

People's Democratic Republic of Algeria

Ministry of Higher Education and Scientific Research

Ammar Thelidji University, Laghouat

Faculty of Letters and Language

Department of English



Investigating the ESP Present, Target, and Learning Needs of Architecture Students: A Case Study of Master 1 Students at the University of Laghouat

A Dissertation Submitted to the Department of English in Partial fulfilment of the
Requirements for Master Degree in English Language Teaching (ELT)

Submitted by:

Miss.BEN HARZALLAH Iman

Supervised by:

DR . MUSTAPHA Yasmine

Board of Examiners:

Dr.Boumedienne Houda.....University of Laghouat, Chairman

Dr. Mustapha Yasmine.....University of Laghouat, Supervisor

Dr.Benredda JamelUniversity of Laghouat, Examiner

Academic Year: 2024-2025



Dedications

*This work is lovingly dedicated to
My parents ,my greatest strength,
And to my dear brothers : Islam ,Sohaib, and Ilyess .*

EMAN



Acknowledgements

First of all, I would like to thank Allah for giving me the power and capacity to complete this work.

I would like to express my deep gratitude to my supervisor Dr. Mustapha Yasmine for her invaluable guidance, patience and precious time she devoted for the preparation of the research

I would also like to extend my heartfelt appreciation to the esteemed members of the jury for their valuable insights and constructive criticisms that have significantly enriched the quality of our work

Abstract

English for Specific Purposes (ESP) in Algerian higher education often lacks contextualization and systematic needs analysis, as a result, many courses are irrelevant to students' real academic and professional needs. In response to this situation, the present study aimed at investigating the perceived and real English language needs of the Master 1 architecture students at the University of Laghouat, their problems in English language acquisition, and whether the existing ESP course meets their needs. A mixed-method design was used to collect data, combining quantitative and qualitative tools. To explore students' perceived and real needs, a needs analysis questionnaire, adapted from Target Situation Analysis (TSA), Present Situation Analysis (PSA), and Deficiency Analysis (DA), was administered to 23 students. Furthermore, a language proficiency test was developed to measure their real performance in several language skills, classroom observations were carried out to investigate teaching practices and student interaction, and a semi-structured interview with the English teacher provided additional understanding of pedagogical and institutional challenges. The results indicated that even though students were highly motivated to use English in professional and academic contexts, especially in speaking and writing, these skills were not emphasized and were underdeveloped in the classroom. Their strongest skill seemed to be reading, however this might be because of the exposure to simplified texts, while their major challenge was in technical vocabulary, which hindered their ability to access authentic resources. The teacher interview confirmed these results, showing that there is no systematic needs analysis conducted, the over-focus on reading, and the lack of collaboration with language specialists. The study determines that there is a clear gap between what the students actually require and what the ESP course currently provides. It demonstrates the necessity to reformulate a more practical, relevant and needs-based curriculum that helps architecture students in their academic as well as professional lives.

Key words : ESP ; needs analysis; architecture students; language proficiency; technical vocabulary; curriculum design; mixed-method research.



List of Acronyms and Abbreviations

- **ESP:** English for Specific Purposes
- **EFL:** English as a Foreign Language
- **ELT:** English Language Teaching
- **EST:** English for Science and Technology
- **EBE:** English for Business and Economics
- **ESS :** English for Social Stuies
- **EAP:** English for Academic Purposes.
- **EOP:** English for Occupational Purposes
- **GEP:** English for General Purposes
- **EEP:** English for Education Purposes
- **EVP:** English for Vocational Purposes
- **VESL:** Vocational English as a Second Language
- **NA:** Needs Analysis
- **EFLE:** English as a Foreign Language Education
- **TSA :** Target Situation Analysis
- **PSA :**Present Situation Analysis
- **DA :** Deficiency Analysis
- **RA :** Registr Analysis
- **DA :** Discourse Analysis
- **TN :**Target Needs

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General Introduction

▪ Background of the Study

Over the years, English has developed into more than just a means of communication and has become the global language and a lingua franca, particularly in non-English-speaking countries. It has been used as the main language for multiple domains such as science, technology, engineering, and education. Regarding the increasing use of specialised English in professional and academic settings where students require content that is directly related to their field of study, English for Specific Purposes (ESP) was emerged in the early 1960s to meet needs of learners. It is a branch of English language education that focuses on satisfying the learner's specific communication needs in regard to their field of study, profession, or academic goals. In contrast to English for General Purposes (EGP), which focuses on the general communication requirements of the learner.

ESP is characterized not only by its specialization but also by its approach to methodology that is based on the analysis of learners' needs. Needs analysis is an essential step in ESP course design since the 1970s, as it determines what learners know, what they need to learn and how to bridge the gap. Hutchinson and Waters (1987) highlight that ESP is "an approach to language teaching in which all decisions as to content and method are based on the learner's reason for learning". Thus, ESP without a clear knowledge of the learners' necessity will be irrelevant and useless.

Considering the increasing significance of English in Algeria, especially with the implementation of the LMD system, the Algerian universities have incorporated English in higher education in two different ways: it is taught as a core subject in the English department for those who study English as a subject language and as a supplemental but obligatory course for students in other fields such as sociology, business, tourism, economics, and engineering. The main language of instruction of these studies is provided in Arabic or French, and the role of English will vary depending on what the discipline requires. Yet, many ESP courses implemented in Algeria are in general, underdeveloped, not contextualised, without clear objectives, and without a clear reference to the reality of the students and their needs in both academic and professional life. Assassi (2021) notes that ESP in Algerian universities belongs more to the General English due to lack of a needs analysis and insufficient ESP teacher's training. Barkat (2023) also maintains that the systemic problems including ambiguous curricula, unprepared teachers and lack of institutional support weaken the adoption of ESP in Algeria.



This study was conducted at the University of Ammar Theliji, Laghouat , specifically at the Department of Architecture. Although ESP has gained global importance , its application at this university is still limited. In most departments, including Architecture English is taught as a general language module only in the first year of the Master’s program with a little adaptation to learners' academic or professional fields. However, there is no specific customisation that is applied to meet the needs of learners. This gap in the practical application of ESP served as a motivating factor for conducting this study. It is important to note that ESP is only taught theoretically as part of a module in the Department of English, where learners study it from a linguistic and academic perspective rather than through practical application.

▪ **Statement of the Problem**

Although ESP is recognized as a necessary part of higher education in Algeria in recent years, there is a significant gap between ESP theory and the practice of ESP in university classrooms. In the case of architecture students at the University of Laghouat, English language instruction does not take into account students’ needs in both academic and professional contexts. One of the core issues is the absence of a systematic needs analysis, where most courses are made according to the teacher's intuition or experience rather than any data-based understanding of what students need. Boudersa (2018) emphasizes the lack of specific training programmes for ESP, claiming that many English teachers are not well-trained to teach ESP content-based needs, so that they resort to their intuition or general teaching approaches. Furthermore, there is no national policy or academic support for ESP practitioner training. Very few teachers have had any practical training in ESP methodology and curriculum planning. The lack of qualified ESP teachers, the reliance on general English teaching approaches, and the absence of specialized course materials all lead to ESP courses which do not meet the needs of students and fail to reflect the linguistic and communicative challenges of the discipline.

▪ **Purpose of the study**

The present research explores the English language needs of Master 1 architecture students at the University of Laghouat; it aims to :

1. Explore how effectively the current ESP courses address the students' needs. Determine the specific English language skills and vocabulary needed by architecture students to succeed in their academic and professional context.

2. Evaluate the students' English proficiency level and the main reasons that lead to their difficulty in learning English.
3. Emphasize the necessity of systematic needs analysis as a basis for designing relevant and effective ESP programs.
4. Propose some recommendations for enhancing ESP classes according to the need analysis results.

▪ **Significance of the Study**

The present study is important because it exposes the gap between the current teaching of ESP and the real needs of architecture students in Algerian universities, specifically in Laghouat University. First, it emphasizes the necessity of implementing systematic needs analysis to provide more relevant and effective ESP courses. The second purpose is to improve the quality of teaching English by providing a detailed description of the linguistic and professional requirements of architecture students for curriculum developers, teachers, and policymakers. Finally, it suggests an enhancement of teacher training, institutional support, and early integration of English into the architectural programs, not only at the master's level, to provide a more coherent and relevant ESP learning experience.


▪ **Research questions**

In order to achieve the above stated objectives the researcher formulated the basic research question:

1. What are the actual and perceived English language needs of Master 1 architecture students at the University of Laghouat?
2. What challenges and difficulties do these students face in developing the necessary English language skills for their academic and professional contexts?
3. To what extent do the current ESP courses and teaching practices address these identified needs, from both students' and teachers' perspectives?

▪ **Research hypotheses**

On the basis of the above-mentioned research questions, the following hypotheses are formulated:

- 
1. Productive skills (speaking / writing) are the ones that architecture students need to develop most.
 2. The current ESP course may not meet architecture students' academic and professional needs.
 3. Students face difficulties in learning technical vocabulary that is relevant to their field.

- **Methodology**


This study involves a descriptive mixed-methods case study design to explore the ESP needs of Master 1 students in Architecture at the University of Laghouat. The descriptive nature of the study provides the opportunity to engage in an extensive investigation and presentation of the phenomenon without interfering with the variables. This mixed-method approach allowed for quantitative and qualitative data to be collected and obtained a comprehensive picture of students' needs as well as the challenges of teaching ESP in this specific context.

In order to collect rich and triangulated data, the study used four data collection tools:

1. A student questionnaire : to obtain quantitative and qualitative data about students' perceived needs and challenges.
2. A language proficiency test :to assess students' actual level of the English language.
3. Class observation : to record teaching approaches, classroom interactions and instruction that address student requirements.
4. A semi-structured teacher interview : to understand the teacher's attitudes toward students' needs and challenges in teaching ESP.

- **Structure of the thesis**

This research is structured into three chapters. The first chapter is divided into three sections: the first provides a theoretical foundation, presenting a review of the literature of ESP, its origin, definitions, and characteristics, whereas the second section of chapter one explains needs



analysis, its theoretical foundations, major models, and its application in higher education, particularly in the Algerian context. The chapter concludes with the third section, a discussion on ESP syllabus design, reviewing its definitions, types, and main approaches. The second chapter deals with the research methodology, describing the research design, context, participants, sampling method, and the instruments used for data collection, which are the questionnaire, proficiency test, classroom observation, and teacher interview, in addition to the procedures for collecting and analyzing the data. Finally, the third chapter focuses on the practical side of the study, it involves the collection, analysis, and interpretation of data. Furthermore, the chapter presents the results obtained by each tool, triangulates them, and concludes with recommendations to improve ESP teaching to architecture students.



1 Chapter One:

Review of the Related Literature

- **ESP**
- **Needs Analysis**
- **Syllabus Design**

Introduction

ESP is a branch of ELT that focuses on creating courses that meet the particular needs and goals of learners in professional settings. This chapter provides a comprehensive overview of ESP. The first part discusses the theoretical foundations of ESP, including its definitions, its origins and its various types. The second part sheds light on the concept of needs analysis in ESP by exploring its approaches, principles, and importance. Finally, the third part addresses the crucial element of syllabus design in ESP, this part will explore the syllabus design definition, characteristics, and its approaches.

1.1 Definition of English for Specific Purposes (ESP)

The definitions of English for Specific Purposes (ESP) present significant challenges, as numerous scholars have been unable to formulate a simple definition, while others consider it as a complex task (Stevens 1988, p.109). Over the years, various academic scholars have proposed different definitions of ESP. Hutchinson and Waters (1987, p.19) define ESP as: “an approach to language teaching in which all decisions as to content and method are based on the learner’s reason for learning”. Clearly, this means that ESP is an approach of language instruction that is based on the learners' needs for language acquisition.

Three definitions are provided by Dudley-Evans and St John (1998). First, they emphasize that the methodology for teaching ESP must differ from that used for general English. Secondly, they also claim that ESP is unrelated to a specific field. Third, although ESP is typically taught to adult learners, it could be adapted to be taught to young adults in secondary schools. It is important to highlight that these three fundamental aspects are a source of concern of most scholars' definitions of ESP. Bouadjdja (2021) reinforces this contextual understanding, emphasizing that the creation and teaching of special and professional English, as well as the teaching process, are closely related to the environment in which they occur. Concisely, Dudley Evans and St. John (1998, pp. 4-5) define ESP through a set of basic and variable characteristics that provide a unique identity for ESP, that is distinct from other English language teaching methods as illustrated below.

Table 1: Main Characteristics of ESP (Adopted from Hafner and Miller, 2019, p.17)

Absolute characteristics of ESP	Variable characteristics of ESP
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • ESP is designed to meet specific needs of the learners. • ESP makes use of underlying methodology and activities of the discipline it serves; • ESP is centered on the language appropriate to these activities in term of grammar, lexis, register, study skills, Discourse and genre.. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • ESP may be related to or designed for specific disciplines. • ESP may use, in specific teaching situations, a different methodology from that of General English; • ESP is likely to be designed for adult learners, either at a tertiary level in situation or in a professional work situation. It could, however, be for learners at secondary school level • ESP courses are generally designed for intermediate or advanced students. • A majority of ESP courses require a basic knowledge of language systems, but they can also be used with beginners.

Recent Literature provides various definitions of ESP : For instance, According to Mohammed and Alani (2022), English for Specific Purposes (ESP) is a language teaching method that focuses on the unique language requirements of learners in particular professional, academic, orvocational contexts.

To provide further clarification on the distinction between teaching English for specific purposes and teaching English in general , it is crucial to note their differing aims.Unlike general English language teaching, which focuses on developing overall language proficiency, ESP is designed to equip learners with the specialized language skills and knowledge needed to communicate effectively in their specific area of interest or expertise (Boutagra & Boudjemaa , 2024).This is emphasized by Basturkmen (2010), who believes that ESP as more specific trend than to GE, and the courses are designed according to the learners’ needs in their target situation. She states :

“ESP courses are narrower in focus than general ELT courses because they center on the analysis of learners’ needs. The statements show that ESP views learners in

terms of their work or study roles and that ESP courses focus on work- or study-related needs, not personal needs or general interests ”(p. 4).

It is noticed that Basturkmen claims that ESP provides learners with the opportunity to meet their learning objectives within the limits of study or occupation needs.

Paltridge and Starfield (2013) provide a concise definition, describing ESP as the teaching and learning of English as a second or foreign language for use in a specific field. a similar perspective, provided by Mackay and Mountford (1978), states that ESP refers to the teaching of English for practical purposes. In other words, English should be taught in a way that enables learners to achieve a specific goal related to their field of specialization or future career.

Hyland (2016) further emphasizes that the ESP program is closely linked to specializations that target a specific group of students whose special needs have been carefully analyzed. ESP, according to (Hutchinson & Waters, 2006; Richards & Schmidt, 2010), aims to prepare students for their disciplines that address different literary genres (for example., physics texts for physics students and economics students).

Hyun (2017) describes the “core mission” of an ESP program as preparing students to use English in their targeted work and study contexts (p. 4). Similarly, Peter (2017), Wette (2018), and Smoak (2003) collectively define ESP as English instruction through the fundamentals of students’ actual, immediate needs who must perform real life tasks (Peter, 2017; Wette, 2018; Smoak, 2003).

In Algeria, English for Specific Purposes (ESP) is supposed to enable students to use English effectively in real-life communicative contexts to achieve their goals (Bodrsa, 2018). This understanding highlights the pivotal role of curriculum design in the ESP approach (Graves, 2000) and motivates teachers to develop curricula tailored to the needs of their students (Hutchinson & Waters, 2006). The rapid global expansion in various fields has significantly contributed to the rapid growth of ESP (Rahman, 2015).

Despite their contributions to the field of ESP, the researchers' definitions seem to have weaknesses. Dudley-Evans and St. John (1998) argued that Strivers' focus on course content confirms the impression held by many teachers that ESP teaching is always and necessarily linked to subject content. Furthermore, Robinson's characteristic of "homogeneous classes" may lead to the same result.

According to the above stated definitions, it is clear that ESP can be associated with a specific discipline, but it is not limited to one. Similarly, it does not necessarily target a specific age group or proficiency level.

1.2 Origins and development of ESP

1.2.1 Origins of ESP

As with the most of human activities, ESP is not a planned or coherent movement. Instead, it is a phenomenon that has emerged as a result of a number of converging trends. The origins of ESP goes back to the end of Second World War. ESP has started as a separate linguistic discipline from the early 1960s . Later on, it became a part of EFL. Hutchinson and Waters (1987) note three major reasons that led to the emergence of ESP:

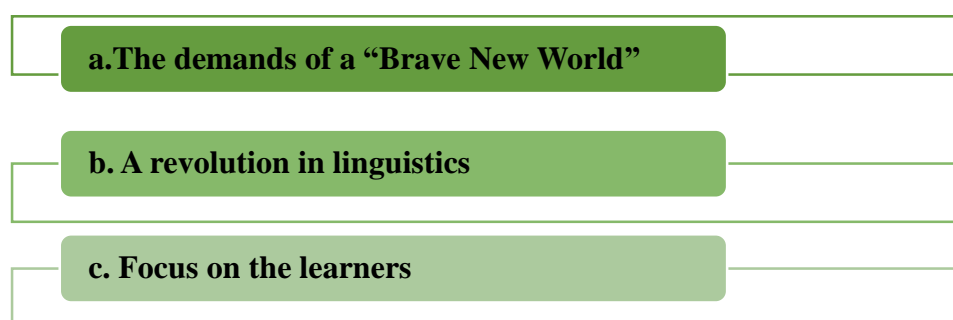



Figure 1: The Common Reasons to the Emergence of ESP

1.2.2 The demands of a “Brave New World”

As Hutchinson and Waters (1987, p.6) declare:

“As English became the accepted international language of technology and commerce. It created a new generation of learners, who knew specifically why they were learning a language. Businessmen and women who wanted to sell their products, mechanics who had to read instruction manuals, doctors who needed to keep up with developments in their field and a whole range of students whose course of study included textbooks and journals only available in English”.

After the end of the Second World War in 1945, the world came across a big growth in economical, technical, and scientific fields internationally. This created a world dominated by two forces (technology and commerce); this demanded a global language to communicate with. At that time the United States as well as Great Britain were considered the strongest heads, hence English was the chosen language. When it was agreed that English is the international language of technology and commerce, a new generation of learners, who knew their real aim behind learning such language, was created. During the 1970s, oil crises led to a massive flow



of funds and Western expertise into the oil-rich countries such as the Middle East and in North Africa, including Algeria,. People made English courses with defined goals according to their needs and wishes

1.2.3 A revolution in linguistics

The second reason was a revolution in this field, which had a significant impact on the emergence of ESP. In the past, linguistics focused on describing the grammatical rules governing the language use. However, over time, studies have differentiated between grammatical uses of language and its real-life use: for example, the way we speak and write the language (Widdowson, 1987). It is noticeable that there are some differences in language use in some areas of life, such as engineering, hospitals, commerce, and others. Each situation has its characteristics that are essential for language learning (Djebbari , 2016). Hutchinson and Waters (1987) point out that by giving the specific content in which English is used, the variants of English will change. Thus, by the late sixteenth and seventeenth centuries, research had evolved to include language varieties. That is, by analyzing the linguistic characteristics of a particular area of language study, we can identify a specific group of learners according to the principle, "Tell me what English you need, and I'll tell you the English you need." (Barkane , 2017).

1.2.4 Focus on the learners

The last reason mentioned by Hutchinson and Waters (1987) that influenced the emergence of ESP is the focus on the learner . The developments in educational psychology take part in the rising of ESP This has to do more with psychology than linguistics. that it has less to do with linguistics and everything to do with psychology , through giving importance to the learners and their attitudes towards learning. It is obvious that learners have different needs and interests so they influence their motivation to learn as well as the level of efficiency of their learning. Consequently, courses were designed to address learners' needs and enhance their motivation by optimizing the learning process for effectiveness and rapidity.

1.3 Development of ESP

Throughout the decades, numerous analytical frameworks have influenced the theoretical foundations and instructional methods of ESP. According to Hutchinson and Waters (1987), several trends have characterized the development of ESP. Among these, Register Analysis, discourse analysis, target-situation analysis, analysis of the study skills, and Learning-centered analysis.




Figure 2: The Major Historical Development of ESP

1.3.1 Register Analysis (RA)

Register Analysis emerged in the 1960s as the foundational analytical tool for early ESP courses. Research conducted by Peter Strevens (Halliday, Mackintosh, & Strevens, 1964), Jack Ewert (Ewert & Latorre, 1969), and John Swales (1971) between the 1960s and 1970s shifted the focus of ESP toward register analysis. This approach operated on the assumption that specific fields, such as English for Science and Technology (EST), used certain grammatical structures and vocabulary more frequently than others. Register analysis focused primarily on the grammar and vocabulary of scientific and technical English. It was founded on the principle that the language used in fields such as computing differs significantly from the language of architecture. Therefore, analyzing a particular type of discourse involved identifying the distinctive grammatical and lexical features of each distinct register. The primary goal of this analysis was to develop more appropriate ESP courses that directly addressed the linguistic needs of learners.

Perrin (1969, as cited in Chowdhury, 2013) underlined the importance of the different linguistic registers that are used in different specialized domains. Lee (1976, as cited in Ouarniki, 2012) identified two main aspects in the analysis of registers: first, the lexical aspect of language, which focuses on the repeated vocabulary related to a particular goal; and second, the syntactic



aspect of language structure. Robinson (1980) argued that language acquisition for specific purposes requires a particular language or register, defining a register as the language or linguistic structures that are commonly used.

