter in the same position as test 6
- b) decrease engine speed slowly

RESULTS

1. Ammeter needle should fall until it shows a discharge
2. Reverse current should be 3 - 5 amps.
3. When cut-out points open the ammeter points should return to zero.

Voltage drop in supply line

- a) Connect voltmeter between generator D terminal and battery supply terminal
(- terminal for positive earth system, and + for negative earth system)
- b) Increase engine speed and note ammeter reading

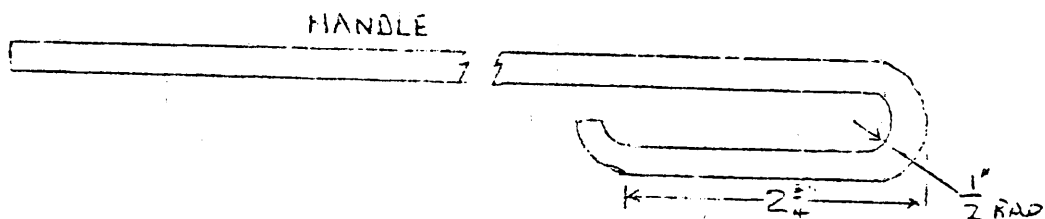
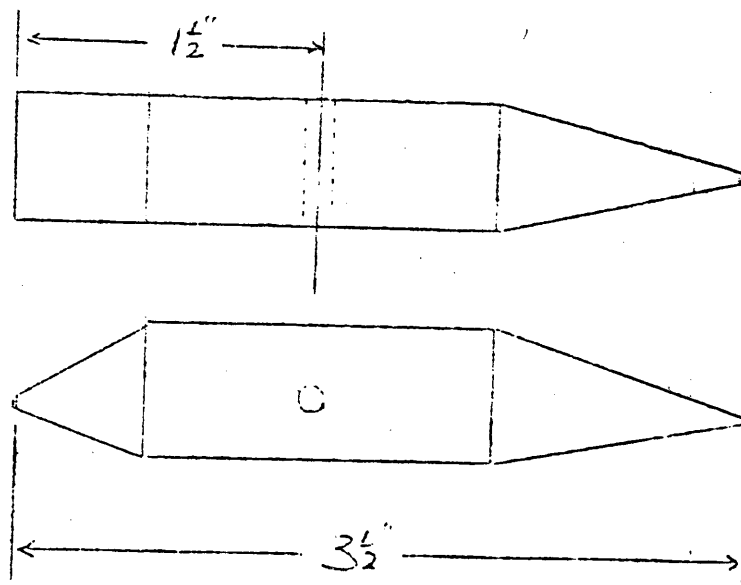
RESULTS