The purpose of register analysis was to focus on the linguistic features that learners need in their specialized fields and to minimize the less common features. Hutchinson and Waters (1987) noted that "the aim was to develop a curriculum that focused on the language forms that students would most likely encounter in their scientific work and de-emphasized those they would not" (p. 10). Nevertheless, some scholars have presented alternative perspectives on register analysis. Spencer (cited in De Greef, 1972) criticized register studies for their overemphasis on texts and suggested a shift towards activities that would help achieve communication objectives. Widdowson (1979) suggested a shift from the exclusive use of registers and vocabulary to the development of learners' overall communicative competence.


1.3.2 Discourse Analysis (DA)

According to Crystal (1992, p. 25), a discourse is "a continuous linguistic stretch, larger than a sentence, often forming a coherent unit, such as a speech, argument, joke, or narrative." From this definition, discourse can be considered to play a vital role in language development, as outlined in Stephen Krashen's theory in his work on second language acquisition.

Discourse analysis emerged in ESP teaching in the early 1970s to address specific needs through analysing the language beyond the sentence. It focuses on the social aspects of communication and the ways in which people use language to achieve specific effects. We use various tools to analyze discourse, including cohesion, coherence, speech events, speech acts, conversation analysis, and background knowledge. The idea was to link language form to language use (Dudley-Evans & St. John, 1988, p. 22). Allen and Widdowson (1974) are considered pioneers of this approach, as they assume that learners' difficulties are not the result of their 'defective knowledge of the system', but rather of 'unfamiliarity with the use of English'. However, the shortcomings of discourse analysis alleged by Dudley-Evans and St. John (1998) in their book "**Developments in ESP**" gave life to another approach to the development of ESP teaching called **target situation analysis**.

1.3.3 Target Situation Analysis

Mike Brunton (2009) noted that target situation analysis became a predominant focus in the design of ESP courses, in response to the demands of stakeholders and employees for courses that align with their specific needs. Munby (1978) elaborated on the target situation approach, or the language-centered approach as it was called by ESP course developers, in his



book *Communicative Syllabus Design*, in which he worked on a model that explored all aspects of learners' needs by examining communicative purposes, settings, media, language skills, functions, structures, etc.

Mike Brunton provides an example of a textbook that uses this approach: "Technical English" (Pickett & Laster, 1980). This model was criticized by several linguists, including Hutchinson and Waters (1987), who considered it a "static and inflexible procedure," assumed it to be "systematic," and concluded that it "reveals very little about the competence that underlies the performance." The fact that all previous approaches focused on the surface of the language lead to a shift to another approach more coherent and had fewer gaps and shortcomings, which gave birth to another major trend in the development of ESP: Study Skills Analysis.

1.3.4 Study Skills Analysis


This approach, unlike previous ones, focuses on the learner's thinking process. As Hutchinson (1987, p. 13) asserts, it attempts to "look beneath the surface and consider not the language itself but the thought processes that underlie language use." In other words, the learner can identify with discourse based on their own skills and abilities. Hutchinson and Waters (1987, p. 70) note: "Its aim is not to provide a specific set of linguistic knowledge but to make learners better information processors," meaning that this approach does not focus on the surface of language, but rather on cognitive linguistic processes such as thinking, decision-making, and problem-solving.

Although the learner has become the primary focus of this approach, Hutchinson and Waters (*ibid.*) argue that it still views the learner as a language user rather than a language learner.

1.3.5 Learning-centered Analysis

Learning-centered analysis emphasizes the importance of understanding the language learning process (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987). Thus, this perspective on ESP differs from study skills analysis, which focuses solely on language application. Learning-centered analysis explores how language acquisition occurs from various perspectives, such as behavioral, cognitive, humanistic, and even neuropsychological. The rationale for considering these diverse perspectives is the achievement of learners' ultimate goals, including the learning process, learners' motivations, and learners' needs (Meador, 2015). Dudley-Evans and St. John (1998, p. 26, as cited in Meador, 2015, p. 25) serve as a relevant example of learning-centered analysis:

Even though students may only need to read textbooks and articles in their field, it may be that oral practice will help them reach that end. Similarly, in reading a passage it may help students understand the text if the teacher reads aloud to them while they follow..., but



the process of following a text read aloud clearly by a native speaker often helps students understand the main ideas.

Therefore, ESP curricula should actively engage learners from the outset to identify their needs and learning styles, enabling them to implement effective strategies to achieve their learning goals.

1.4 The Difference between ESP and English for general purpose (EGP)

ESP is a branch of applied linguistics that aims at satisfying the learner's needs in the teaching process. Widdowson (1981) claims that "If a group of learners 'needs for a language can be accurately specified, then this specification can be used to determine the content of a language program that will meet these needs" (p. 89). What differ ESP from EGP is an awareness of the need rather than its existence. Hutchinson and Waters (1992) argue that the teacher's awareness of why learners need English would have an influence on their decisions about the course content. He also states that there is no difference between the two in theory; however, there is a great deal of difference in practice.

The above presented distinction was more theoretical arguments than practical ones about ESP and EGP. It would be better to remove the theoretical concepts and expend on the roles of ESP and EGP in teaching and learning context for better understanding of the actual relationship.

Lorenzo Fiorito (2005) provides arguments concerning the difference between ESP and EGP instruction as follows:

1. ESP learners are usually adults, who are already familiar with the English language. They are highly motivated and they learn the language in order to communicate professional information and to perform some particular, job-related functions. The age of EGP learners is adulthood or early adulthood and the English language learning is the subject of instruction.
2. In EGP courses, the main focus of instruction is on language structure, grammar and vocabulary. However, in ESP, needs analysis determines what language skills will be needed by learners in certain professional activity. For instance, for training a tourist guide, the ESP courses need to be focused on spoken skills.
3. In ESP instruction, the focus is on the context. In other words, English language is not taught as a subject unrelated to the learners real needs / wishes. However, EGP courses stress language structures and the four skills equally and no importance is given to needs analysis.

4. Integrating the learning context in designing courses helps ESP learners to increase their interest and motivation, which is essential for successful learning. EGP courses acquaint learners with the general language acquisition and the vast majority of them are extremely useful.

From the previous distinction between ESP and EGP, it is noticed that both are different in the nature of the learners, the aims and objectives of the courses and the topics. However, where EGP course stop and ESP course start is sometimes vague either because of the unclear definitions or because of incomplete descriptions. This enquiry also shows that ESP should not be considered as a discrete division of ELT but simply an area including a limited range of topics

1.5 Types of ESP


It is essential to be aware of the categories of ESP in order to gain a comprehensive understanding of its nature and functioning mechanisms. Numerous researchers have conducted multiple studies about the types of ESP. on one hand, the majority of them have divided ESP into two fundamental types: English for Academic Purposes (EAP) and English for Occupational Purposes (EOP) (Hutchinson and Waters, 1987). Conversely, Carter (1983) has categorized ESP into three main types: 1) English as a restricted language, 2) English for Academic and Occupational Purposes (EAOP), and 3) English with specific topics.



Figure 3: Carter’s Classification of ESP Types

1.5.1 English as a Restricted Language :

Mackay and Mountford (1978) as cited in Gatehouse, 2001) provide a clear illustration of the first type indicated by Carter (1983) as follows:



“... the language of international air-traffic control could be regarded as 'special', in the sense that the repertoire required by the controller is strictly limited and can be accurately determined situationally, as might be the linguistic needs of a dining-room waiter or air-hostess. However, such restricted repertoires are not languages, just as a tourist phrase book is not grammar. Knowing a restricted 'language' would not allow the speaker to communicate effectively in novel situation, or in contexts outside the vocational environment ” (pp. 4-5).

The assumption of this type is that students learn the language in a very constrained manner. Thus, learners are required to employ the restricted language for which they have been educated in a given scenario(Boutagra & Boudjemaa , 2024) . As Mackay and Mountford (1978) indicated above, the language of international air-traffic control is an example of "English as a restricted language". Among various other examples, it is worth noting the language used by waiters in a restaurant; they are supposed to speak a limited language with customers.

1.5.2 English for Academic and Occupational Purposes (EAOP)

The second type Carter (1983) mentioned is English for Academic and Occupational Purposes (EAOP). “Tree of ELT” (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987, p.6) describes the classification of ESP in depth where ESP is divided to three branches: 1) English for Science and Technology (EST), 2) English for Business and Economics (EBE), and 3) English for Social Studies (ESS). Furthermore, each of the three divisions is broken into two different types, namely: English for Academic Purposes (EAP) and English for Occupational Purposes (EOP). As mentioned on the tree of ELT, an example of EOP in EST branch is English for Technicians.

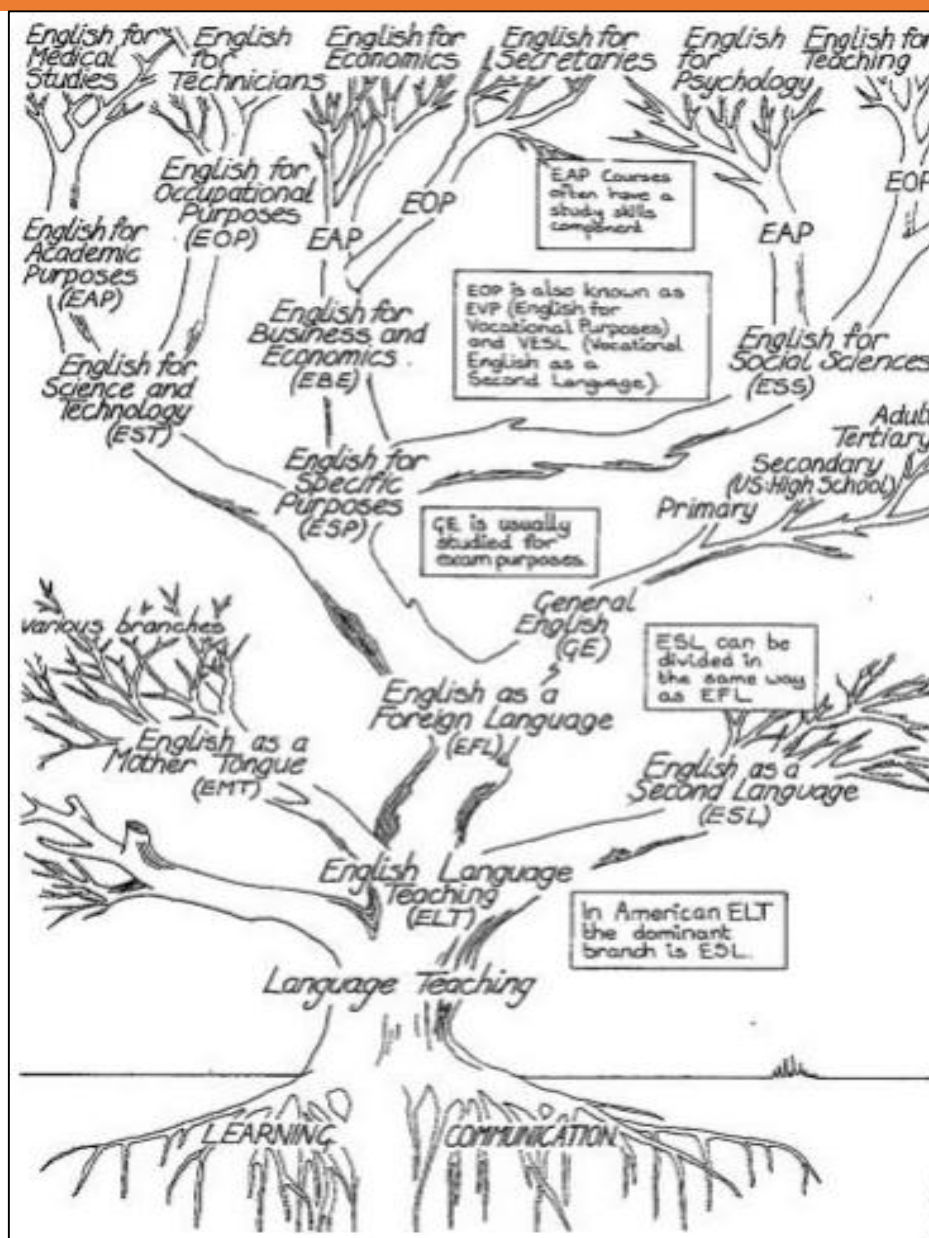


Figure 4: The tree of ELT (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987, p. 17)

Hutchinson and Waters (1987) pointed out that there is no straightforward way to distinguish between (EAP) and (EOP). They explained that people often study and work at the same time, and the language they learn for study is likely to be useful later on the job. “people can work and study simultaneously; it is also likely that in many cases the language learnt for immediate use in a study environment will be used later when the student takes up, or returns to, a job”. Gatehouse (2001) suggests that the lack of a clear difference between the two branches as the reason why Carter grouped EAP and EOP together under the broader category of ESP. For example, Dudley-Evans and St. John (1998, as cited in Chowdhury, 2013) also classify EAP and EOP as types of ESP. In addition, they divide EAP into English as school subject (either separate or combined with other subjects) and English for Occupational Purposes pre-studied, in-studied, and post-studied. Similarly, EOP is divided into pre-experience and post-experience,

the latter often occurring at the same time as employment. Figure 5, as mentioned below, visually summarizes Dudley Evans and St. Johns' classification of ESP. The diagram (taken from: Robinson, 1991: 3-4, as cited in Dudley et al, p. 6) give a clear distinction between EAP and EOP.

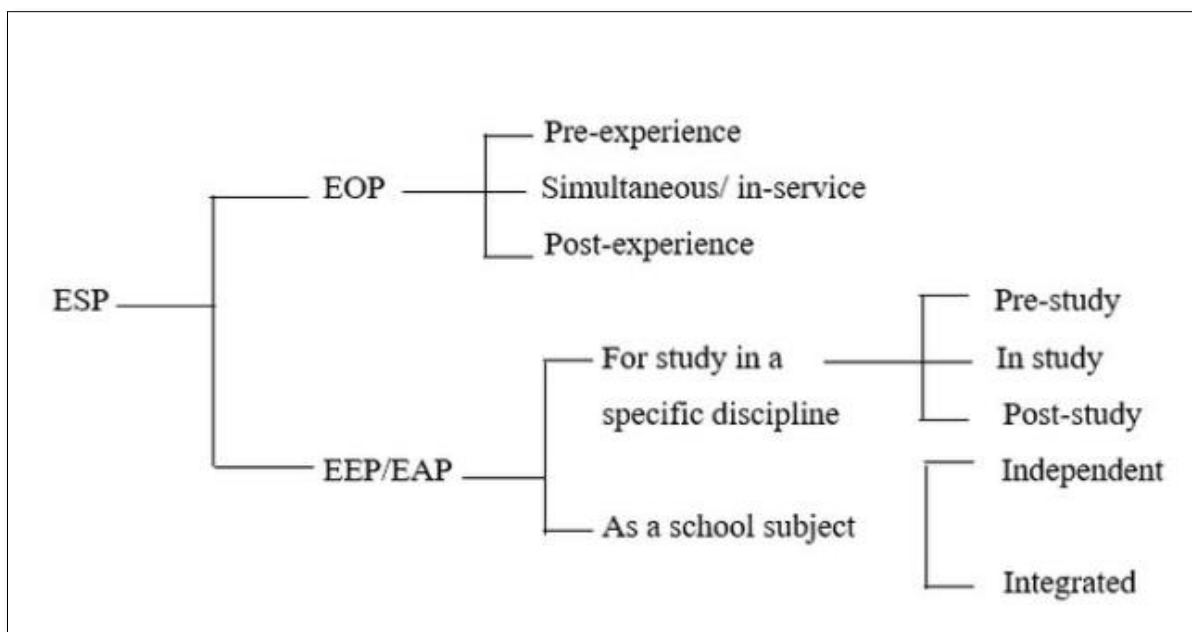


Figure 5: Dudley-Evans & St. John's (1998) Classification of ESP by experience

In addition to the classification based on experience, ESP can be typically categorized based on discipline or professional area as given in figure 6 (John, 1991; Dudley-Evans and St John, 1998). In the below classification, a distinction can be made between the study of , for instance, the language and discourse of science and technology, for example, for academic purposes, which is designed for engineering students, and the study for occupational (vocational) purposes, which is designed for practicing engineers. Similarly, a language course for architecture students may be designed for one purpose: academic, professional, or both purposes.

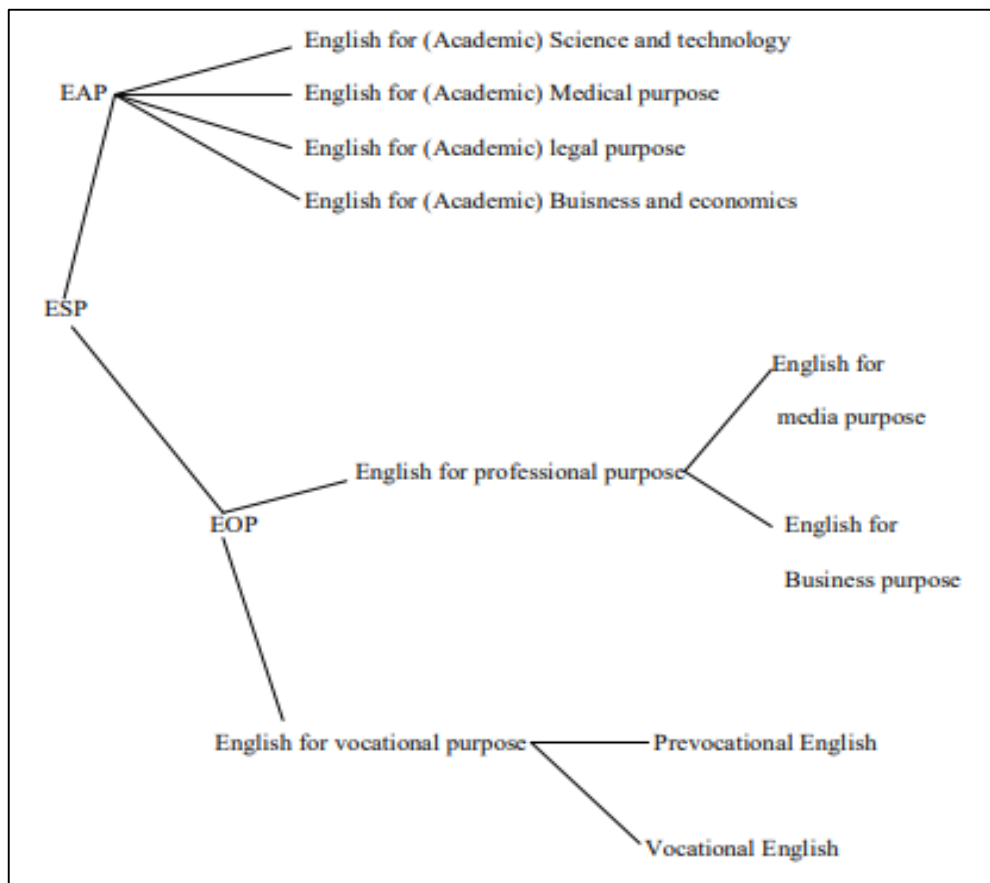



Figure 6:ESP Classification by Profession Area Johns (1991, p.71) and Dudley-Evans and St John (1998, p.6)

1.6 English with specific topics

According to Carter (1983), this type of ESP focuses more on the subject matter itself rather than the purpose.. Furthermore, English with specific topics involves accurately predicting the future needs of language learners (Target Future Needs) before creating any ESP materials. This ensures that learners are well prepared for their future language needs.

1.7 English for Science and Technology (EST)

English for Science and Technology (EST) emerged as an important branch of English for Specific Purposes (ESP) for historical reasons that established English as the primary language for accessing scientific and technological knowledge. With the increasing importance of English in expanding individual understanding in these fields, a new generation of learners



emerged who relied on English to meet their specific needs. As Kennedy and Bolitho (1990, as cited in Joni and Audron, 2001, p. 2001) point out :

“Much of the demand for ESP has come from scientists and technologists who need to learn English for a number of purposes connected with their specialisations. It is natural, therefore, that English for Science and Technology (EST) should be an important aspect of ESP programmes.”


One of the primary functions of EST is to provide science and technology students with the language skills necessary to use English effectively in targeted situations. In this regard, Jameel (2009, p. 2, as cited in Djebbari ,2016) states: “The role of English in EST scenario, professionally in engineering college is not only to impart linguistic skills to the engineering students but also many soft skills that are really required in their professional careers.”. Therefore, EST is an approach to language learning and teaching in which learners' motivations and needs are the basis for selecting the content to be taught.

1.8 English for Architecture

“English for Architecture” refers to the variant of ESP that is specifically tailored for architecture students and professionals. It focuses on the linguistic demands found in architecture: reading architectural and design literature, understanding technical documents, using architectural vocabulary, producing design descriptions and presentations, and communicating design intentions and critiques. This sub-branch is not only about specialized vocabulary but about the genres and discourse practices particular to the architecture field. For example, “A Lexical Description of English for Architecture” by Begoña Soneira (2015) develops a corpus of architectural texts to identify lexis (word formation, loanwords, semantic neology) that is characteristic of architectural discourse

Ouarniki (2012), in *Assessing Students’ Needs in an ESP Context: The Case of Architecture Students (Algeria)*, also emphasizes that architecture students need ESP courses focused not only on general English but on the specific vocabulary, oral presentation skills, and reading/semantics relevant to their specialization.

Poorhadi (2017), in *Designing an ESP Course for Iranian Students of Architecture: A Skill-Based Approach*, carried out a needs analysis among architecture students and found that reading and writing are the most-used skills in both their academic and workplace contexts. Based on that, she designed a course oriented toward those skills.