1. When ammeter is approximately 10 amps voltmeter should not exceed 10% of battery voltage.

FORGING A CHIPPING HAMMER

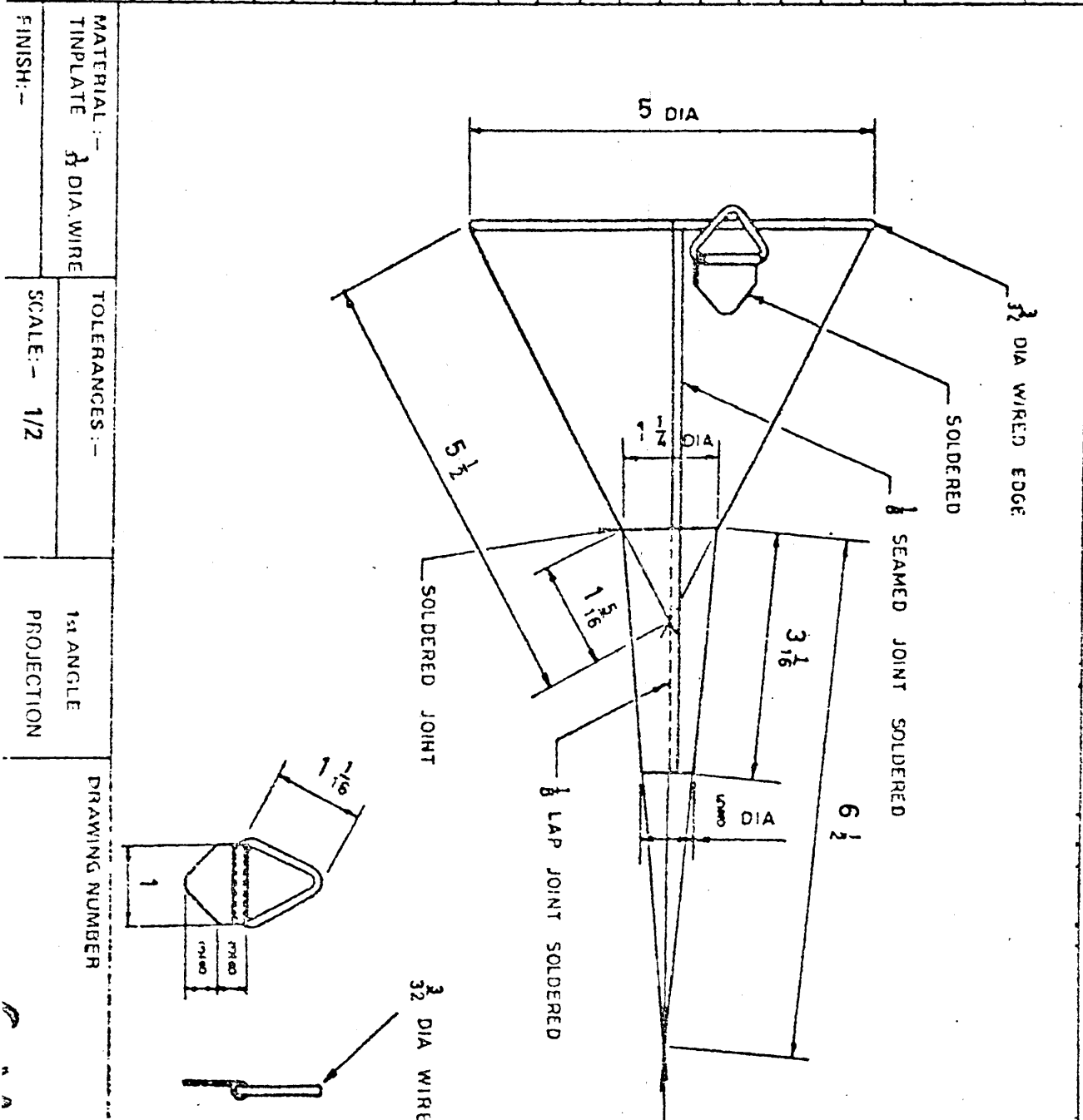
PROCEDURE

Cut to length.
Forge to shape.
Clean up faces with a file.
Mark out and drill hole.
Shape handle.
Attach handle by welding.
Harden and temper.
Grind cutting edges.
Test hardness.



MATERIAL: $\frac{3}{4}$ " x $\frac{3}{4}$ " .8% carbon steel 1-12" x $\frac{3}{8}$ " $\varnothing$ m/s rod.
 $\frac{3}{4}$ " x $\frac{1}{4}$ " $\varnothing$ rod (rivet)

114

[illegible]

OBJECT

To make a double-vee butt weld in $\frac{3}{4}$ " mild steel plate in the flat position.