Ulum (2020), in ESP needs analysis of Turkish learners of English in architecture, surveyed architecture students and faculty and found serious difficulties particularly in speaking and writing, supporting the need for ESP courses customized to architectural students' contexts.


II. Needs Analysis

1.9 A Brief Overview of the Origins

The concept of Needs Analysis (NA) in language teaching Analysis was first established in the 1920s in India , where it was introduced by Michael West , who uses the term to “ cover what learners will be required to do with the foreign language in the target situation and how learners might best master the language during the period of learning” (Rahman, 2015,p.25). Later, in 1961, the term was suggested during the Makerere Conference organized by the Commonwealth Education Committee, which marked the existance of English for Specific Purposes (ESP) (West, 1994, p.1).Unlike the nowadays understanding of Needs Analysis, it was formerly seen as a manner to detect the demands of learners studying general English (GE); the motivations and needs of learners were primarily focused on using the language for the daily basis communication. During the mid-1970s and early 1980s, significant publications in the field of foreign language teaching FLT, such as Munby's (1978) under ESP teaching , paved the way for the growing of Needs Analysis as afundamental component in the course design of

1.10 Definition

Needs Analysis (NA) represents an important stage in the development of ESP or GE courses, it has received great attention from scholars across the field ,they tried to understand the “needs-based philosophy” of language teaching from various theoretical and practical perspectives (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987 as cited in Djebbari, 2016). Within the ESP literature, NA is widely recognized as the cornerstone of course design by many scholars and authors (e.g., Munby, 1978; Hutchinson & Waters, 1987; Robinson, 1991; West, 1994; Dudley-Evans & St. John, 1998). Richterich (1983) claims that Needs Analysis is a process which incorporates gathering information on individuals or groups of individuals who are supposedly expected to learn a language. Moreover, it indicates the necessary proficiency level of learners and the language might be applied. For Brown (1995), For Brown, NA (also known as Needs Assessment) is defined as the activities involved in collecting data that will



serve as the basis for developing a curriculum which meets the learning needs of a particular needs of students.

Richards and Rogers (1986) , highlighted that NA is the process of determining both the general and specific language needs which can possibly be considered in designing the content of language syllabus. Thus, the focus may either be put on on the overall structure of the syllabus or on addressing the particular needs of the learners.

Another practical perspective is offered by Basturkmen (1998, p. 2), defining needs analysis as “the identification of difficulties and standard situations by the observation of participants functioning in target situations in conjunction with interviews and questionnaires.” In this view, the researcher emphasizes the difficulties that face learners in ESP contexts and suggests that they can be explored through questionnaires and interviews. However, she does not mention their needs or the aims they want to reach. Basturkmen also claims that NA is “a process of learning about the present situation of the students in the college rather than an object of investigation. It is a process of refining and redefining procedures and concepts ” (Basturkmen, 1998, p. 12). This indicates that NA should be viewed as a continuous and active process that aims to understand and adapt to learners' current contexts rather than as a static, one-time assessment (Barkane, 2017). In addition, Richterich and Chancerel (1987), as cited in Basturkmen (1998, p. 2), point out that “the aim of needs analysis is not only to identify elements but to establish relative importance, to find out what is indispensable, necessary, or merely desirable.”

John (1991) argues that NA should be the first step in order to develop a valid and relevant course design for all the subsequent activities,. Similarly to John’s view, Brown (1995) defines Needs Analysis as being:

the systematic collection and analysis of all subjective and objective information necessary to define and validate defensible curriculum purposes that satisfy the language learning requirements of students within the context of particular institutions that influence the learning and teaching situation. (p. 36)

To illustrate this multifaceted definition, a needs analysis is a data collection tool used by curriculum designers. This analysis is used to gather subjective and objective information to develop a curriculum that satisfies all stakeholders: teachers, administrators, students, and even

parents. Therefore, a needs analysis is the primary tool for developing a curriculum that meets the needs of learners in a specific discipline.

According to Dudley-Evans and St John (1998) , Needs Analysis is a cyclical process of interdependent overlapping actions. In simple terms. NA is the initial stage in ESP course design . Moreover, it is followed by various tasks depending on the data gathered in the first stage, such as: curriculum design, material selection, methodology, assessment, and evaluation (Brian & Sue, 2013). Dudley-Evans and St John (1998) summarize the cyclical development of Needs Analysis in figure 07 :

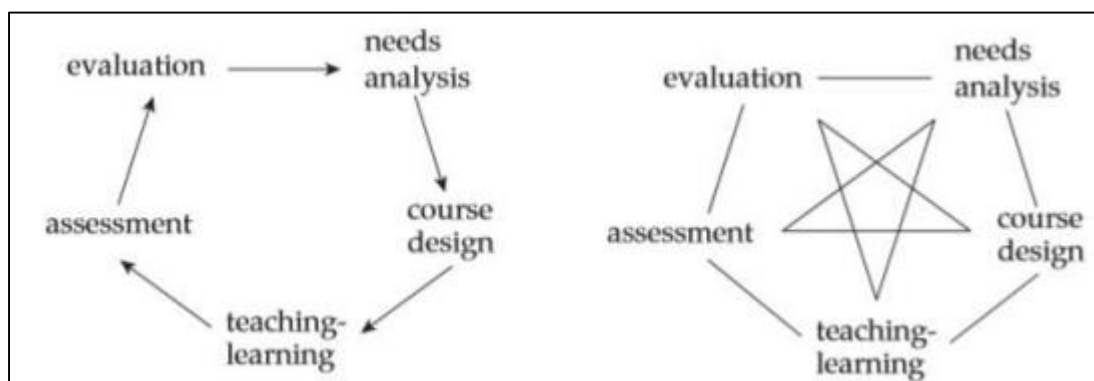


Figure 7: . Linear and Cyclical Process of Needs Analysis (Dudley-Evans & St John, 1998)

From Richards and Schmidt 's (2002) view, Needs Analysis is: "the process of determining the needs for which a learner or group of learners requires a language and organizing the needs according to priorities." pp. 353-354 .More simply, Needs Analysis is the process of gathering data on the learners' ideas of how ideally English should be taught depending on their present and/or future needs. The figure below summarizes the data gathered by NA.

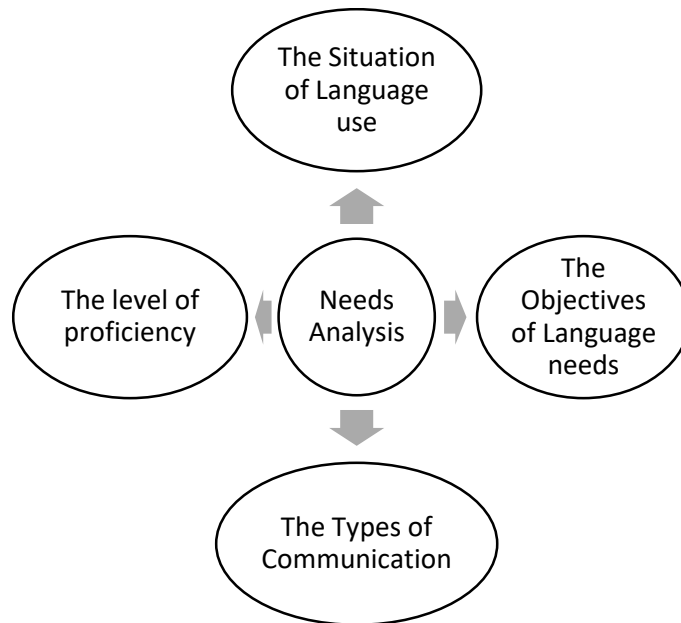


Figure 8: Information investigated by Needs Analysis (Richards & Schmidt, 2002)

Gupta (2007) defines NA as a process in which course designers try to determine how to bridge a learning gap. NA includes identifying essential needs in order to address them. It requires a study of various accumulated data, as detailed below:

- Comparing between the current conditions and the ideal ones.
- Outlining the issues faced by learners.
- Understanding distinct behaviors that contribute to current conditions.
- Assessing how current conditions can be modified to produce desired results.
- Developing solution approaches.
- Providing the necessary support for solution approaches.

Brown (2016) offers a more modern definition of NA. Defining it as a process teachers and course designers use to determine the conditions for creating a course that will satisfy the learning goals of a certain group of students, thereby controlling course design and teaching, (Hyland, 2006; Hamp-Lyons, 2011, as cited in Hinkel, 2011). Furthermore, Brown (2016) proposes a list of synonyms for needs- including wants, desires, necessities, gaps, lacks, motivations, deficiencies, requirements, requests, and essentials.

1.11 Types of Needs

Scholars define the term needs as the requirements of the learners to function or communicate effectively in the target situation. But this does not deny that there is no absolute agreement about the definition and the types of needs (Chambers, 1980). Accordingly, needs are put under many subcategories depending on who is discussing them, including teachers, learners, administrators, employees, parents, and stakeholders. Therefore, different meanings of needs are implied.

Hutchinson and Waters (1987) identify two types of needs as illustrated in the figure below:

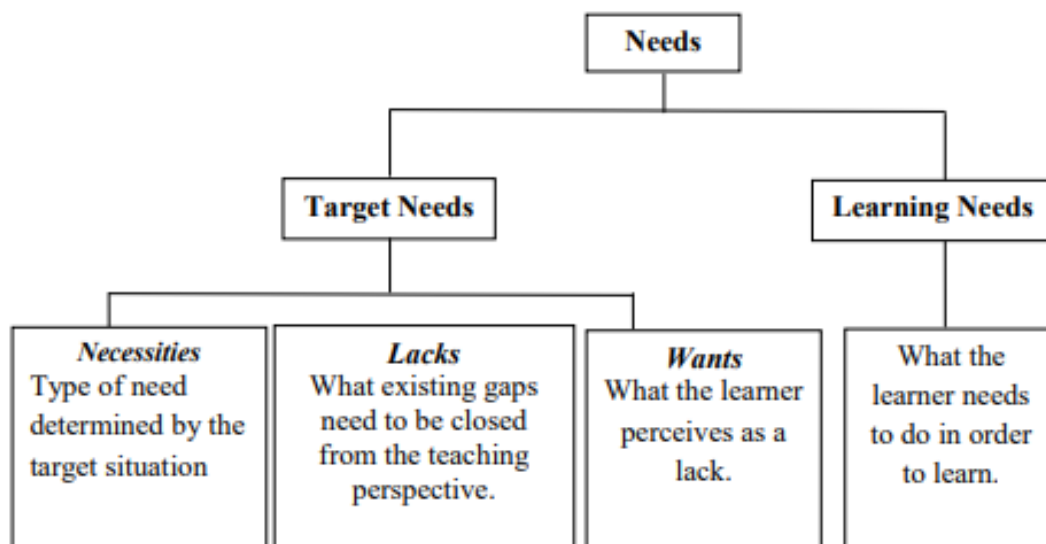


Figure 9: Hutchinson and Water's (1987) Classification of Needs Analysis

In this respect, target needs fall under three (03) main categories: necessities, wants and lacks. Hutchinson and Waters (1987 ,p.55) explain these subdivisions as follows

1.11.1 Target Needs

Hutchinson and Waters (1987) refer to the target needs as “what the learner needs to do in the target situation” (p. 54). In other words, target needs (TN) are the specific language needs that learners have to identify in order to function well in a particular academic or professional setting. In this regard, target needs can be classified into three primary subdivisions : necessities, wants and lacks. Hutchinson and Waters (1987:55) explain these subdivisions as follow :

1.11.2 Necessities

Necessities are the needs of learners in academic and professional contexts or target situations that require proficiency. This involves an analysis of linguistic characteristics of a target situation (Kavaliauskiene and Uzpaline, 2003). Robinson (1991) describes these needs as 'objectives' to reach (Barkane, 2017) .

1.11.3 Lacks

Hutchinson & Waters, 1987 note that , “*We must also know... what the learner knows already, so that we can then decide which of the necessities the learner lacks*” (p. 55). Lacks are learners' deficiencies in the target situation. In other words, they represent the gap between the learner's current level of proficiency and the desired level of proficiency (Barkane, 2017).

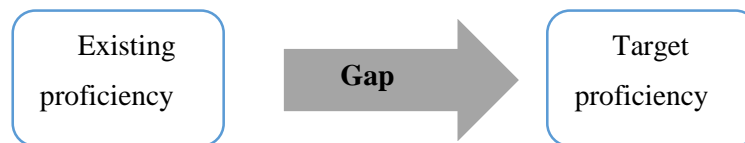


Figure 10: Learner’s needs as lacks

1.11.4 Wants

Hutchinson & Waters, 1987 state, “*We also need to know what the learners themselves want from the course*” (p. 55) . Thus , Students' wants are the specific things they want to learn and accomplish throughout the course. These needs are based on what students think they need, not on what teachers or course developers think.

Table 2 :Examples of necessities, lacks and wants (Hutchinson and Waters,1987)


	Objective (as perceived by course designers)	Subjective (as perceived by learners)
Necessities	The English needed for success in agriculture or veterinary studies	To reluctantly cope with a 'second-be.'
Lacks	Areas of English needed for agriculture or veterinary studies.	Means of doing medical studies.
Wants	To succeed in agricultural or veterinary studies.	To undertake medical studies.

When designing ESP content, practitioners must understand both the learners' desires for learning English and their personal goals. However, learners' desires may not always match the required knowledge and skills in professional or academic contexts. West (1993) suggests adding a fourth type of TN, which is known as 'constraints'.

Benyelles (2001) describes this type as "It involves the non-pedagogic limits that control a course planning process, such as the role of the national policy, and financial restrictions, which the analysts need to be aware of once they start the process of NI"(p. 31). In other words, constraints are things outside the teaching methods that limit or influence the course planning process.

1.11.5 Learning Needs

In the context of ESP, the question of "what the learners need to learn" is not sufficient; however, it is crucial to consider "how they will learn" when developing a course. According to Hutchinson and Waters (1987), as cited in Barkane, (2017), learning needs are "what learners need do in order to learn" (p. 54). Furthermore, Robinson (1991) states that learning needs are "...what the learner needs to do to actually acquire the language." (p. 7). Consequently, learning needs aim to acquire a particular type of information that is relevant to the learning situation. It considers the learner's cultural awareness, English proficiency level, the available materials, and any other pertinent information that may assist the teacher in transmitting the appropriate knowledge to the learners.



In summary, it is important to identify and evaluate students' needs regardless of the type. because “by identifying elements of students' target English situations and using them as the basis of EAP/ ESP instruction, teachers will be able to provide students with the specific language they need to succeed in their courses and future careers” (Johns, 1991,p. 67) . Consequently, the ESP teacher cannot move forward without analysing the students' needs first.

1.12 Approaches to Needs Analysis

The NA literature provides plenty data on various approaches, including the sociolinguistic model (Munby, 1978) and the systemic approach (Richterich & Chansrell, 1977). However, the main NA approaches presented by Jordan (1997) are the focus of the current research.

1.12.1 Target Situation Analysis (TSA)

Target Situation Analysis (TSA) started with Munby's needs analysis model (1978, as cited in Hutchinson & Waters, 1987), which was called the Communication Needs Process (CNP). This model represented a turning point for ESP. According to Hutchinson and Waters (1987), the CNP marked a significant advancement in ESP they claim :

“With the development of the CNP, it seemed as if ESP had come of age. The machinery for identifying the needs of any group of learners had been provided: all the course designers had to do was to operate it .” (p.54).

In his CNP model, MunBy presents a set of steps to understand learners' target needs. It includes nine elements (e.g., participants, setting, target level, purposive domain, interaction, instrumentality, dialect, communicative event, and communicative key). These elements were utilised to assist in investigating and identifying the specific linguistic skills and forms needed by learners in the target situation.

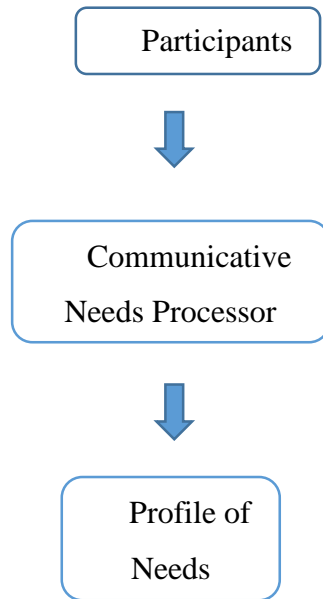


Figure 11: Munbys' Model of Needs Analysis


Hutchinson and Waters (1987,p. 59, as cited in Massaoudi,2017) claim that TSA “involves asking questions about the target situation and the attitudes towards that situation of the various participants in the learning process”. They provide a framework that outlines the data gathered from the analysis of target needs. Songhori (2008, p. 8) approximates Munby’s model to Hutchinson and Waters’ framework as follows:

Table 3 :Hutchinson and Waters’ Framework Vs Munby’s Model (Songhori, 2008, p. 8)

Hutchinson and Waters’ framework	Munby’s model
1. Why is language needed? <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • for study; • for work; • for training; • for a combination of these; • for some other purposes, e.g. status, examination, promotion 	Purposive domain
2. How will the language be used? <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Medium: speaking, writing, reading, etc.; • Channel: e.g. telephone, face to face; • Types of text or discourse: e.g. academic text, lectures, catalogues, etc. 	Instrumentality
3. What will the content areas be? <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Subjects: e.g. medicine, biology, commerce, shipping, etc.; • Level: technician, craftsman, postgraduate, etc. 	Communicative event
4. Where will the language be used? <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Physical setting: e.g. office, lecture theater, hotel, workshop, library; • Human context: alone, meetings, demonstrations, on telephone; • Linguistic context: e.g. in own country, abroad 	Setting (physical and psychological)
5. When will the language be used? <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Concurrently with the ESP course or subsequently; • Frequently, seldom, in small amounts, in large chunks 	

1.12.2 Present Situation Analysis (PST)

The first step in an ESP course is the "present situation analysis", which identifies the learners' existing English language strengths and weaknesses (Robinson, 1991). This includes assessing their prior learning experiences and identifying their current proficiency level to perform related activities and tasks in relation to the target situation (Messaudi & Hamzaoui, 2017), this is what Hutchinson & Waters (1987) refer to as 'lacks'. Furthermore, it evaluates the gap between their current abilities and the desired goals of the course. According to Flowerdew (2013), this analysis can provide important personal information about the



learners, such as their previous learning experiences, cultural information, reasons for attending the course and expectations of it and attitude towards English, and information about the language teaching environment (e.g., resources, administration matters). Thus, present situation analysis captures what learners already know and expect, allowing the ESP needs analyst to identify their current strengths and limitations in relation to the demands of their specific field (Richards, 2015).

1.12.3 Deficiency Analysis (DA)

Analysis was created in a way that considers the learners' current needs, wants, lacks, and the target situation needs. It is, in essence, concerned with bridging the gap between what learners can now do and what they will be expected to do next (Dudley-Evans & St John, 1998). Most systems following this paradigm seem to include, according to West 1997, two fundamental components:

- a. A list of potential target needs expressed in terms of activities.
- b. A scale which is used to prioritize each activity

1.12.4 Learner-Centered Approach

Berwick and Brindley (1989) are the first who introduced this approach; they propose that learner needs can be understood from three different perspectives.

First, there is the perceived needs vs. felt needs perspective. According to Berwick (1989), perceived needs are what experts like teachers or course designers believe learners need—and felt needs, which are based on what learners say about their wants or needs.

The second perspective is product-oriented vs. process-oriented views of learning. A product-oriented approach focuses on what language or skills the learner needs to use in real-life situations. In contrast, the process-oriented approach, as Brindley (1989) clarifies, examines the emotional and mental engagement of learners with the learning process, including their thoughts and emotions during the learning process.

The third distinction is between objective needs and subjective needs. Objective needs are based on measurable, pre-course data such as test scores or specific language gaps. Subjective

needs, on the other hand, are identified during the course and are influenced by personal factors "affective and cognitive factors", including the learner's personality, learning preferences, objectives, and attitude (ibid.).

Table 4: Perspectives of Learner-Centered Approach (Berwick and Brindley,1989)

Dimension	Contrasting Perspectives	Definition
1. Source of Needs	Perceived Needs (expert view) vs. Felt Needs (learner view)	Perceived needs are established by curriculum designers, teachers, or experts, while felt needs are what the learners expressed directly by themselves.
2. Orientation of Analysis	Product-Oriented vs. Process-Oriented	Product-oriented emphasises what learners need to do in a target situation (final goals), whereas process-oriented takes into consideration the cognitive and emotional engagement of learners during learning.
3. Nature of Information	Objective Needs vs. Subjective Needs	Objective needs rely on real, pre-course data (e.g., tests, background information), while subjective needs emerge throughout the course, they reflect learners' evolving feelings, attitudes, and learning styles.

1.12.5 Strategy Analysis

According to Nunan (1988, as cited in Jordan 1997, p. 27), strategy analysis is mainly concerned with "the methodology employed to implement language programs" and focuses on learners' perspectives and ideas regarding learning styles and strategies. Based on Jordan (1997 as cited in, Djebbari,2016), learners often perceive a teacher-centred approach to language instruction as insufficient and unsuitable since it forces them to adopt the teacher's perspective on learning strategies rather than their perspective. So, it's important for teachers to look at the various ways employed by learners and adjust their approaches accordingly.