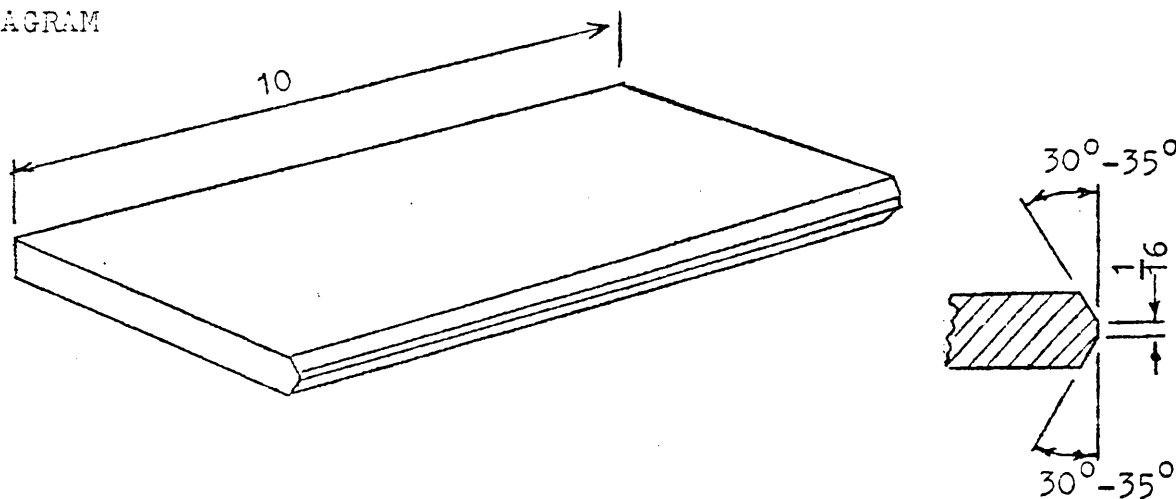
EQUIPMENT

Manual metal-arc welding plant. Welding shield. Chipping hammer. Wire brush. Tongs. Two pieces of mild steel plate $10" \times 6" \times \frac{3}{4}"$. 8 and 6 gauge mild steel electrodes. Machine saw or oxy-acetylene cutting equipment. Grinding and sanding machines. Macro-etching materials. Protective clothing.

PREPARATION

1. One 10" side of each plate to be prepared as shown below.
2. Remove any surface oxide, tack the two plates together to form an included angle of between $60^\circ - 70^\circ$ with a root gap of $\frac{1}{16}"$

DIAGRAM



DIMENSIONS IN INCHES

PROCEDURE

1. Adjust the welding current to approximately 150 A and, using 8 gauge mild steel electrodes, deposit the first root run.
2. Deslag and clean both sides with the wire brush.
3. After turning the plate over, deposit the second root run
4. Deslag and clean with the wire brush
5. Deposit a second run on each side using 8 gauge mild steel electrodes
6. Deslag and clean with the wire brush
7. Adjust the current and use 6 gauge mild steel electrodes until a satisfactory weld reinforcement is obtained
8. Deslag and clean with the wire brush
9. Cut a transverse section $1\frac{1}{2}"$ wide from the welded joint and macro-etch to B.S 1295

QUESTIONS

1. Why was the weld completed by welding alternate sides?
2. What is the purpose of the root gap?
3. What does macro-etch show?

FILLET WELDED TEE JOINTS

OBJECT

To make a fillet weld in $\frac{1}{8}$ " mild steel plate and to test to B.S.1295

EQUIPMENT

Two pieces of mild steel plate 6" x 3" x $\frac{1}{8}$ ". Gas welding equipment
Protective clothing. Goggles. $\frac{3}{32}$ " mild steel welding rod.
Scriber, rule and square. Hacksaw. Wire brush. Macro-etching
materials.

PREPARATION

The two plates to be positioned as shown below. The tacks must be
on the side to be welded.

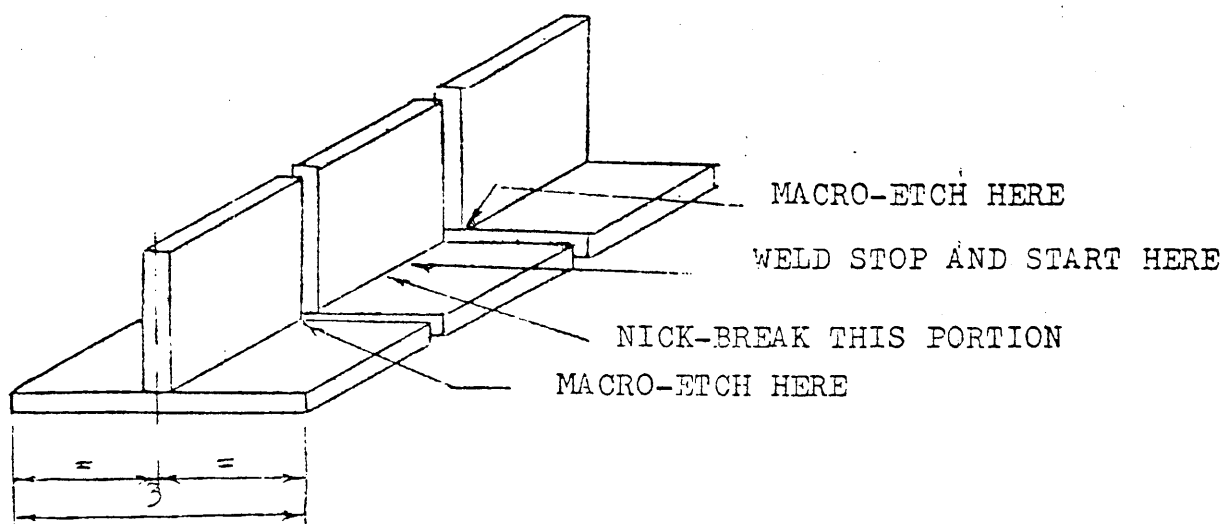
PROCEDURE

1. Complete the weld allowing for distortion
2. Cut the specimen into three equal parts as shown below
3. Nick-break the centre portion and macro-etch one of the
remaining cut edges

NOTE:

This weld is to be completed in the horizontal-vertical
(not tilted) position. On completion, the vertical plate
should be at right angles to the horizontal plate.

DIAGRAM



DIMENSIONS IN INCHES

QUESTIONS

1. What gas pressure and nozzles sizes were used?
2. Which plate melted more easily?
3. Was there any burn-through on the vertical plate?

PART B - BASIC SKILLS

DESCRIPTION

TERMINATIONS

OBJECTIVE

TERMINATIONS INCLUDING
CRIMPING.

No.

OPERATION INSTRUCTIONS

PREPARING A SPADE END FROM A 7-STRAND

CABLE:

1. STRIP INSULATION.

2. TAKE 1 OUTER STRAND AND TWIST ROUND BASE

IMMEDIATELY ABOVE INSULATION.

3. SEPARATE INTO TWO SETS OF THREE STRANDS.

4. TWIST EACH SET TIGHTLY TOGETHER.

5. FORM SPADE END.

CRIMPING:

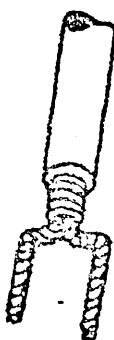
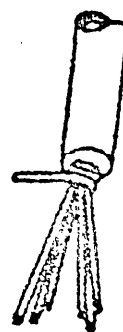
1. SELECT THE CORRECT TERMINAL END.

2. STRIP INSULATION FROM CABLE.

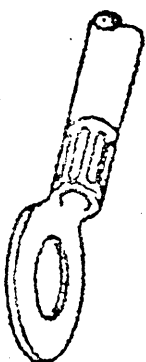
3. INSERT WIRE IN CUP AND CRIMP WITH TOOL

TIGHTLY.

SPADE END TERMINATION



CRIMPED END TERMINATION



NOTES

1. MAKE ALL CABLE RUNS
STRAIGHT AND NEAT.

2. READ I.E.E. REGULATIONS
207-215, OR RELEVANT
LOCAL ELECTRICITY
REGULATIONS.

MATERIAL :-

TOLERANCES :-

DRAWING NUMBER

SCALE :-

APPENDIX (K) An Example of a Practical Exercise Worksheet for
Second Year (Auto Section)

SCHEDULE 1C/9

PRACTICAL COURSEWORK SCHEDULE

CRANKSHAFT MEASUREMENT AND INSPECTION

OBJECT

To measure the bearings of a crankshaft, to determine the maximum wear, ovality and taper of each bearing, and to test the crankshaft for misalignment or bow.

EQUIPMENT

Worn crankshaft. External micrometer. Two vee blocks. Dial gauge on stand. Surface plate. Paper. Oil can. Report form (see Appendix).

PREPARATION

1. Thoroughly clean the crankshaft, using a soft brass brush to remove dirt from the journals and a piece of wire to clear the oilways.
2. Use the surface plate and vee blocks to support the main bearings of the crankshaft, placing well-oiled thin paper between the surfaces to prevent scratching.
3. Check the accuracy of the micrometer, using the standard gauge.

PROCEDURE

1. **Measurement:** Measure the diameter of each big-end and main bearing journal in the four positions indicated on the report form. Enter the results on the report. For each bearing, obtain the maximum wear by subtracting the smallest diameter from the original unworn diameter of the bearing. (Obtainable from the engine manufacturer's handbook). Calculate ovality by subtracting the vertical diameter of each bearing from its horizontal diameter lying in the same plane.
 Calculate taper by subtracting the front and rear diameters of the journals lying in the same plane.
2. **To test for bow:** Using the vee blocks and surface plate, support the crankshaft by its front and rear main bearings.
 Place the dial gauge and stand on the surface plate so that the gauge contact is resting on the centre main bearing. Rotate the crankshaft one complete turn and note the maximum deflection of the dial gauge needle during this period.
 Transfer the vee block to the front main bearing from the centre main bearing, leaving the dial gauge in the same position.
 Rotate the crankshaft another revolution noting again the needle deflection. Subtract the latter reading (journal ovality) from the former to obtain the bow in the crankshaft.
3. **Results:** Enter on the report form the measurements obtained, and use them to calculate maximum wear, ovality, and taper for each main and big-end journal.
 Calculate the amount of crankshaft bow.