Hutchinson and Waters' (1987) suggest a framework for analyzing learning needs which consists of several questions, each divided into more detailed questions. The framework proposed by Hutchinson and Waters (1987) for analysis of learning needs is the following:

Table 5: Framework for Analyzing Learning Needs (Hutchinson and

Why are the learners taking the course?	- Compulsory or optional; - Apparent need or not,
Is status, money, promotion involved? What do learners think they will achieve? What is their attitude towards the ESP course? Do they want to improve their English or do they resent the time they have to spend on it? How do the learners learn? What is their learning background? What is their concept of teaching and learning? What methodology will appeal to them? What sorts of techniques are likely to bore / alienate them?	
What resources are available?	- Number and professional competence of teachers; - Attitude of teachers to ESP; - Teachers' knowledge of and attitude to the subject content; - Materials; - Aids; - Opportunities for out-of-class activities.
Who are the learners?	- Age sex, nationality;
What do they know already about English? What subject knowledge do they have? What are their interests? What is their socio-cultural background? What teaching styles are they used to? What is their attitude to English or to the cultures of the English-speaking world?	
Where will the ESP course take place	- Are the surroundings pleasant, dull, noisy, cold etc.?
When will the ESP course take place?	- Time of day; - Every day, once a week; - Full-time, part-time; - Concurrent with need or pre-need.

1.12.6 Means Analysis

Holliday and Cook (1982) introduced means analysis (MA) to adapt language courses to local contexts. Dudley-Evans and St. John (1998) state that MA offers “information about the environment in which the course will be run.” Additionally, MA aims to explore the factors that Munby overlooks regarding the feasibility and practicality of the language course. It is also concerned with the idea that “ what works well in one situation may not work in another”



(Dudley-Evans and St. John, 1998, p. 124). Because of this, Jordan referred to MA as an "environmentally sensitive approach" (1997, p. 28).


Many scholars in the field of ESP think that needs analysis is a combination of TSA and PSA approaches that collect data at the same time. However, other models of needs analysis were introduced in addition to DA, SA, and MA. These models include **Register analysis**, which focuses on vocabulary and grammar; **Discourse analysis**, which examines how sentences fit into discourse; and **Genre analysis**, which focuses on structural regularities that distinguish texts.

Regarding the methods that help the needs analyst to collect the necessary data, Basturkmen (2013,pp.30) outlines that needs analysis can “take a number of forms including questionnaires, interviews, observations of interactions and analysis of language use in the target situation, tests of performance and observations of ESP learners carrying out tasks replicating those in the target situation”. The use of the aforementioned research instruments enables the ESP teacher to gather important information about the learners’ needs, both target and learning needs, students’ perceptions and reasons for learning English, and the learning environment. This data will be analyzed and interpreted in order to design a more focused ESP course.

1.13 Steps in conducting Needs Analysis

According to Gravatt, Richards, and Lewis (1997, as cited in Richards, 2001), the following steps have been applied in studies of the language needs of non native English speakers at New Zealand University (as cited in Barkane, 2017) :

1. Literature survey
2. Analysis of wide range of survey questionnaires
3. Contact with others who had conducted similar surveys
4. Interviews with teachers to determine goals
5. Identification of participating departments
6. Presentation of project proposal to participating departments and identification of

- 
- liaison person in each department
7. Development of a pilot student and staff questionnaire
 8. Review of the questionnaires by colleagues
 9. Piloting of the questionnaires
 10. Selection of staff and student subjects
 11. Developing a schedule for collecting data
 12. Administration of questionnaire
 13. Follow-up interviews with selected participants
 14. Tabulation of responses
 15. Analysis of responses
 16. Writing up of report and recommendations** (p.64)

1.14 Needs Analysis data collection methods

When conducting needs analysis for course design, various methods are commonly used. They aim to analyse the various linguistic features of the language used in specific learning contexts and closely consider all the complexities of the learners' needs. The following thirteen data collection techniques are listed by Jordan (1997) for NA:

1. Advance documentation
2. Language test (at home and/or on entry)
3. Self-assessment
4. Observation in class; monitoring
5. Class progress test and error analysis
6. Surveys, questionnaires
7. Structured interviews
8. Learners' diaries and journals
9. Case study
10. End-of-course test
11. Evaluation feedback
12. Follow-up investigation
13. Previous research

Dudley-Evans and St John (1998, p. 132) identify six data collection techniques, including questionnaires, analysis of natural spoken and written language, focus groups, structured interviews, observation and tests. The data collection procedures are as diverse as advocated by ESP course designers in getting the needed information to exclude the indication of the learners' needs in terms of priorities. Robinson (1991, p. 14) proposes a "participatory needs analysis" approach, where students actively participate in discussions and propose solutions. ESP course designers use the collection of data in order to identify the purposes and goals of the language learning, the necessary skills, and the context of language use. To achieve this, needs analysis must apply these procedures to develop a course that is adapted to the students' aims and needs in language learning.

1.15 Algerian Case Studies in Needs Analysis

The following table presents some Algerian case studies that have investigated ESP needs analysis in various fields. The aim of this overview is mainly to show how researchers have treated the identification of learners' needs, as well as to highlight the common problems in ESP instruction and course design in the Algerian setting.


Table 6: Algerian Case Studies in Needs Analysis

Studies	Overview	Research Gap
An Analysis of ESP Learners' Needs: The Case of Petroleum Engineering Students at Ouargla University(2013)	The study represents a needs analysis for Petroleum and Engineering students at Ouargla University identifying their English language needs, lacks and wants. It highlights the significance of the speaking and listening skills, exposing the weakness of the current ESP course.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Current language course inappropriate for students' needs. • Low proficiency in English among Petroleum Engineering students.
An Analysis of Algerian Manufacturing and Engineering Master's Students' Needs (2017)	A study among the Algerian manufacturing and engineering students includes an analysis of the language needs, students' motivations, and the relevance of course content. It highlights the role of technical vocabulary and communicative skills to develop proficiency for academic and professional purposes.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • No clear criteria to evaluate English course success. • Gap between course objectives and actual teaching practices.

<p>Algerian Aeronautics Professionals' Needs Taxonomy: A Target Situation Needs Analysis(2020)</p>	<p>Needs analysis in the Algerian context specifically entails identification of aeronautics professionals' language needs in light of triangulated data collection methods that focus on learners' necessities, lacks and wants to design an ESP course at Aures Aviation Academy.</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Lack of alignment between identified needs and current ESP course. • Insufficient exploration of learners' actual lacks and wants.
<p>Meeting students' needs: ESP teaching at the department of political sciences(2022)</p>	<p>The study recommends the necessity of conducting a needs analysis in ESP for political science students at the University of Saida. The research further suggests the need to conduct an in-depth analysis of the current curriculum components and re-evaluate teaching practices.</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Current language course inappropriate for students' needs. • Low proficiency in English among Petroleum Engineering students.
<p>Needs Analysis and ESP Course Design: A Case Study of the Institute of Nutrition, Food and Agro-food Technologies (2022)</p>	<p>The study highlights the importance of needs analysis in ESP in the context of the Algerian Institute of Nutrition, Food, and Agro-food Technologies by focusing on students' language difficulties and the need for a specific course design .</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Language problems: text comprehension, technical vocabulary, writing, speaking skills. • Positive attitude towards ESP course, suggestions for improvement is provided.

Studies of ESP needs analysis in Algeria reveal similar outcomes in various contexts. Students typically have low levels of English, the courses are not well tailored to the learners' actual needs, and there is no clear way to measure success. Studies in petroleum engineering (Benghalem, 2013), engineering and manufacturing sciences (Bensalem, 2017), aeronautics (Kerras, 2020), political science (Zerrouki, 2022) and even nutrition and agro-food technologies (Benslimane, 2022) highlight the significance of technical vocabulary and effective communication as well as subject-specific content. At the same time, these studies have limits. Most focus on just one department, which makes the findings difficult to apply elsewhere. Many also rely mainly on questionnaires, with little use of other tools, which reduces the depth and reliability of the results. Although some studies have touched upon the field of architecture, this review has chosen examples from other disciplines to show the broader national problems in ESP course design .

This study tries to fill these gaps by focusing on architecture at the University of Laghouat, a field that has not received much attention. It uses a mixed-methods approach that brings together data from questionnaires, a proficiency test, classroom observation, and a teacher



interview. This combination makes it possible to get both a broad and detailed picture of students' needs, the difficulties they face, and how well current ESP teaching matches those needs. Thus, the research not only expands research on ESP need analysis to a new academic setting but also contributes practical recommendations for developing more relevant and effective courses in Algeria.

1.16 The importance of Needs Analysis

When talking about the importance of needs and needs analysis (NA), we have to highlight its basic role in designing courses, syllabuses, and materials or activities for teaching. A needs analysis is recognised as the first stage of any course design (Richterich and Chancerel, 1987). According to Berwick (1989), needs assessment can provide valuable insights to course planners if students are involved in the process. Thus, course planners can make informed decisions about what to include in the course and how to evaluate it


A needs analysis is an essential procedure, enabling course designers to work based on informed knowledge of learners' actual needs. Knox (1997) states that “curriculum content and learning experiences should be negotiated between learners, teachers, and coordinators at the beginning of a project and renegotiated regularly throughout the project.” A needs assessment may be conducted before the syllabus design begins to choose the right course content . However, it permits necessary revisions to the syllabus and ensures that the curriculum meets the syllabus and the learner objectives. Finally, needs assessment can be utilised to review the development of the syllabus and to figure out possible future directions for both the syllabus and the learners.

IV .Syllabus design

Introduction

Syllabus design is the second step after conducting the needs analysis process, which identifies the main needs (necessities, lacks, and wants) of the learners. Various definitions exist for the concepts of syllabus and syllabus design.

Syllabus design became an important aspect of curriculum development that emerged in the 1960s due to the growing demand to create programmes for learners of English as a second or foreign language, especially those studying English for specific purposes (ESP). In other words, a language curriculum outlines what is taught and how students and teachers engage in the



learning process (Richards, 2001). Furthermore, when it comes to designing ESP courses, it's important to first understand some key concepts that form the foundation of this process.

1.17 Definition

Shaw (1975, as cited in Ghedeir,2020) defines the syllabus as “ the statement of the plan for any part of the curriculum excluding the element of curriculum evaluation itself ”. According to Shaw, a syllabus is the guide to follow in the instruction, however, it does not cover how to measure the progress of the students or evaluate the success of the course. Whereas for Wilkins (1981, pp. 82-88), syllabuses are“specifications of the content of language teaching which have been submitted to some degree of structuring or ordering with the aim of making teaching and learning a more effective process.” Over here, Wilkins emphasises that the material in a syllabus is not just listed together randomly but in order to enable better teaching and learning.

In a similar way, Allen (1979) emphasises that “syllabus refers to that subpart of curriculum which is concerned with a specification of what units will be taught” (cited in Nunan, 1988, p. 6), which means that a syllabus is a specific element of the curriculum that outlines the particular units or topics to be covered. In certain contexts, the term "method" is replaced by the notion of a syllabus, which is considered as an effective instrument that enables teachers collaborating with syllabus designers to align classroom activities with the needs and objectives of learners (Yalden, 1987, p. 14). Yalden asserts that a syllabus effectively translates learners' needs and educational goals into an organised array of tasks and activities that create the primary content of a course. Consequently, when designing a syllabus, it is important to consider the course objectives, the prior knowledge of learners, and the available time to address the material.

Ur (2012, p 185,) defines syllabus as: “a document which presents information on what topics or content are to be covered in a course of study”. Lee (1980) explains that “Syllabus is essentially a statement of what should be taught, year by year- through language , syllabus often also contain points about the method of teaching and the time to be taken”(p.108). Richards and Rodgers (1995, p. 21) clarified that the syllabus is “the first component of the level of design “and the other components deal with the use of the syllabus. In the system by the learners and teachers as they interact with the instructional material”. Ur (2012, p .186) describes some characteristics of syllabus as follows:



- Consists of a comprehensive list of content items or process items.
- Is ordered (easier, more essential items first).
- Has explicit objectives (usually expressed in the introduction).
- Is a public document, and therefore accountable.
- May indicate a time schedule.
- May indicate a preferred methodology or approach.
- May recommend materials.

1.18 Approaches of Syllabus Design

Creating a good syllabus involves more than simply selecting course content or topics; instead, it requires ways to move through methodology and materials that reflect the learner's needs, the educational purpose, and the teaching situation. As a result, several **approaches** have been developed, each with their unique viewpoint on how syllabi should be designed and used.

1.18.1 Product-Oriented Approach


The product-oriented approach is concerned with the end goal of learning what learners are supposed to accomplish by the end of a course. It focuses on specific results and predetermined performance measures. As Richards (2001) points out, this method reflects a very traditional conception of curriculum, where teaching is the outcome of content, and students' understanding is evaluated through standardised tests. The teacher is at the centre of the delivery of content, and students are assessed based on their ability to reproduce it.

1.18.2 Process-Oriented Approach

On the other hand, the process-oriented approach focuses on how learning occurs instead of the final results. It emphasises the learning process, student interactions, and discovery. According to Nunan (1988), this approach encourages learner autonomy, reflection, and collaborative learning. This approach allows the syllabus to become more flexible, evolving in response to learner needs and classroom dynamics.

1.18.3 Competency-Based Approach

Competency-based learning is the identification of specific competencies or **real-world skills** that learners need to achieve. It is often applied in vocational and technical education, where training is based on skills needed for employment. Richards and Rodgers (2001) explain



that this approach focuses on performance-based outcomes, where syllabi are built based on tasks or activities, while performance represents a student's mastery of how to perform a task or activity. This is typically delivered through module-based courses.

1.18.4 Communicative Approach

The communicative approach was actually emerged due to the limitations of grammar-based syllabi. It privileges **communicative competence** over structural accuracy. As Hymes (1972) suggested, the aim is not to know the rules of grammar but to speak the language in contextually appropriate contexts. Breen and Candlin (1980) say that a communicative syllabus focuses on meaning, fluency, interaction, and the tasks of a syllabus that is designed to simulate authentic communication.

1.18.5 Task-Based Language Teaching (TBLT)

TBLT extends the communicative approach by treating tasks as the primary unit of planning and instruction. Long and Crookes (1993) describe tasks as goal-directed activities that purposefully use language. This perspective sees SLA as arising from participation in communicative activities like interviews, problem-solving, and presentations. It is learner-centred, projects-based, and employs authentic use of language.

1.18.6 Backward Design Approach

Backward design, as suggested by Wiggins and McTighe (2005), begins with what is to be learnt, followed by how it will be assessed, and concludes with planning instruction. It will also help to keep all course activities aligned with the final objectives. Richards (2013) notes that, from the backward design, it is easier for teachers to achieve the deliberate design processes by which they say that the syllabus can help learners reach the stated aims.

1.19 Types of Syllabi

Syllabus design, as described by Robinson (1998), is concerned with deciding which classroom activities and parts of the content should be sequenced according to different criteria such as structure, vocabulary, or function. (Long & Crookes, 1992; Long & Robinson, 1998; Wette, 2011) divided syllabi into two different types as illustrated in the table :

Table 7: classification of syllabi (Long & Crookes, 1992)

Product-oriented Syllabi	Process-oriented Syllabi
<ol style="list-style-type: none">1. Structural or Grammatical Syllabus2. Situational Syllabus3. Lexical Syllabus4. Notional-Functional Syllabus5. Topic-based Syllabus	<ol style="list-style-type: none">1. Task-based Syllabus including:<ol style="list-style-type: none">a. Procedural Syllabusb. Skill-based Syllabus2. Content-based Syllabus3. Relational Syllabus4. Communicative Syllabus5. Negotiated Syllabus6. Genre-based Syllabus

1.19.1 Structural or Grammatical Syllabus

The structural or grammatical syllabus, rooted in Realism in philosophy and Positivism in psychology (Faravani & Zeraatpishe, 2018), selects the content based on a set of grammatical structures of the target language, which are sequenced linearly from simple to complex grammatical items (Benbella, 2019). The sentence is the largest unit of analysis, and learning should occur through mastery of grammatical forms. In this syllabus, the learners' task is to combine the pieces of information received through instruction (Knapp et al., 2009). The structural syllabus is well matched with and implemented through the Present, Practice, and Production (PPP) methodology (Faravani & Zeraatpishe, 2016, 2018).

This synthetic approach to syllabus design highlights the priority of accuracy over fluency. Materials are all bound to structural items, and activities are primarily drillbased. Learners are passive recipients of input, and how they practice the language is totally mechanical. The way units are graded and sequenced, as mentioned by Nunan (1988), is based on the following criteria:

1. Simplicity (simple structures are taught first)
2. Regularity (generalizable and productive structures are taught first)
3. Frequency (most common structures are taught first)
4. Contrastive difficulty (structures not found in the L1 are emphasized), and
5. Social and pedagogical utility. (p. 49)

1.19.2 Situational syllabus

Richards (2001) defines the situational syllabus as “One that is organized around the language needed for different situations such as “the airport”, at “a hotel”. A situation is a setting, which particular communicative acts typically occur”; this mean that, it is another type of syllabus in which the language items are organized in terms of different learning situations. Ur (2012,p.188) add that this type “ takes real-life contexts of language use as its basis ; sections are headed by names of situations ore locations “ and Yalden (1983) append situation syllabus to the semantic syllabus in which its “ linguistic underpinning is that language is always used in context , never in isolation “ (p35) otherwise, according to Yalden (1987, p. 35) :

The situation model will comprise units indicating specific situations, such as ‘At the Post Office’, ‘Buying an Airline Ticket’, or ‘The Job Interview’. The topical or thematic syllabus is similar, but generally employs the procedure of grouping modules or lessons around a topic, something like barnacles clinging to the hull.

Usually at the beginning of the course , the topic setting and participants in the situation can be infinitely changed , and the dialogue is the most common way of presenting the situation Sabbah (2018,p.131).


Johnson (2002, pp.179-180 as cited in Sabbah, 2018, p.131) sets three types of situational syllabus differentiated by their informational content and linguistic content:

- **Limbo:** specific setting of the situations of little or no importance. What is important is the particular language focus involved.
- **Concrete:** situations are enacted to specific setting and the language associated with it.
- **Mythical:** situations depend on a fictional cast of characters in a fictional place.

1.19.3 Notional/functional syllabus

At the time that language issues were moved out of the linguistic structure of phonology, morphology and syntax to the communicating needs of semantics, pragmatics, speech act, sociolinguistics and discourse analysis, the notional-functional syllabus as White's (1988) and the functional-notional syllabus referred to in Finocchiaro's (1979). The design of the syllabus has thus changed for the language taught. Abdulkhaleq (2021).

According to this syllabus, the contents of language education are a collection of functions performed when language is being utilised or the concepts used to express language. Function



examples include approval, apology, request; concept examples include size, age, colour, comparison, time, etc. The criteria or considerations for the choice of concepts and functions at a certain stage are the following: needs of the student, learning background and grammatical, structural complexity (Wilkins 1976, pp.58-60; Finnochiaro 1979, p.16; Finnochiaro and Brumfit 1983, pp.14-15; Dobson 1979, p.7).

1.19.4 Process oriented syllabus

Nunan (1988) says, “In the process-oriented syllabus, however, the focus shifts from the outcomes of instruction to the processes through which knowledge and skills might be gained” (p. 40). Breen and Littlejohn (2000) arrange three plains of definition of process-oriented syllabus: “personal (which is mental, as one reads a passage or listens to discourse), interactive (as one interacts with an individual), and procedural (when parties attempt to reach agreement.), Bouadjaja (2021).


1.19.5 Task-based syllabus

Nunan (1988, p. 159) describes a task as “Unit of planning teaching containing language data and an activity or sequence of activities to be carried out by the learner on the data”. He further states that a task is “a piece of classroom work which involves learners in comprehending, manipulating, producing or interacting in the target language with an emphasis on meaning rather than form.” He adds, “ The task should be full and able to stand as a communicative act on its own.”

According to Robinson (1991), the task syllabus is based on a series of activities or tasks organised by cognitive difficulty. He says, "In class, students should focus on their work and only pay attention to language if it's absolutely necessary." The task-based material incorporates both learner-provided content and a sequence of assignments that students complete outside of class. As noted by Sabbah (2018, p. 135), tasks necessitate that students utilise higher-order thinking skills, evaluation, selection, combination, or supplementation in relation to a mix of new and old material.

1.19.6 Skill-based syllabus

Richards (2001) defines a skill-based syllabus as “One that is organized around the different underlying abilities that are involved in using a language for purposes such as reading, writing,



listening or speaking”. The four skills are the most significant things that the learners should know and be able to do to improve their language, because the language skills are the substance of the language instruction. Several ESP pioneers argue that without a focus on the development of language, ESP learners cannot meet their specific needs. Robinson (1991, p. 38) notes, “ Another set of skills which may form the focus for an ESP course are turned professional or communication skills.”