QUESTIONS

1. Which are likely to have the greatest wear, the crankpins (big-end journals) or the main bearing journals?
2. What tests should be carried out before it is re-installed in an engine?
3. What is meant by 'ovality' of a bearing journal and why is this detrimental?
4. How is the taper of a crankshaft journal determined?
5. Why is it necessary to clean out the oilways of a crankshaft?

APPENDIX (K) (contd.)

APPENDIX to SCHEDULE IC/9

CRANKSHAFT MEASUREMENT – REPORT FORM

ENGINE MAKE/TYPE _____ MAINS DIA. (NEW) _____

MAINS No.	VERTICAL Front Rear	HORIZONTAL Front Rear	Taper	Ovality	Max. Wear
1					
2					
3					
4					
5					
6					

BIG END DIA. (NEW) _____

BIG-ENDS No.	VERTICAL Front Rear	HORIZONTAL Front Rear	Taper	Ovality	Max. Wear
1					
2					
3					
4					
5					
6					

VISUAL INSPECTION

Cracks _____

Ridging _____

Scoring _____

Picking Up _____

CRANKSHAFT BOW

Shaft supported at ends:— Max.run out of centre main _____

Shaft supported at centre:— Max.run out of centre main _____

Shaft Bow = _____

RECOMMENDATIONS

APPENDIX (L) An Example of a Practical Exercise Worksheet for
Third Year (Welding Section)