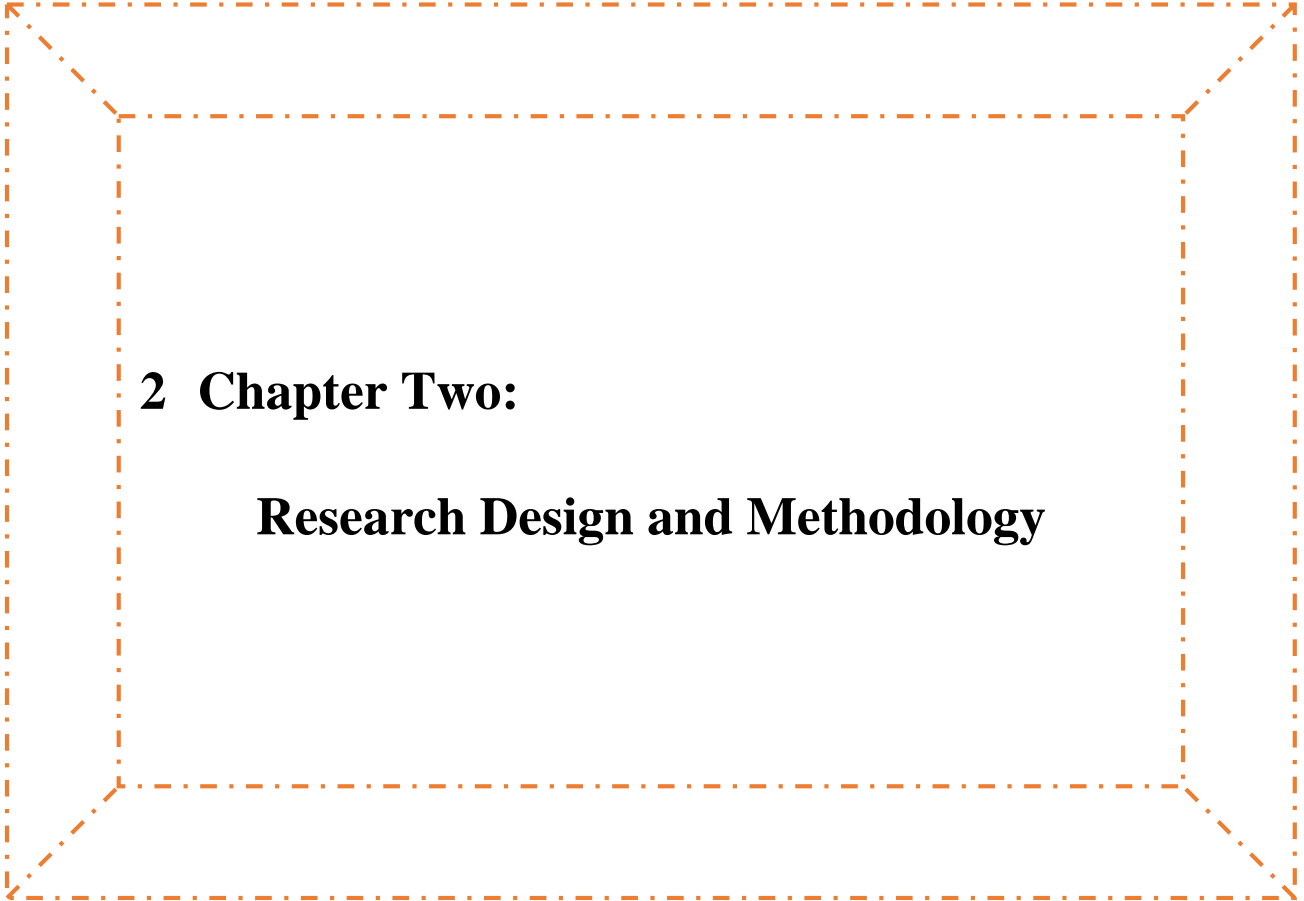
1.19.7 Content syllabus

The contents-based syllabus does not view a language as an entity; however, it perceives language as a means of communication. The classic example of content-syllabus is teaching a foreign language course of physics, where English is used as a medium of instruction; it is often employed for specific purposes (Krahnke, 1987,p.3.). The content syllabus emphasises the topic content of subject matters that are taken, whereas task-based language teaching focuses on communicative and cognitive processes (Irfani, 2014,p.27). The science class illustrates also the use of the content syllabus in the language one wishes or has to learn, but tailored in a linguistic form that allows understanding and comprehension of the science.

Stern et al. (1983 ,as cited in Abdulkhaleq,2021) describe the content syllabus as an experiential syllabus, where students learn the language instead of studying and analysing it. Thus, it may be regarded as a realisation of the analytic approach, as proposed by Wilkins (1976), in which the language learner is subjected to the material without progressing through it.

1.12. Conclusion

This chapter dealt with the theoretical foundations of ESP, Needs Analysis and Syllabus Design. It explained that ESP targets the particular needs of students academically or professionally. The chapter further highlighted the role of needs analysis to reveal such objectives and to create a successful syllabus. In addition, the chapter discussed different syllabus development methods and types and showed how style can be influenced by the structured and relevant nature of meaningful language training. In contrast, the upcoming chapter will focus on the practical aspects of the research, exploring the research methodology and tools used to collect and analyze data relevant to the current study .



2 Chapter Two:

Research Design and Methodology

Introduction

This chapter describes the research methodology employed to investigate the needs of Master 1 architecture students at the University of Laghouat. This includes the context of the research, participants, research design, the data collection instruments, procedures for data collection, ethical considerations.

2.1 Research Setting

The study was conducted at the University of Laghouat, one of the major universities in southern Algeria, which contains several specialities in both sciences and humanities. Within this institution is the Department of Architecture, one of the most active departments, that combines both theoretical and practical education.

2.2 Research Design

The study uses a mixed-methods approach, integrating qualitative and quantitative data to provide a comprehensive understanding of the students' ESP needs. This approach is supported by Creswell (2014), who states that mixed methods research offers the opportunity to understand the research problem from both a numeric trend and an in-depth understanding from the personal perspective of participants' experiences. This research design was adopted to obtain a complete picture of both measurable language proficiency and the language needs of students (quantitative approaches) and the contextual, behavioural and interactional features of classroom practice (qualitative observation). The design also includes a teacher interview to gather pedagogical perspectives and academic institutional elements in course delivery. This comprehensive design guarantees that findings are not only broad but also deep in insight.

2.3 Sample Population

Dörnyei (2007, p. 96) defines sample as “the group of participants whom the researcher actually examines in an empirical investigation”, this sample is actually a small amount within the population that is “the group of people whom the study is about”, which represents the case study of the research.

In this research, a non-probability sampling strategy was applied to include the participants who directly experienced the ESP context under the study. Two groups were included in this study:

- Master 1 architecture students, they composed of 24 students representing the entire population of that level. Moreover, the study selected the architecture students because, a) the courses that are currently given to the architecture students did not probably meet their language needs, and b) the researcher noted that the students were given a demotivating content of their syllabus and had little control over the language. For these reasons, it is important to know about the challenges they faced during the English course and their language needs.
- And One teacher who teach the English course at the department of architecture was interviewed.

A total population sampling method was employed for the student participants, as all Master 1 architecture students were included in the study. This was possible because of the size and accessibility of the group, as a result the researcher was able to obtain data that fully represented the group. The researcher targeted students based on their relevance to research objectives and was not performing a random selection, this sampling strategy is a type of non-probability sampling.

Purposive sampling was applied for the teacher participant. The teacher was chosen because he is the only teacher teaching English to Master 1 architecture students during the same period. This is also a type of non-probability sampling, as it is based on an intentional selection rather than a random one .

2.4 Research Instruments

To explore students' ESP needs effectively, four instruments of data collection were used: a questionnaire, a language proficiency test, a classroom observation, and teacher interview. These instruments were used to answer the following research questions as shown in the table below:

Table 8: Research Questions and Data Collection Tools

Research Question	Data Collection Tools
RQ1. What are the actual and perceived English language needs of Master 1 architecture students at the University of Laghouat?	Questionnaire (perceived needs), Proficiency test (actual needs)
RQ2. What challenges and difficulties do these students face in developing the necessary English language skills for their academic and professional contexts?	Questionnaire, Proficiency test, Classroom observation
RQ3. To what extent do the current ESP courses and teaching practices address these identified needs, from both students' and teachers' perspectives?	Classroom observation, Teacher interview

2.4.1 Questionnaire :

Questionnaires serve as useful tools for the collection of large scale data concerning learners' beliefs, attitudes, and needs. According to Brown (2001), a questionnaire is "any written instrument that presents respondents with a series of questions or statements to which they are to react either by writing out their answers or selecting from among existing answers." Dornyei (2007) also mentions the questionnaire as an appropriate tool in needs analysis because it allows for access to both subjective and objective data.

The questionnaire of this study was composed of :


A. **Close-ended questions:** The respondent is limited to fixed responses that best suits his judgment. The question can be designed as:

- **Dichotomous questions:** they require yes/no answers.
- **Multiple choice questions:** it is a question with various possible answers/options.
- **Rating scales:** It gives a range of options to the respondents, who must pick up one answer since the choices range from one extreme to another.
- **Rank ordering:** it is to ask the respondents to order items by identifying priorities by using the numbers.

B. **Mixed questions:** it includes a close-ended question with a further extension of an open-ended question.

2.4.1.1 Description of the student's questionnaire

The student's questionnaire (see appendix 2) is composed of 20 questions, which were translated into Arabic to ensure better understanding and was divided into four sections. Section One represents general information and includes questions about students' age, gender, field of study and current language proficiency level. Section Two focuses on English language use in academic settings and explores how students use English in their studies, Section Three deals with specific language needs and identifies which skills students find most difficult, such as speaking, writing, or understanding technical vocabulary. Section Four covers English language use in professional settings and examines how students expect to use English in their future careers.



The objective of this questionnaire was to identify students' perceptions about their present English abilities, challenges, and language needs in their academic and professional lives.

2.4.2 Language Proficiency Test

Proficiency tests measure a learner's general language ability, not what was specifically learnt in a course. Hughes (2003) notes that the purpose of a proficiency test is to assess overall language knowledge. This is supported by Alderson, Clapham, and Wall (1995), who add that these kinds of tests are not based on any syllabus but are indicative of learners' functional language capacities.

2.4.2.1 Description of the student's proficiency test

A diagnostic English proficiency test (see appendix 3) was designed for master 1 architecture students in order to evaluate their language skills and to determine the gap between their current proficiency and their target needs in English for academic and professional purposes. The test was designed to align with the main language areas relevant to ESP, including reading comprehension, vocabulary identification, grammar utilisation, and visual based written production.

2.4.3 Classroom Observation

Observation is a useful method to understand classroom phenomena that may not be measured using self-report instruments. Richards and Farrell (2005) define classroom observation as a method of documenting the way teaching and learning occur in their natural environment. Hopkins (2008) emphasizes the importance of observation to understanding teaching practices, patterns of interaction, and student engagement.

2.4.3.1 Description of the classroom observation

The observation took place during the second semester of the academic year (2024/2025) at the Department of Architecture. Two observation sessions of English courses were attended; these sessions targeted Master 1 architecture students. The sessions were taught by a specialised teacher in architecture, who is not trained in English language teaching. The main reason for the observation is to assess how English is taught in reality and how students' particular academic and professional language needs are addressed.

2.4.4 Semi- structured Interview

Cohen, Manion, and Morrison (2018) define a semi-structured interview as a data-gathering method that is flexible and can be guided by some prepared questions, as well as allowing for follow-up questions and clarification during the course of the discussion. The semi-structured interview combines the similarity of structured interviews with the flexibility and depth of unstructured interviews. Dörnyei (2007) refers to semi-structured interviews as potentially of great value to researchers when they are looking for specific information, but also richer elaborate responses which may provide new understandings.

In this study, a tape-recorded semi-structured interview was utilised to accurately capture the teacher's actual responses, and allowed for the careful transcription and analysis . Nunan's(1992, p.153) claims, "It preserves actual language as it is naturalistic with objective record". Also, Gillham (2005) explained that a recorded interview classifies the participant's words, tone and allows the researcher to engage more with the participant during the conversation rather than focusing only on note-taking.


2.4.4.1 Description of the the teachers' interview

The fourth data-gathering tool is the teachers' interview (see appendix 4), which was conducted in April 2025 with the English language teacher of Master 1 architecture students at the University of Laghouat, who is a specialist in architecture and currently teaching English to these students. It was a tape-recording structured interview of 20 open-ended questions to obtain informations on the teacher's academic background, knowledge of ESP principles, his teaching methods, student learning needs, and instructional difficulties. The purpose is to complement the quantitative results of the questionnaire and proficiency test, as well the qualitative observations, with the teacher's professional perspective.

2.5 Data Collection Procedures

Permission to conduct the study, was formally obtained from the Head of the Department of Architecture. Ethical clearance was ensured before beginning the data collection phase.

1. The questionnaire was administered in a practical and motivating way through a printed QR code, which would direct them to the online questionnaire; it was distributed during class sessions with the cooperation of the course instructor. Each QR code was accompanied by a piece of candy. (See Appendix 5)

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2. The proficiency test was taken in person, under supervision, during the class session.
 3. Classroom observations conducted over two sessions enabled an in-depth view of teaching practices.
 4. Because of the teacher's limited availability and schedule, it was possible to arrange the interview at the end of a regular class session. The interview was conducted in the last 20 minutes of the lesson (with the teacher's prior permission). The interview occurred in class in a quiet, uninterrupted setting after the students had left.

2.6 Data Analysis Procedures

Questionnaire Data : The closed-ended questions were coded and then transferred to Microsoft Excel for descriptive statistical analysis. Frequencies and percentages were calculated to determine the common issues and expectations of students based on their responses.

Proficiency Test : Students' test results were calculated and categorized into levels of proficiency (beginner, intermediate, advanced). Findings were compared with self-reported performance in the questionnaire to identify the discrepancy between perceived and actual competencies

Classroom Observation : The observation is structured observation using an already prepared checklist. It is designed in the form of a table on which the observer ticks in the columns depending on whether the items are observed or not observed, in addition to the comments columns where the observer have the ability to add any comments. The researcher plays the role of the passive observer when both students and teacher are engaged in the English language class.

Teacher Interview : The interview was recorded and transcribed, then analysed thematically. Several themes that recurred on teachers' perceptions of students' needs, teaching difficulties, and institutional constraints were identified and discussed in relation to other findings.

For the last step, the findings of all instruments were combined through triangulation to verify the data and generate a more valid and reliable conclusion.

2.6.1 Triangulation

Triangulation is the process of gathering data from several sources or using different methods to achieve credibility and enrich the depth of a research study. As Denzin (1978) notes, “Triangulation adds richness and breadth to the research.” Patton (1999) states that that “triangulation strengthens a study by combining methods. (p. 1192) .

In this study, triangulation was achieved through:


- Questionnaires: to obtain the subjective opinions of students.
- Proficiency tests: to assess real language skills.
- Classroom Observations: to confirm or contradict self-reported data from the dynamics of the classroom.
- Teacher Interview: to provide an expert view on teaching strategies, learners’ needs and institutional limitations.

These approaches complemented each other to ensure depth and breadth of understanding about architecture students' ESP needs.

2.7 Ethical Considerations

Ethical Considerations in selecting research topics involving people, it is essential to follow principles that ensure participants are not jeopardized. This section addresses the ethical issues concerning a study on investigate the English for Specific Purposes (ESP) needs of Master 1 architecture students at the University of Laghouat.

Informed consent as a necessary prerequisite of ethical practice should be derived from all the participants (see appendix 1) . All the participants of the study were given specific details on the nature, procedures involved in the study potential risks and benefits they are likely to encounter before they could partake in the study. All students who participated in the questionnaire and the proficiency have signed written consent to portray their understanding that they are not forced to participate in this study and if they wish, they can pull out without having to face any consequences. The teacher that was interviewed for the research, was provided with previous information about the objectives and nature of the interview. He was informed that the interview is on a voluntary basis, and was requested to consent to his participation in both the interview and its audio recording.



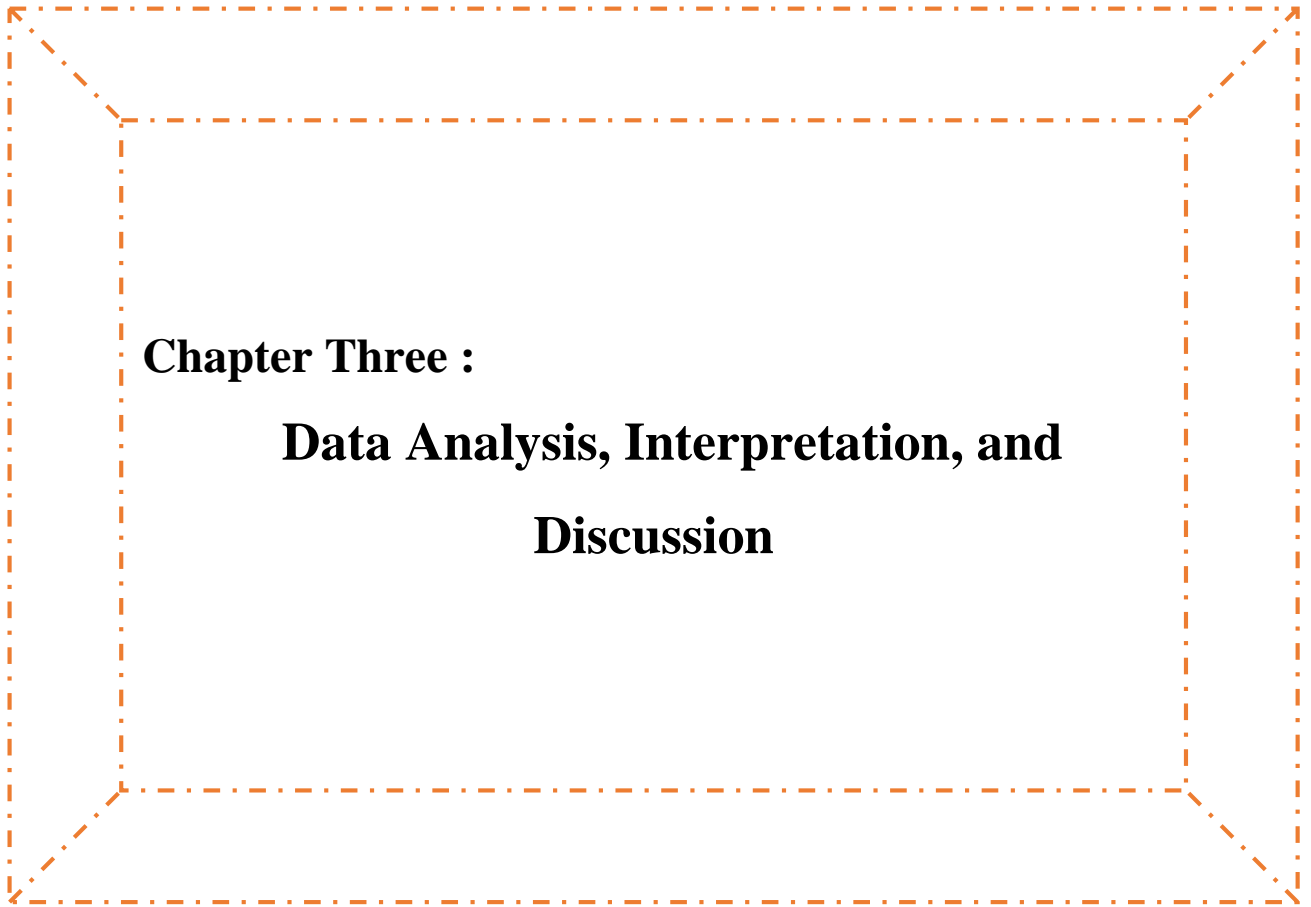
Confidentiality and anonymity were maintained by identifying participants and using numbers instead of names, with data accessible only to the research team.

Transparency and honesty were upheld in all communications, ensuring professional integrity and truthfulness about the research goals, procedures, and consequences, followed by disclosure of the study results.

During the writing process of this dissertation , grammatical errors were checked and corrected with Grammarly. Furthermore , ChatGPT and QuillBot were used to improve the clarity and coherence of the language. While assistance was used to improve language, everything else related to content, ideas, and interpretations is original. Early drafts were revised and amended after receiving feedback to be sure that the final draft truly represents the intended thoughts and contributions.

conclusion

This chapter provided the methodological design for the current mixed-methods research to investigate the ESP needs of Master 1 architecture students at the University of Laghouat. It introduced the research context, discussed the mixed methods approach, and described the sample population that was chosen through purposive sampling. Four data gathering instruments were used: a questionnaire, a proficiency test, a classroom observation, and a semi-structured teacher interview. These tools in combination facilitated the gathering of both quantitative and qualitative data to ensure a fuller understanding of the research problem. All data collection procedures were conducted ethically with informed consent and ensured confidentiality. In the following chapter, the data will be introduced and discussed on the basis of the research questions stated.



Chapter Three :
Data Analysis, Interpretation, and
Discussion

Introduction

The current chapter presents the analysis and interpretation of the results from four different data collection instruments: a student questionnaire, a proficiency test, classroom observation and a teacher interview. These tools were used in order to investigate the ESP needs of Master 1 architecture students at the University of Laghouat. This can help identify learners' linguistic needs, assess their current language proficiency and determine if the ESP instruction they receive is targeted or not.

In order to maintain a coherent and systematic flow, the analysis is divided into two sections: quantitative analysis and qualitative analysis. The quantitative analysis includes the questionnaire, that aims to reveal students' perspectives of their language needs, challenges, and expectations of English within their academic and professional settings. Then, the proficiency test, which provides objective data indicating what the students can actually achieve in terms of basic language skills in the field of architecture. Concerning the qualitative analysis, classroom observation is used to evaluate how ESP course content and teaching practices meet the learners' self-reported needs and their language level. Finally, the teacher interview shares an expert viewpoint on pedagogical methodologies, student needs and institutional constraints.

This structure not only allows a full understanding of the current situation but also enables meaningful triangulation in comparing the students' perceptions, their language abilities and the actual classroom situation, and thus it is possible to draw strong conclusions and recommendations about how to enhance ESP instruction in this context.

I. Quantitative analysis

3.1 Analysis of the Questionnaire

Part 1 : General Information

Question 1 : Gender

The purpose of the first question is that learning styles and language learning strategies may vary across genders, therefore, it is important to understand the distribution of gender. According to Sunderland (2000), gender can influence

classroom participation and confidence, particularly in oral communication tasks. This insight is useful for tailoring ESP activities that are inclusive and equitable.

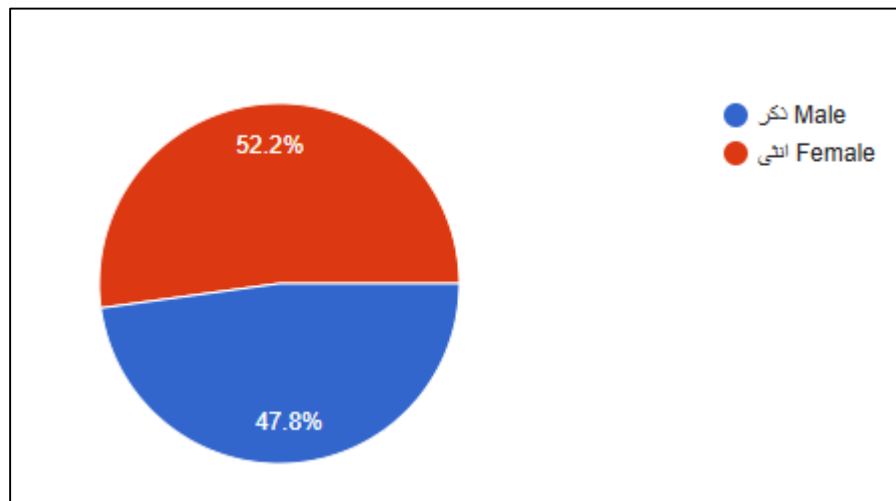


Figure 12: Students' Gender Distinction

As shown in the pie chart above, there is a close balance of gender between the participants, with 52% that represent (12) female and 48% represent (11) male. This equilibrium ensures that the results of the needs analysis are not gender biased and truly represent the views of both male and female architecture students.

Question 2: Students' age

This question has been asked because age plays an important role in second language acquisition (SLA). According to Lightbown and Spada (2006), adult learners often exhibit higher metacognitive awareness and learning autonomy, which are key attributes for success in ESP settings. This helps the development of learner centred and strategy based instruction.

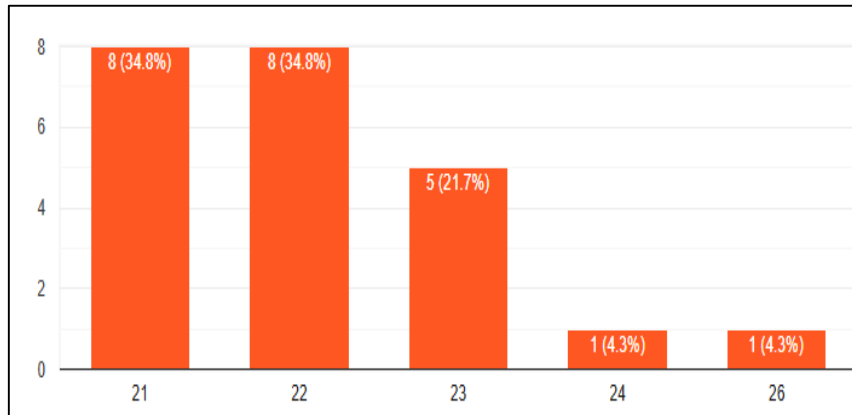


Figure 13: Students' Age Distribution

As illustrated in the bar chart above, the age range reflects that the mean is about 22 years, with a range of 21 to 26 years and most students between 21 and 23 years. The age range of Master 1 architecture students is typical for this academic level, which means that the surveyed group accurately represents the larger student population. At this age, students are generally young adults who have already gained prior experience in learning English throughout their education. However, they may lack proficiency in academic or technical applications.

Question 3 : What is your specialty?

It is essential to make the academic discipline clear in ESP studies. As Dudley-Evans and St John (1998) suggest, ESP courses should be related to the students' professional or academic discipline.

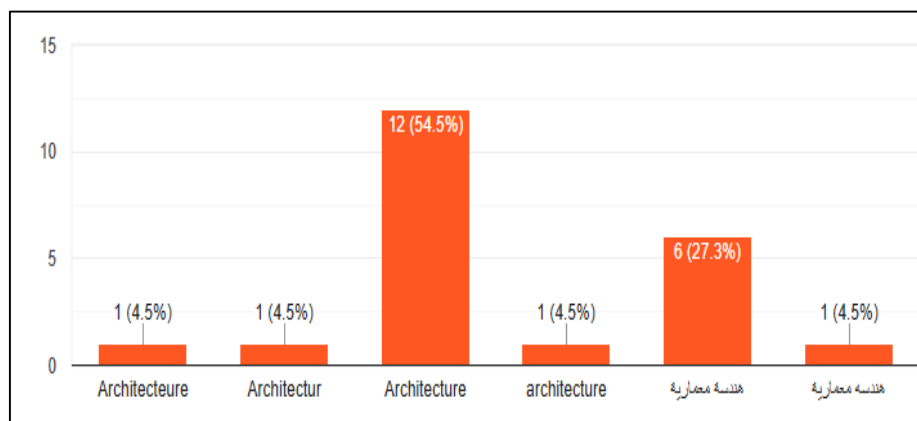


Figure 14: Students' Specialty

As represented in the chart above, all M1 architecture students are specialists in architecture, which means all participants belong to the target population of this study even when spelling differed (e.g., "Architecture," "هندسة معمارية," "Architectur"). The fact that all of these participants are architecture students makes the needs analysis and the design of the course contextually appropriate. It is important to mention that one of the students left the boxes unanswered. It is likely that he/she thought the question was not significant enough to answer or that he/she didn't pay attention.

Question 4 : How do you consider your level in English?

This question was asked to determine the students' perception of their language proficiency. Self-assessment of language proficiency represents a valuable tool in needs analysis. As Hutchinson and Waters (1987) state, "The present situation analysis involves identifying what learners already know." Therefore, this question provides data regarding students' self-perceived proficiency in order to consider the level and strength of the ESP course.

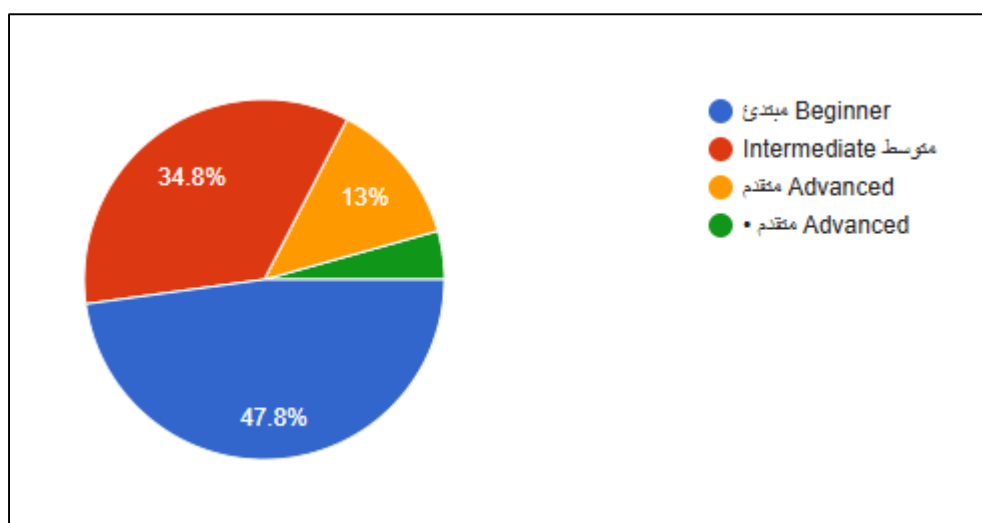


Figure 15: Student's Current level in English

The Figure above demonstrate that 11 students consider their level in English as beginner, with 47.8%, while 8 students view their level as intermediate, representing 34.8%, and 4 students classify themselves as advanced, at 17%. This results suggest that the English proficiency level of the group as a whole is modest and the majority of the learners probably have difficulties with more advanced academic or technical language activities.

Part 3: English Language Use in Academic Settings

Question 5 : Are you satisfied with the way English is taught in your department?

This question was asked to measures students' satisfaction with English language teaching in the department. Satisfaction is crucial to measure since it reflects students' perceptions of the success of educational approaches. According to Dudley-Evans and St John (1998), in ESP contexts, the language instruction must be tailored to the specific purposes and needs of the learners, which makes students' satisfaction a key marker of alignment between the curriculum and their professional or academic goals.

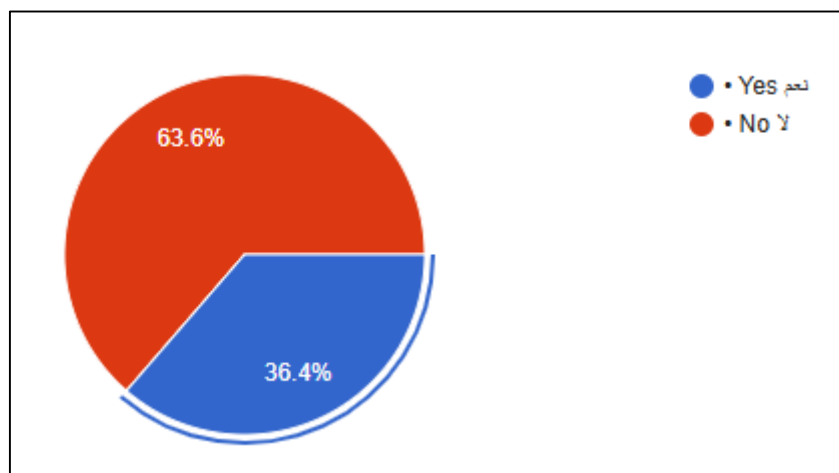


Figure 16: Students' Satisfaction With English Language Teaching

As observed above. 63.6% of the students, which represents 14 students, were dissatisfied with the way English is taught; only 36.4%, which represents 8 students were satisfied. It should be pointed out that 22 out of 23 students answered this question; maybe the respondent was not sure how to answer or felt neutral. However, this result suggests that the teaching methods and curriculum may not address the specific language needs of the students in a sufficient way , especially in their field of study.

Question6 : Do you think the English courses in your department meet your English language needs?

This question aimed to assess students' views on the relevance and adequacy of the English courses that offered in the departments and how they meet their learning needs. According to Hutchinson and Waters (1987), the main objective of ESP is understanding "what the learner needs to do with English." Thus, the essential component of ESP curriculum development is determining if current instruction meets those needs.

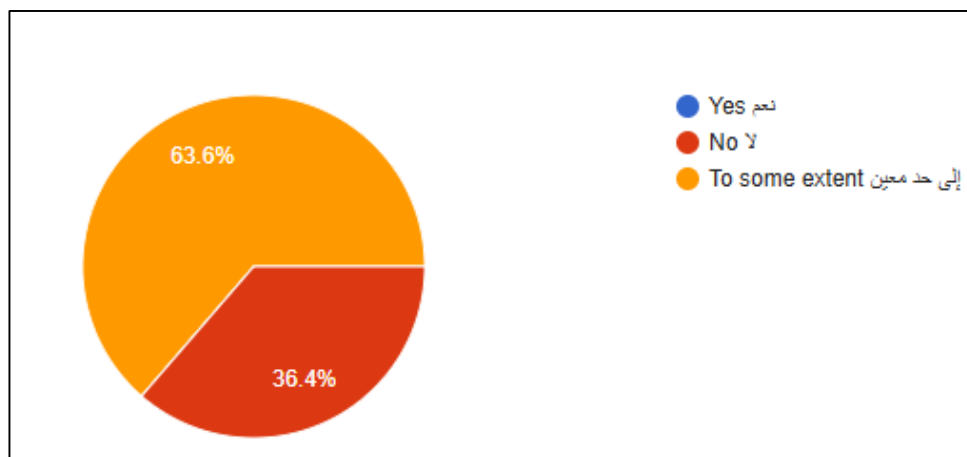


Figure 17: Students' Views On The Relevance Of the English courses

According to the pie chart above, 63.6% (14students) replied as "to some extent" and 36.4%(8 students) replied as No. while 0% (0 students) answered "Yes". these findings show that none of the students perceived the English courses as directly tailored to their language needs. Most students (14) indicated that their needs were addressed slightly, but the minority (8) reported that their needs were not addressed at all.

Question 7 : Do you think one hour and a half session per week is sufficient to learn English?

This question has focused on the students' perception of learning needs related to the period of time which is allotted to the English course. Most needs analysts, in fact, consider that time is an essential factor which must be taken into account when conducting an ESP course. Robinson (1989 p .p 398) expresses this fact: "...ESP courses are normally constrained by a shortage of time." Additionally, according to Richards (2001), adequate classroom time is

essential for meaningful interaction, practice, and feedback especially when instruction targets complex and discipline specific language needs, as in ESP.

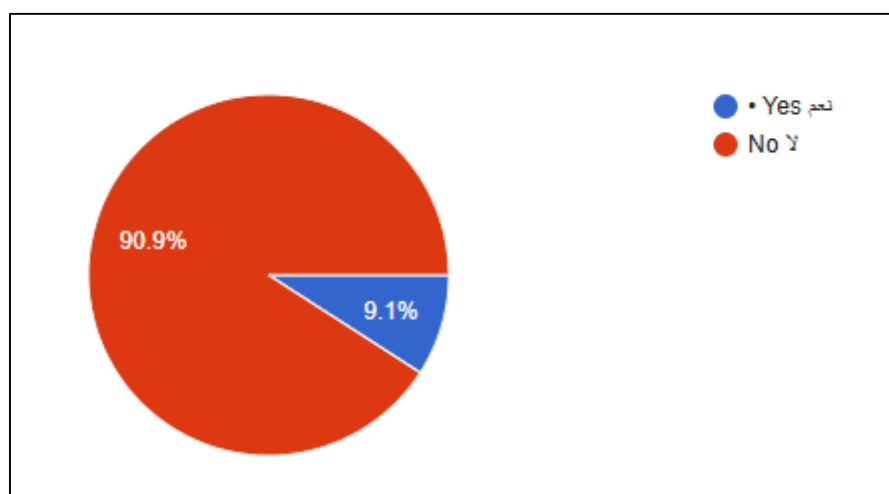


Figure 18: Students' Perception Of The Time Allocated To English Course

The results reveal that 9.1% of the students are actually satisfied with the time allocated to English course; however, 90.9% expressed dissatisfaction. It clearly indicates that a large proportion of the sample think that the number of hours allocated to English learning is not sufficient, if not just reasonable. This suggests that students perceive themselves as limited in developing and using language in meaningful ways.

If no, how many hours per week do you think are sufficient?

This open-ended question follows the previous question and aims to collect qualitative insights into students' preferences for the appropriate amount of time they believe should be allocated to the English course. As highlighted by Graves (2000) and Nation & Macalister (2010), curriculum development in ESP should be need-based and context-sensitive, including logistical factors such as time allocation.

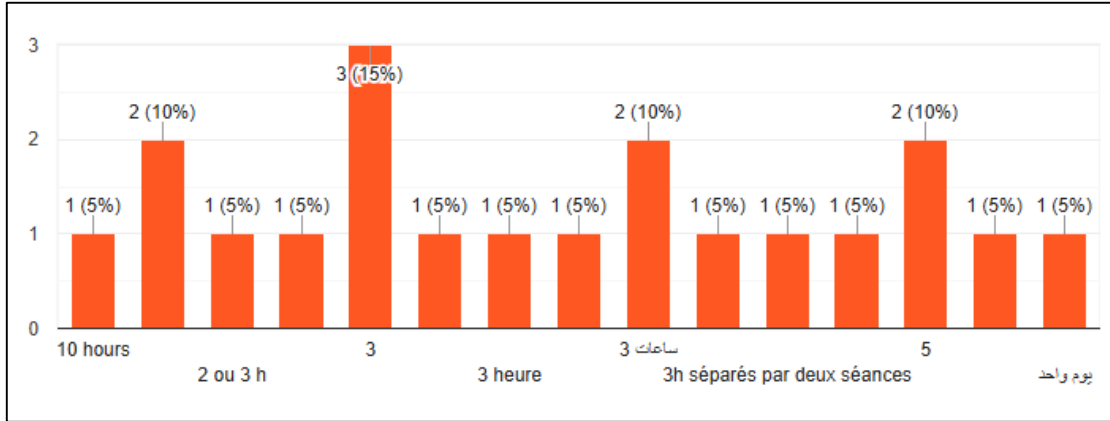


Figure 19: Preferred Duration of English Course Sessions by Students

The above chart represents the number of sessions that are proposed by the 90.9% of students who are not satisfied with the time allocated to the English course. 2 students were unsure about the amount of time that should be allocated to the English course. According to the results, the most common observed response is “3 hours per week”, accounting for 75%. This included some variations, such as “3 h split into two sessions” and “2 or 3 hours”. The majority of the students proposed that 3 hours per week, ideally divided into two sessions, ought to be sufficient for the English course. This indicates that students want more coherent and targeted language teaching.

Question 8 : In what academic activities do you use English? (Select all that are applicable)

This multiple response question was included in the questionnaire to identify the specific academic contexts in which Master 1 architecture students use English. According to Dudley-Evans and St John (1998), ESP course planning must be based on a clear understanding of learners’ target needs, including the communicative tasks they are expected to perform in English. These tasks may focus on reading, writing, listening, and speaking activities in academic and professional settings.

Table 9: Specific Academic Contexts of English Use Among Students

Academic Activity	Number of Responses	Percentage of Respondents (n=23)
Participating in group discussions/presentations	13	56.5%
Reading academic papers and articles	12	52.2%

Writing research papers and reports	11	47.8%
Attending lectures and seminars	9	39.1%
Taking exams and tests	9	39.1%

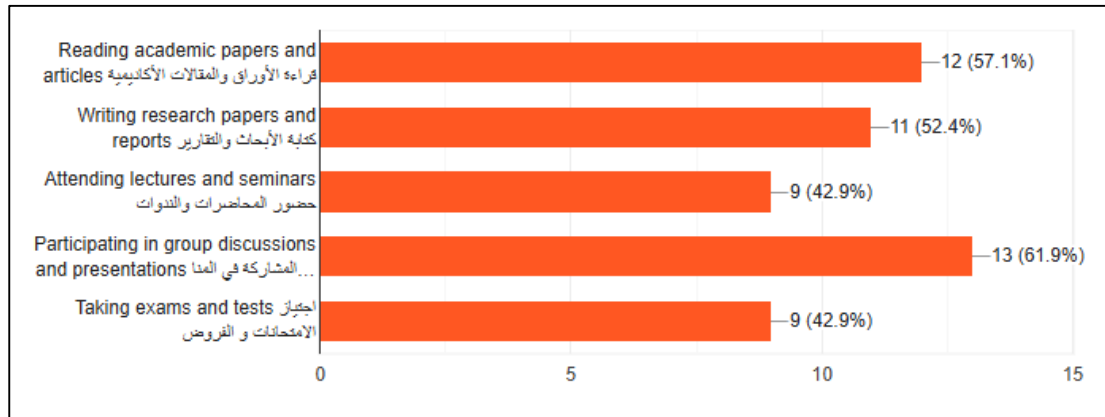


Figure 20 . Students' Academic Contexts of English Use

As shown in the table and in the chart above, the most selected activity is participating in group discussions and presentations, with 13 responses (61.9%), followed by reading academic texts with 12 responses (57.1%) and writing reports with 11 responses (52.4%); only a few students chose attending lectures and taking exams (both 9 responses, 42.9%). The answers indicate that English is used in receptive skills (listening, reading) as well as in productive skills (speaking, writing). Specifically, oral communication tasks, such as presentations and group discussions, are rated as the most important, suggesting a demand for spoken fluency and discipline specific vocabulary. According to the results, the ESP instruction should focus on learning academic speaking skills, reading comprehension of technical topics, and writing genres in their field.

Question 9 :What challenges do you face with academic English? (Select all that are applicable)

This question was added to explore the challenges that students face when using English in the academic settings. These difficulties are an important consideration in ESP curriculum design and help figure out where help is needed most. According to Hutchinson and Waters (1987), understanding learners' deficiencies is as important as understanding their goals since ESP instruction must bridge the gap between the learners' present situation and their target needs.

In addition, Jordan (1997) highlights the need to diagnose students' language difficulties, particularly in EAP, in order to target instruction effectively.

Table10: Student Challenges in Academic English: Statistical Data

Area of Difficulty	Number of Responses	Percentage (%)
Pronunciation and speaking fluency	16	72.7%
Technical vocabulary related to the field	12	54.5%
Listening comprehension	10	45.5%
Grammar and sentence structure	10	45.5%
Reading academic texts	8	36.4%
Academic writing	6	27.3%
Other	3	13.6%

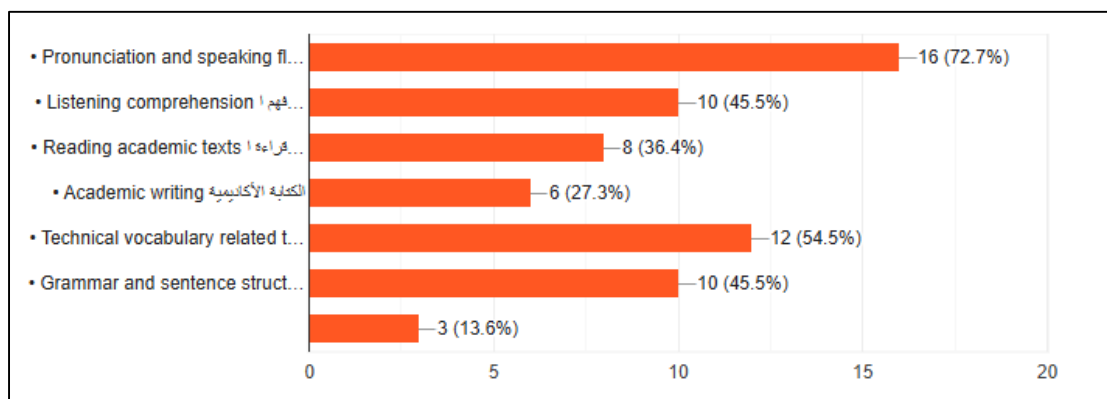


Figure 20: Students' Difficulties with English in Academic Settings

As indicated above, the highest mentioned difficulty is “the pronunciation and speaking fluency” by 16 students (72.7%). The second most common problem is “technical terminology in the field”, cited by 12 students (54.5%). “Listening comprehension and “Grammar and sentence structure” were each selected by 10 students (45.5%); “Reading academic texts” was chosen by 8 students (36.4%). Last, “academic writing” was selected by 6 participants (27.3%). Three students (13.6%) chose “Other”, but no further challenge was mentioned. This could indicate some slight problems not covered between categories or a lack of elaboration from the respondents. The data show that students’ primary challenges lie in productive and interactive skills, particularly speaking and using appropriate vocabulary. This reflects a need for more communicative, rich vocabulary, and skills-integrated instruction within the ESP curriculum.