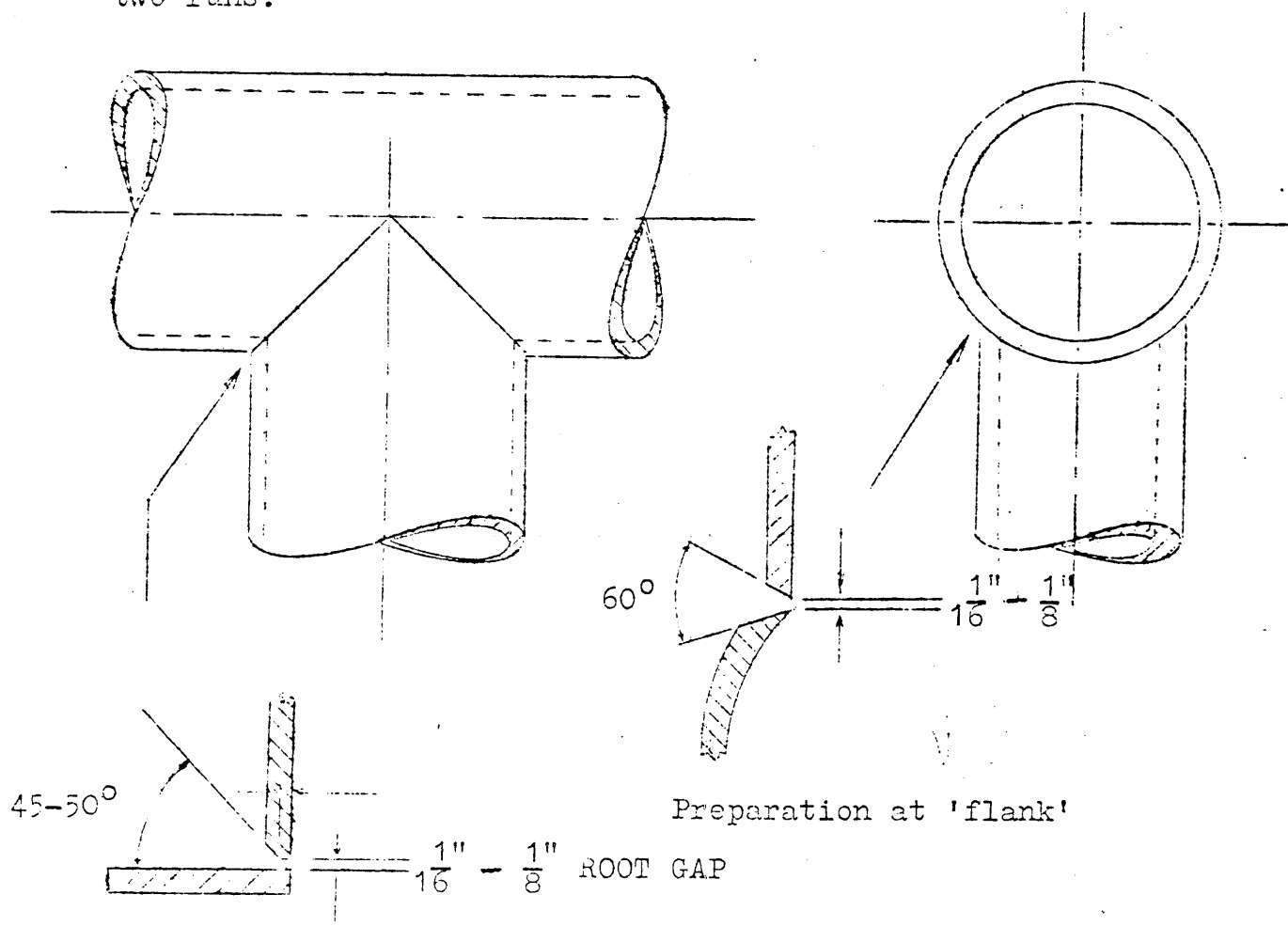
90° EQUAL BRANCH JOINT

EQUIPMENT

Drawing instruments, template paper and drawing board.
 Welding power source, 10 s.w.g. electrodes, chipping
 hammer, clear goggles, file, protective clothing, wire
 brush and flame cutting equipment.

PROCEDURE

Prepare template of the branch pipe end and template of hole
 in main pipe. Prepare the branch pipe using the template
 and flame cutting equipment.
 Cut the hole in the main pipe.
 Dress the end of the branch and the hole in the main pipe
 using the file.
 Set and tack the two pipes together as sketch.
 Fix the job in the overhead position with the branch pipe
 axis vertical. (As sketched)
 Deposit root run and complete the joint in not more than
 two runs.



Preparation at 'crotch'

APPENDIX (M) An Example of a Practical Exercise Worksheet for
Third Year (Auto Section)

SCHEDULE VW/14

PRACTICAL COURSEWORK SCHEDULE

REMOVAL, TESTING AND REFITTING OF A SUSPENSION DAMPER

OBJECT

To carry out the removal, testing and refitting of a suspension damper.

EQUIPMENT

Vehicle or mock-up with telescopic type shock absorbers. Vehicle jacking equipment and axle stands.
 Kit of tools. Spring compressor and adaptors.

PROCEDURE

1. Remove shock absorber by jacking up the vehicle, removing the top and bottom attachment nuts and/or bolts and withdrawing shock absorber through the bottom link. In some cases, the spring is mounted on the shock absorber and removed with it, whilst in others the spring must be compressed prior to the withdrawal of the shock absorber.
2. Keep shock absorber vertical when removed from the vehicle, and carry out a visual check for:-
 - a) damaged or dented body;
 - b) bent piston rod;
 - c) loose mounting;
 - d) fluid leakage.
3. Hold bottom fitting of shock absorber in the vice and work shock absorber through its full travel about 10 times. Resistance should be smooth and even in both directions with no 'free play' lag in feeling the resistance.
4. The shock absorber should be considered unserviceable if any of the defects in paragraph 2 are found or if any of the following defects are present:-
 - a) none or only slight resistance in one or both directions;
 - b) excessive resistance — cannot be operated manually;
 - c) pocket of no resistance when reversing direction.
5. Compare performance with a known serviceable shock absorber — a slightly increased resistance may be felt in a new shock absorber due to seal friction.
6. Make sure all air is expelled from shock absorber by working it through a few rapid short strokes, and, if of a type which is refilled with oil, that the oil content is correct.
7. Inspect all rubber sleeves and mountings for damage or deterioration.
8. Refit shock absorber and suspension links.
9. Test by hand by bouncing the vehicle; if shock absorber is in good condition, vehicle will give one free bounce and then stop.

QUESTIONS

1. Describe in detail the steps taken to remove a front suspension shock absorber.
2. Why must a shock absorber be kept vertical when removed from a vehicle?
3. What effect would a weak shock absorber have on the driving of the vehicle?
4. You have found a shock absorber with a slightly dented outer tube. What action would you take?
5. Describe the action of an oil-filled shock absorber and say why it is essential for all air to be removed.

London Borough of Brent
 WILLESDEN COLLEGE OF TECHNOLOGY
 Denzil Road, London NW10 2XD

DEPARTMENT OF AUTOMOBILE ENGINEERING
 APPLICATION FORM for provisional enrolment in a Full-time
 or Sandwich course in SESSION 1977/78

For Office Use

Ref.
 App. Ack.
 Certs. seen
 Refs.
 Interview
 Sponsor
 Test
 Place Off
 Dep.
 Enrolled

Course Required:
 (Please give full title)

Surname (Family name)	First Names	Sex
Present Address		Telephone No.
Home Address (if different from above)		Telephone No.
Country of Origin	Date of entry to U.K. (if now resident in U.K.)	
Date of Birth	Age on 1.9.77	

ACADEMIC ATTAINMENT

1. Ordinary Level GCE (or CSE)

Examining Body	Subject	Date of Sitting	Grade (if known)

2. Advanced Level

Examining Body	Subject	Date of Sitting	Grade (if known)

3. OTHER QUALIFICATIONS (Please give details of qualifications with grades)

--

Name of School last attended	Country	Dates	Principal subjects studied
OVERSEAS STUDENTS must submit copies of their qualifications with this form, together with proof of their date of birth.			
BRITISH STUDENTS should bring their certificates to the interview.			
SCHOOL ACTIVITIES: details of any special school activities			
HOBBIES			
CAREER: Indicate your intended career and possible courses of study beyond present application.			
REFERENCES. If still at school, give the name and school address of your head teacher. Otherwise, the name and address of at least one person who may be contacted.			
EMPLOYMENT: details of any employment since leaving school.			
SPONSOR: Name and address of any sponsor.			

DECLARATION: I confirm that the above statements are correct to the best of my knowledge.

Signed:

Date:

N.B. This application does not in itself constitute an enrolment.

OVERSEAS STUDENTS

1. KNOWLEDGE OF ENGLISH LANGUAGE:

I confirm that I have personal knowledge of the applicant, and that in my opinion he/she is capable of communication in the English Language sufficiently well to fully benefit from a course of study conducted in English.

Signed:

Status:

(To be signed by a responsible person having a good knowledge of the English language)

2. This application should be returned through our Country's Student Officer.

ARAB SHIPBUILDING AND REPAIR YARD COMPANY

P. O. Box 5110, Bahrain

Application for Employment

Please attach
Photograph if
available



Complete in your own handwriting.

All Questions must be answered.

TYPE OF WORK REQUIRED Pay Expected : BD.
 Full Name Sex
 Full Private Address Tel.
 Full Business Address
 Age Date of Birth Place of Birth Religion
 Nationality Marital Status
 Passport No. Place & Date of issue Expiry date
 No. of Children and Ages

EDUCATION	From	To	Certificates/Degrees obtained	Main Subject Studied	Name and Location of School
Primary					
Intermediate					
Secondary					
University					
PROFESSIONAL TRAINING	From	To	Certificates/Degrees obtained	Main Subject Studied	Name and Location of School

LANGUAGES	Indicate Proficiency							
	Spoken				Written			
	Excellent	Good	Fair	Poor	Excellent	Good	Fair	Poor
Arabic								
English								

Can you Type Arabic ?

Speed w.p.m.

Can you Take Shorthand ?

Speed w.p.m.

Can you Type English ?

Speed w.p.m.

ANNEX A

Further-training Course for Teachers of English to Scientific, Technological and Technical Students.

1. AIM OF COURSE: Within the limits of the time available, to introduce practicing teachers to the conceptual backgrounds and main linguistic features of these areas of specialised English, to acquaint them with teaching materials available in each field and their appropriate methodology, and to give them training in developing additional materials and techniques for their own particular circumstances.

2. LENGTH OF COURSE: 120 hours of student-teacher contact time, preferably in the form of an intensive course of 3 weeks with 8 class-hours per day.

Note: This time excludes the preliminary reading assignment and the compilation of the portfolio of explanatory and visual material (see 3 a (1) & (111) below).

3. CONTENTS OF COURSE:

[illegible]

B I B L I O G R A P H Y

I General

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