Question 10 : What Obstacles Do You Face While Learning English?

This question was added in the questionnaire to identify the main barriers that faced students in learning English in their academic setting. It helps find not only gaps in language skills but also problems with the quality of teaching, lack of materials, or not enough chances to practise that can hinder language growth. Hutchinson and Waters (1987) assert that a comprehensive needs analysis must take into account not only the educational needs of learners but also the potential barriers or limitations that may hinder or restrict the learning process as well.

Table 11: . Students' Barriers to English Learning in Academic Settings: Statistical Data

Obstacle	Responses	Percentage (%)
Limited opportunities to practice English	15	68.2%
Lack of materials related to architecture in English	11	50%
Poor teaching quality	7	31.8%
Teachers' choice of lessons	5	22.7%
Other (not specified)	2	9.1%

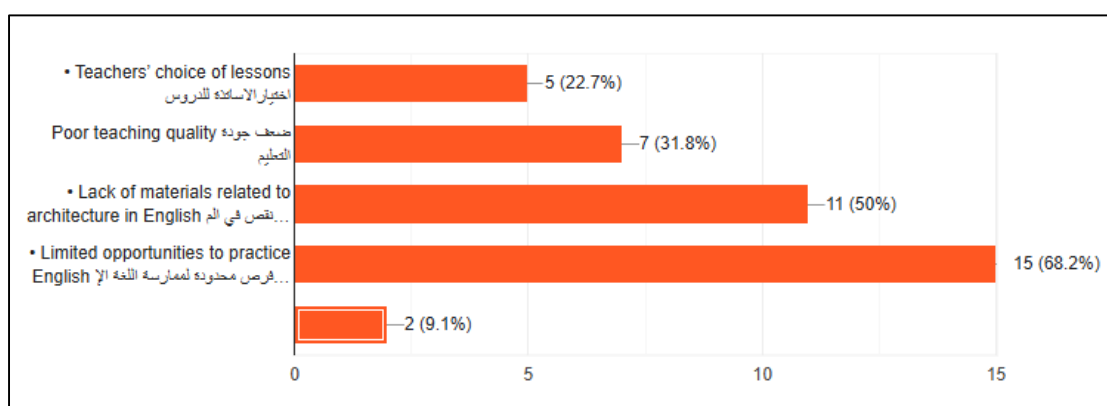


Figure 21: Students' Barriers to English Learning in Academic Settings

According to the data provided above, the most selected obstacle was limited opportunities to practice English, mentioned by 15 students (68.2%). The second most frequently cited difficulty was the lack of materials related to architecture in English, chosen by 11 students (50%). A smaller number of students (7 students, 31.8%) pointed to poor teaching quality as a challenge. Another 5 students (22.7%) reported that teachers' choice of lessons did not match their expectations or learning needs. Only 2 students (9.1%) selected "Other", but no additional explanations were provided. The result indicates that the most common obstacle chosen by

students is the lack of opportunities to practise English, which highlights the need for additional communicative activities. Many students also selected the lack of materials related to architecture in English, expressing the need for using content that is specific to architecture. Problems regarding teaching quality and lesson preparation also indicate that ESP teachers should receive more professional training.

Part 4: Specific Language Needs

Question 11 : Which English language skills do you need to improve the most?

The purpose of this question is to determine the most challenging English language skills faced by students in their English learning experience. By asking students to identify their most difficult skills, this question helps indicate areas where targeted instruction is most necessary. In line with Hutchinson and Waters (1987), one of the key principles of ESP is that course content should be based on learners' needs. It means not only what they will do with the language but also what they cannot do now.

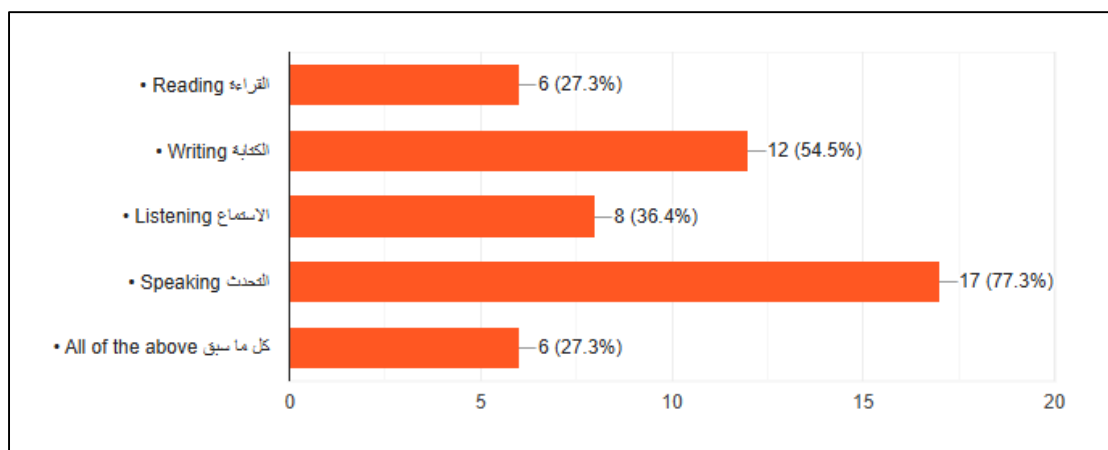


Figure 22: Students' Perceived Language Needs

The chart above summarizes the students' main problems in the English language. According to the result we can deduce that students' main problem is speaking the English language with 17 students (77.3%). Students also find difficulty in writing, mentioned by 12 students (54.5%). Listening was identified as a problem area by 8 students (36.4%). Reading and "All of the above" were both selected by 6 students (27.3%). Speaking is the most difficult skill for most students (77.3%), which reflects the need for more oral practice and interactive classroom activities. Writing is another big challenge for more than half the students (54.5%),

which indicates that these students may require additional help on things like structure, coherence and vocabulary. Listening and reading are somewhat easier but still challenging for some students, while a few have difficulty with all skills. This indicates that students demand an English learning environment of higher supportive quality.

Question 12 : What reading skill do you need to improve?

This question was created to differentiate subskills in reading that students may struggle with. This approach also aligns with the task-based perspective in ESP needs analysis, in which language abilities are analysed in terms of the tasks students will have to do in their academic and professional domains (Dudley-Evans & St John, 1998). Furthermore, Nation (2001) emphasises the role of vocabulary in reading proficiency. He claims that students must know 95% of the words in a text to comprehend it without assistance.

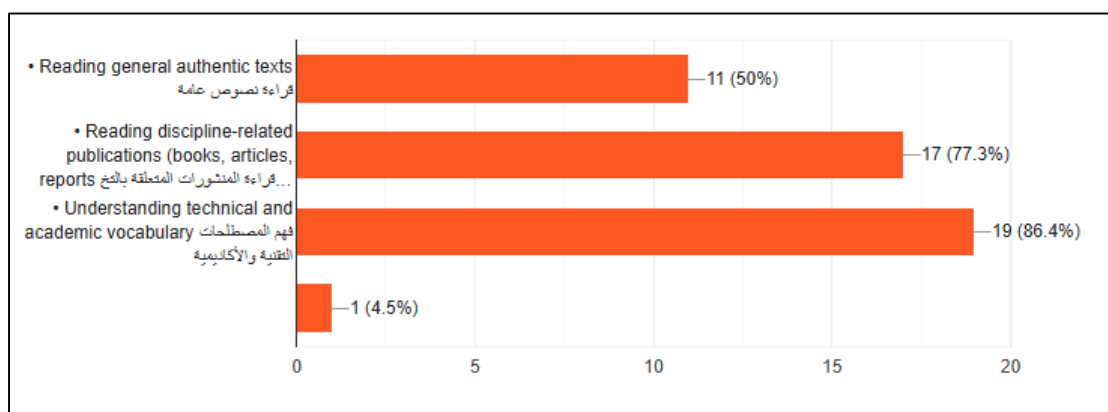


Figure 23: Students' Reading Needs

The chart indicates the students' reading needs. It is observed that the most reported area of difficulty is “understanding technical and academic vocabulary”, with 19 out of 22 students (86.4%) who selected this option. The next most selected skill is “reading discipline-related publications”, such as books, articles, and reports, with 17 students (77.3%) who chose this option. “Reading general authentic texts” was chosen by 11 students (50%). Only 1 student (4.5%) selected “Other”. Students mainly require support with technical vocabulary and reading texts that are relevant to their field, which both are important to academic success in the field of architecture. About half of the students also struggle with general reading fluency in real-world materials, an indication that reading comprehension is a problem not only in academic texts but also in other contexts.

Question 13 :What listening skills do you need to improve?

This question was formulated to discuss the specific listening sub-skills that Master 1 architecture students encounter difficulties with in their academic and everyday contexts. It helps to identify how well existing instruction is preparing students for listening demands in academic and professional architecture settings. Listening in ESP is not just about hearing words; it's about understanding meaning as it is delivered, and most notably in content-discipline discourse.

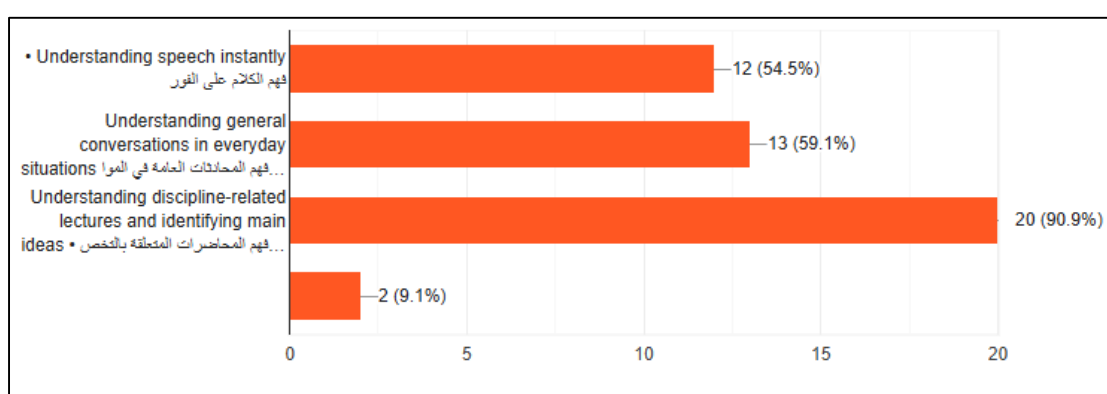


Figure 24: Students' Listening Needs

The answers to the question as shown on the chart indicated that the majority of 20 out of 22 students (90.9%) face difficulties to understand discipline-related lectures and identify main ideas. In addition, 13 students (59.1%) selected that they have difficulty understanding general conversation in daily life, and 12 students (54.8%) reported difficulty in understanding speech instantly. Only two students (9.1%) answered "Other"; no explanation was provided. These responses suggest that students are not just finding difficulty in academic listening but also in everyday communication, indicating a real need for practical skills which focus on listening instruction that is relevant to both classroom and real-world contexts. The results clearly indicate that students face multiple listening challenges, especially in academic contexts like lectures and real-time conversations. These findings highlight the importance of moving beyond traditional instruction to include authentic materials, interactive tasks, and strategy based listening training.

Question 14 : What speaking skill do you need to improve?

This question was included to identify which particular aspects of speaking students find most challenging. especially for architecture students, who are expected to present their ideas clearly, participate in discussions, and explain technical concepts. As Dudley-Evans and St John (1998) point out that ESP should cater to the learners' practical communicative requirements

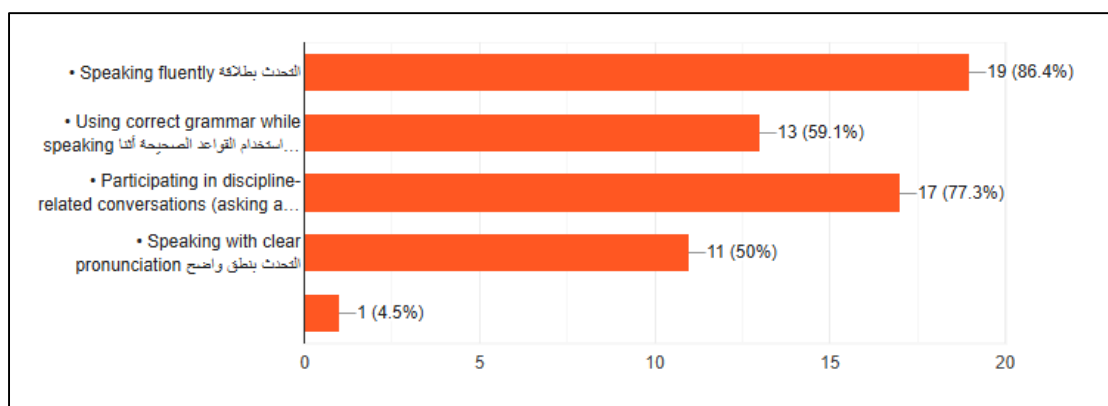


Figure 25: Students' Speaking Needs

The answers given to this question reveal some of the major speaking difficulties. Speaking fluently was the most common problem, with 19 participants (86.4%) selecting it. Second in the list after fluency was the challenge of participating in discipline-related conversations with 17 students (77.3%), including questions and answers during discussions. 13 students (59.1%) reported needing improvement in using correct grammar while speaking, highlighting ongoing concerns with linguistic accuracy. Furthermore, 11 students (50%) expressed difficulty with pronunciation. Finally, one student (4.5%) selected "Other" with no explanation. The results show that architecture students face complex issues with their oral English communication, especially their fluency, which is the most critical aspect. Most students also have difficulty in effectively engaging in discipline-specific conversations and highlighting the need to incorporate ESP-orientated speaking tasks in the curriculum. In addition, problems with spoken grammar and pronunciation emphasize the point that accuracy as well as clarity are also part of communicative competence.

Question 15 : What specific writing skills do you need to improve?

This multiple-choice question was added to know what difficulties about writing the Master 1 architecture students face exactly. In other words, this question was designed to identify specific areas of writing that are considered to be difficult and help teachers tailor writing instruction accordingly. Thus, identifying where students have problems with their writing skills can help demonstrate gaps between current student proficiency and the writing demands of their discipline. According to Hyland (2003), writing in ESP must be viewed as a socially situated activity that involves mastering both linguistic form and discourse conventions specific to a particular discipline.

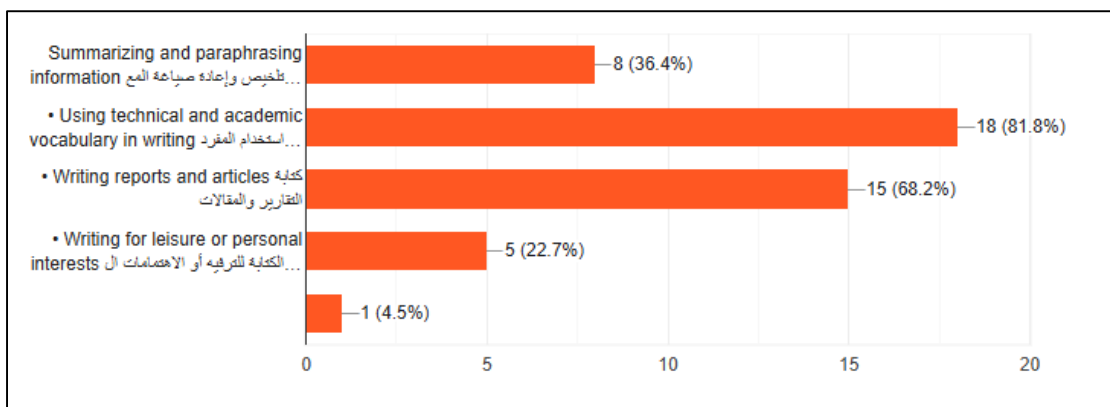


Figure 26: Students' Reading Needs

The responses presented in the chart above show a quite diversity in writing issues among the students. The most common difficulty chosen is using technical and academic vocabulary selected by 18 students (81.8%). The high percentage here indicates the strong awareness of students towards the lexical needs in academic and professional writing in architecture. The second most frequently cited difficulty was writing reports and articles, selected by 15 students (68%). This finding reveals students' difficulty in producing official formal documents, which is an important part of academic work and professional discourse in the field of architecture. Summarising and paraphrasing information was mentioned by 8 students (36.4%), which may reflect a level of moderate difficulty in integrating and rephrasing information. Only 5 (22.7%) of the students chose writing for leisure or personal interests, indicating that most of the students focus on practical academic writing rather than on expressive or creative writing. Finally, 1 student (4.5%) selected "Other" but did not specify a different writing skill.

Question 16 : What type of English language support would be most useful to you?

This multiple-choice question was included to discover students' attitudes toward the type of language support they prefer or need in the process of their ESP learning. This type of question fits the learner-centered philosophy of ESP, which highlights the discovery of students' perceived needs as a foundation for curriculum development (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987). It is also consistent with the principles of target situation analysis, an important component of ESP needs analysis, involving identifying the language needs of learners in their academic and professional settings (Dudley-Evans & St John, 1998).

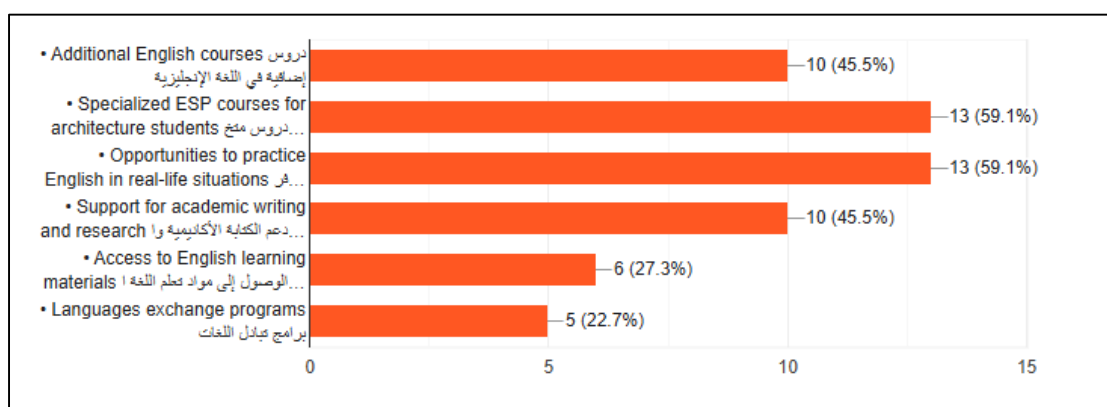


Figure 27: . Students' Attitudes Toward The Type Of Language Support

As illustrated above, the most frequently chosen options, by 13 out of 22 (59.1%) students, were a specialised ESP course for the students of architecture and the opportunity to practise English in real-life situations. Support for academic writing and research and additional English courses were both chosen by 10 students (45.5%). 6 (27.3%) students selected relevant English study materials, while 5 students (22.7%) believe that language exchange programmes were helpful. The results indicate that these architecture students have very particular needs, they expect the English learning to be relevant and immediate, practical, and fully adapted for their chosen field.

Part 5: English Language Use in Professional Settings

Question 17 : How important is English for your future career in architecture?

The question is a close-ended, multiple-choice Likert-type item. This question is proposed to understand how much learning English is important for these kinds of students. As Kennedy and Bolitho (1984, p. 6) point out: "*Much of the demand for ESP has come from scientists and*

technologists who need to learn English for a number of purposes connected with their specialisms."

Understanding learners' attitudes towards English is essential for the needs analysis in ESP because learner motivation and their perception of the importance of language are powerful factors in language learning (Dörnyei, 2001).

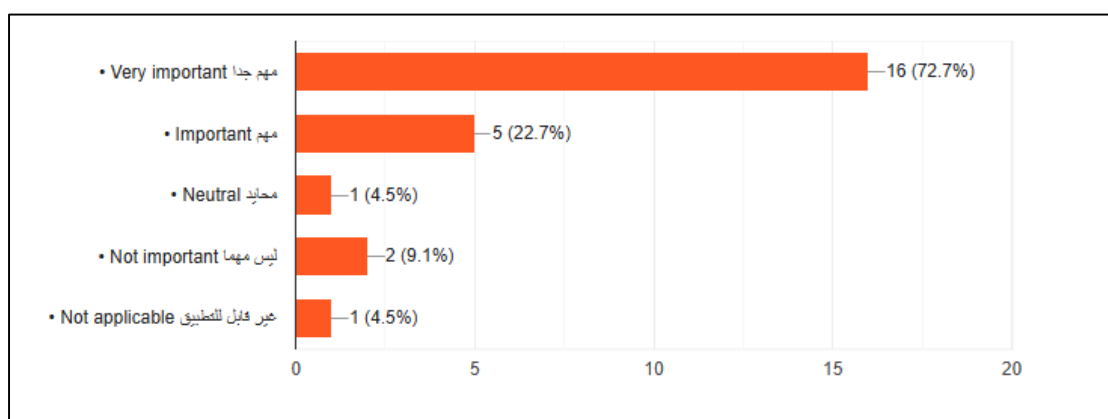


Figure 28: Students' Perception About Importance of English

As shown in the chart above, the most answered response is Very Important, with 16 students (72.7%), and 5 students (22.7%) answered Important. This suggests 95.4% agreement among the surveyed participants that English is an important factor in their career development as architects. There is only 1 student (4.5%) chose Neutral, 2 students (9.1%) chose Not Important, and one (4.5%) selected that it is Not applicable. These data may reflect individual variation, such as plans to work locally or reduced exposure to English in their academic experience. The results clearly demonstrates a strong awareness among students of the importance of English in their future professional lives

Question 18 : Which English language skills are most important for your future career as an architect?

This is a Likert scale, multiple-item question to measure the perceived significance of targeted English language skills in the architectural workplace. Those skills were rated by students on a scale from 1 (not important) to 5 (very important). This type of scaled question serves as an important instrument in needs analysis, a well-established practice in English for Specific Purposes (ESP), and facilitates skill priorities in curriculum development (Hutchinson

& Waters, 1987). As Basturkmen (2010) states, finding out which skills learners believe are most relevant to their future careers can make ESP courses goal-oriented and aligned to the profession.

Tableau 12: Students' Perspectives On English Language Skills Most Important for Architectural Careers

Language Skills	1 not important	2	3	4	5 very important
Technical vocabulary related to architecture and construction			2	4	16
			9.1%	18.2%	72.7%
Reading and understanding complex technical texts		1	4	4	13
		4.5%	18.2%	18.2%	59.1%
Writing clear and concise technical reports		1	6	6	9
		4.5%	27.3%	27.3%	40.9%
Giving effective presentations in English			6	6	10
			27.3%	27.3%	45.5%
Negotiating and collaborating with international partners		1	2	5	13
		4.8%	9.5%	23.8%	61.9%

According to the data provided in the table above, technical vocabulary related to architecture and construction had the highest rating, with 72.7% (16 students) finding it very important. Only 2 students (9.1%) rated it as a 3 less important . Next, Reading and Understanding Complex Technical Texts was also rated highly, with 59.1% (13 students) giving it 5 as the highest score and only one student (4.5%) rating it as unimportant. 9 students, representing 40.9%, regarded Writing Clear and Concise Technical Reports as very important, whereas 27.3% (6 students) gave it a 4. Additionally, 45.5% of the students rated Giving

Effective Presentations in English as very important, while 27.3% (6 students) gave it a moderate importance (4). Negotiating and Collaborating with International Partners received the second highest overall importance, with 61.9% (13 students) rating it as very important.

There is no doubt that students consider technical vocabulary and reading technical texts as the most relevant English skills for future architects. However, writing reports, presenting and negotiating with international partners is also equally important.

Question 19 : Do you plan to pursue your career in an English-speaking country?

This question was included to investigate the students' future long term career goals in the context of international careers. These types of questions are important in ESP needs analysis, especially in the area of present situation analysis (PSA) and target situation analysis (TSA), as noted by Hutchinson & Waters (1987). The purpose of this question is to reflect the increasing globalisation of the architectural profession, which often involves partnerships across countries and languages. According to Basturkmen (2010), one of the most important things in order to design ESP courses that reflect the real world demands is to know the learners' future goals.

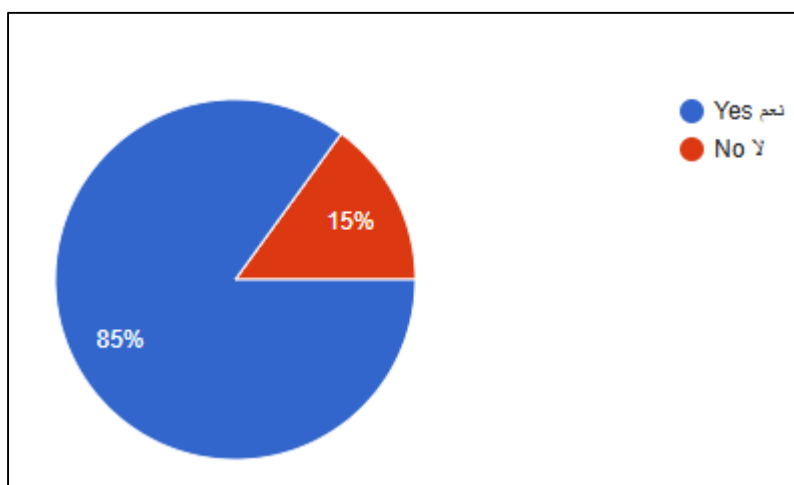


Figure 29: Students' Plans for Career in English-Speaking Countries

The chart above illustrates that out of 23 students, 20 responded to this question. Of the 20 students who responded, 17 (85%) indicated that they plan to pursue their architectural careers in an English-speaking country. However, three students (15%) have not indicated such an intention. The answers clearly indicate that there is a professional interest in international work, where English is the language of communication. According to the 85% of respondents who

expressed this intention, it becomes evident that English language proficiency is not only academically important but also significant for their careers.

Question 20 : Do you expect to use English in your career?

This question is chosen to evaluate students' attitude to the relevance of English in their professional future. From the perspective of ESP, this question falls in the framework of Target Situation Analysis (TSA) as proposed by Hutchinson & Waters (1987), which asks what kind of language learners will need in the fields of their future professional or academic environments.

The significance of this question is that it addresses the issue of the relationship between ESP instruction and learner needs and workplace requirements. Dudley-Evans and St John (1998) argue that gained insight into whether learners expect to use English in their workplace enables instructors to design courses which are functionally and contextually relevant to those situations in which the language is to be used.

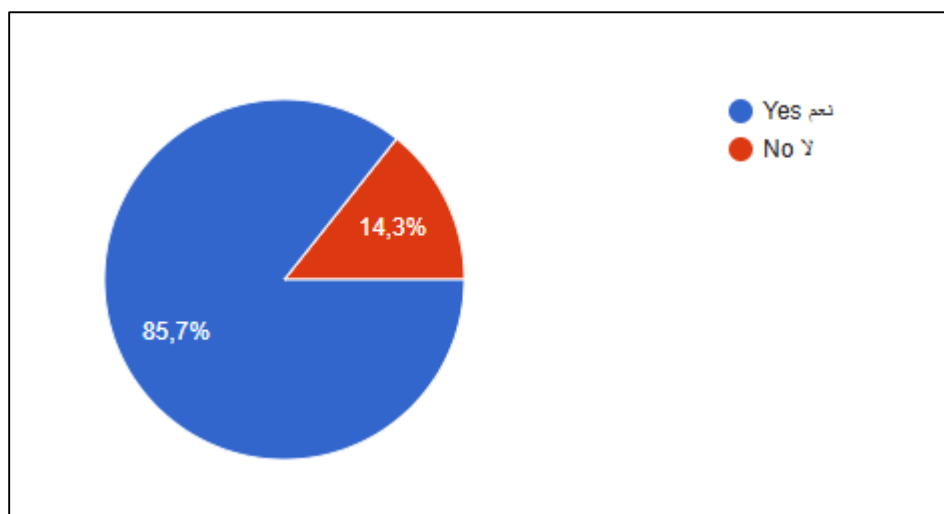


Figure 30: Students' Expectations Of English Use in Future Career

The responses to the question reveal that a significant number of students with 85.7% ,stated that they will use English in their professional careers. On the other hand, three students with 14% ,answered “No”, this indicates that they do not expect to use English in their future jobs. These findings support the fact that the majority of students expect to use English in their

professional activities in the future and encourage the importance of ESP teaching for their academic training.

If yes, in what ways do you expect using English?

This question is a multiple-answer item following the previous yes/no question concerning use of English in students' future careers. This type of question corresponds to the principles of TSA (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987), where it is important to pinpoint the actual contexts and communicative purposes for which English will be needed.

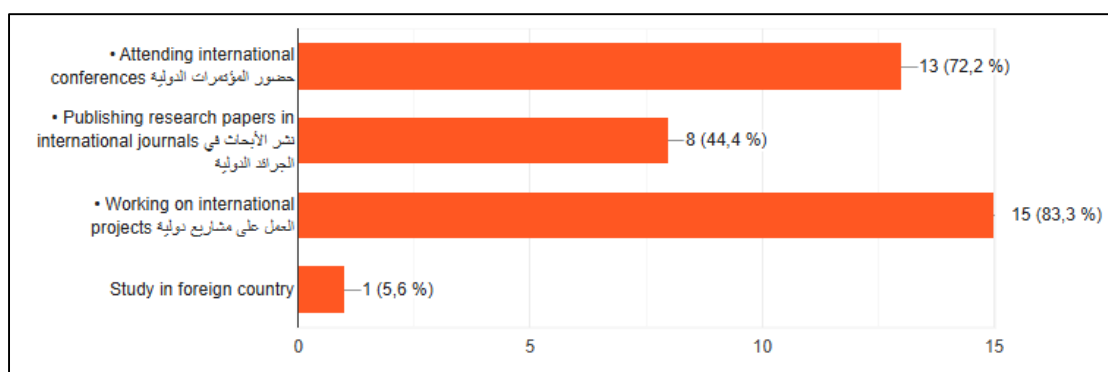


Figure 31: Students' Use Of English In Future Careers

As indicated in the chart above, out of 23 students who responded during the survey, 18 answered this multiple-response item. The responses indicate that 15 students, 83.3%, expect to use English for working on international projects, which was the most selected one. Then, 13 students (72.2%) think they will have to speak English when attending international conferences. Additionally, 8 students (44.4%) chose publishing research papers in international journals, and only one student chose studying in a foreign country. The findings show that the vast majority of the respondents (18 out of 23) believed that English is very important for their future engagement in international architectural experiences. The high percentages for international projects and conferences confirm a clear need for practical, professional English communication skills.

3.1.1 Discussion and Interpretation of Questionnaire Findings

The results of the student questionnaire provided significant information about the English language needs, challenges, and perceptions of Master 1 students at the University of Laghouat.

1. Students' English Level and Confidence

First, the majority of students considered themselves beginners or intermediates in English, indicating low confidence and capabilities in academic or technical language activities. This self evaluation contrasts with their reported use of English in other academic activities such as making presentations, reading of academic texts and writing reports, suggesting a need for supporting students' performance in these tasks.

2. Students' Opinions about The Current ESP Course

Students expressed low satisfaction with the current English class. Noteworthy is that none of the respondents believed that the current course indefinitely met their needs, and 90 felt that the time provided (1.5 hours per week) was insufficient. This dissatisfaction seems to result from the very general instruction, the absence of content in a discipline, and the limited opportunities for practice.

3. Challenges in Productive Skills: Speaking and Writing

The most problematic areas were the productive skills, particularly speaking and writing. Most of the students had problems related to speaking fluency (77.3%) and discipline-specific oral interaction. Students also faced difficulties in writing when employing technical vocabulary (81.8%), as well as in report writing (68%). These results highlight the pressing need to teach a course that combines communicative practice with architectural writing conventions.

4. Difficulties with Technical Vocabulary and Receptive Skills

In addition, students showed significant problems with technical vocabulary in all skills and indicated the necessity for improved reading of discipline related texts and understanding of academic lectures. Listening and reading were rated as slightly difficult, while the analysis revealed that students have more problems, especially in dealing with domain content rather than with general comprehension.

5. Professional goals and Target-Situation Orientation

Finally, the results indicate that the majority of the students (95.4%) believe that English is important for their professional future, and 85% of them planned to work in English-speaking

environments, which demonstrates a high level of career motivation. In addition, the students want to use English for international cooperation, attending a conference, and publishing a paper; therefore, they definitely have a global professional communication orientation. These responses show a clear target-situation orientation, which means that students are focused on how they will use English in their actual future jobs and confirm that they do not view it as a subject to be passed. Therefore, the teaching of ESP is supposed to simulate the authentic communication and facilitate the practical use of English for international interactions, technical cooperation and academic research.

The questionnaire findings emphasize several priority dimensions: the need for enhanced speaking and writing skills, more attention to technical vocabulary and the specialist subject matter, and a shift towards a more functional, context-based approach to ESP which reflects the academic and professional realities of architecture students.

3.2 The Proficiency Test

3.2.1 Analysis of the Proficiency Test

The proficiency test was taken by 24 students, and scores were recorded out of 20 points, divided equally across the four assessed components. The table below presents the average performance for each section:

Tableau 13: Average Scores of Skill Area

Skill Area	Average Score (out of 5)
Reading	4.62
Vocabulary	4.00
Grammar	2.75
Visual Task (Writing)	0.60
Total Score	11.98 / 20

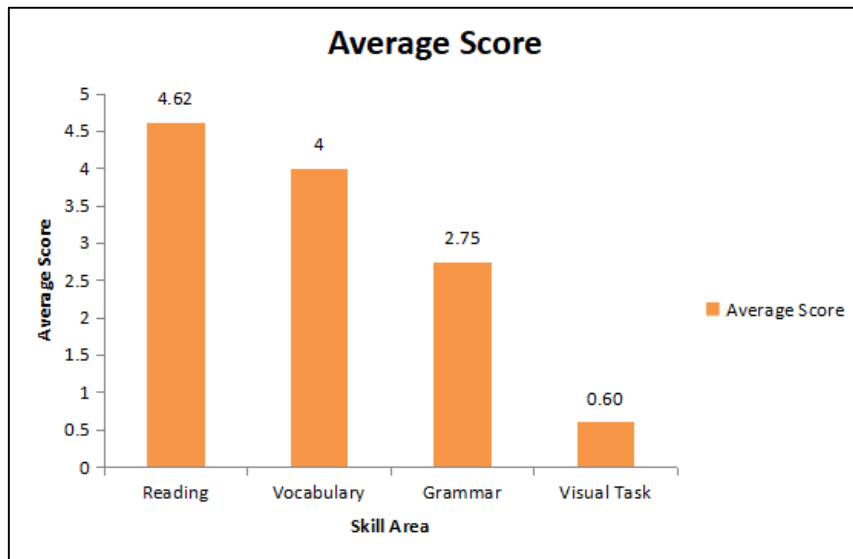


Figure 32: Skills Average Score

As observed in the table and chart above, reading comprehension was rated as the strongest skill, with a mean of 4.62/5, most of the students obtaining full marks. Vocabulary showed moderate proficiency with a mean of 4 /5, although some students had difficulty (min = 0). However, grammar was a weak area with a mean of 2.75/5, indicating that there are difficulties in sentence structure and accuracy. Furthermore, the visual written production was the weakest skill, with a low score of 0.60/5, which may indicate a weakness in productive skills.

▪ **Score Distribution Across Proficiency Levels**

To better understand the distribution of students' overall performance, scores were divided into four proficiency categories. the Table below shows the number of students in each category according to their total score out of 20.

Tableau 14: Score Distribution by Proficiency Level

Proficiency Level	Score Range	Number of Students
Low	0–9	4 students
Intermediate	10–13	10 students
Upper-Intermediate	14–17	4 students
Advanced	18–20	1 student

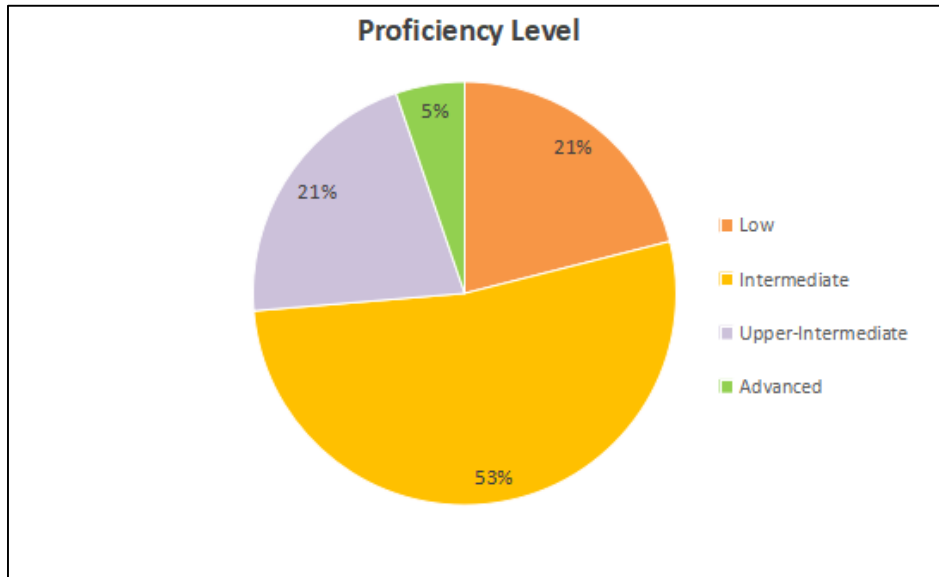


Figure 33: Percentage of Proficiency Level

As shown in the table and the pie chart, the majority of students (10 out of 24) were categorised at the intermediate level with 53%. Only one student achieved an advanced level of proficiency (5%), while four students clearly were in the low proficiency range. This distribution clearly demands the need for targeted language support.

3.2.2 Skill Analysis result

Reading Comprehension

The reading comprehension achieved the highest mean score of 4.63 out of 5, suggesting an evident competence in students' ability in comprehension of English text. However, this result should be taken with caution. As shown in the appendix, the passage employed was short, thematically common and in relatively simple language, focusing on general features of architecture and sustainability. It is possible that these factors, besides the type of questions, which were in a multiple-choice format, might have allowed higher scores.

At the same time, the findings do support Krashen's (1982) Input Hypothesis that learners can benefit from exposure to comprehensible input. Furthermore The students' good performance may be due to frequent access to comprehensible English texts, for example, online content, visual information or simple academic texts that promote basic reading fluency in their field.



- **Vocabulary**

Students' response in the vocabulary section scored 4.00 out of 5, which indicates the good ability of students to recognise architecture-related terms. However, this performance mostly reflects passive vocabulary knowledge, meaning that students definitely can understand what is written, but they may not yet be capable of using terms properly in writing or speaking. As Nation (2001) argues, both receptive and productive vocabulary is necessary for the successful use of language, particularly in ESP. This highlights the importance of the transition from recognition to use of technical vocabulary in meaningful activities.

- **Grammar**

A moderate average score of 2.75 out of 5 was obtained for the grammar section. This indicates that the students had some knowledge of basic grammatical structures, such as tenses, passive voice, and conditionals. Furthermore, such structures are essential for clear technical descriptions in architecture. The findings suggest that students can manage easier structures, but they often struggle to master more complex or formal ones. Therefore, more practice is needed to improve this aspect in the students' language ability.

- **Visual-Based Written Task**

The weakest performance occurred on the written production task, with an average score of only 0.60 out of 5, in which students were asked to describe a picture of a building. Most of the responses were either incomplete or too simple, missing architectural terminology and grammatical structure. This finding illustrates a strong significant weakness in productive language skills, especially in academic and professional writing. Based on Swain's Output Hypothesis (1985), it is argued that learners can find the gaps in their interlanguage if they produce language. The very low performance here indicates students have had limited experience in the writing tasks related to their field, making this a critical area for teaching and learning.

The results of the proficiency test give a clear significance of the language gap between the students' present level of English and the communicative demands they are facing in their academic and professional architectural contexts. This analysis is also important for ESP course design, as emphasised by Hutchinson and Waters (1987), that the core of ESP is to identify learners' particular needs by comparing their current state to the target situation.

II. Qualitative data analysis

3.3 Classroom Observation

A non-participant observation was employed to record teacher-student interactions, classroom activities and to what extent language was used in helping students meet their disciplinary needs.

The checklist consists of three main sections: Teaching ESP Content , Teachers' Practices , Students' Engagement and Participation .The observation items were based on the frameworks offered by Richards and Rodgers (2002) and Hutchinson and Waters (1987).

3.3.1 Analysis of classroom observation

- Teaching ESP Content

Table 15: Teaching of ESP Content

Observation Items	Observed / Not Observed	Comments
The purpose/objectives of the course are clearly stated by the teacher at the beginning of the course.	Not Observed	The teacher distributed handouts but did not provide the session's objectives.
The overview of course content, goals, and learning outcomes are clearly presented and explained by the teacher.	Not Observed	No clear explanation of goals or learning outcomes was provided.
The purpose of the course is related to the Architecture subject matter.	Partially Observed	The materials seemed to address more general English than architecture content. One handout contained architectural terminology but there were no technical or professionalism terms.
The course content meets the students' needs for different proficiency levels in Architecture.	Not Observed	There was no differentiation of content according to student English level; all students received the same text.

The teacher provides activities relevant to Architecture subject matter.	Not Observed	No discipline-specific tasks or vocabulary from architecture was integrated into the activities.
The teacher provides diverse activities in the course content.	Not Observed	Only one activity format (reading aloud and vocabulary explanation) was used in both sessions.
The teacher relates Architecture content to students' prior knowledge, needs, experiences, and real-life application.	Not Observed	There was no reference to students' architecture background or the application of the text in the real world.

The table above indicates the data accumulated that concerns “ Teaching ESP Content ”. It was clear that the ESP course did not align with content directly related to architecture in the two observed sessions. The observation highlighted a number of issues regarding how the ESP content was delivered.

When the session is started, the teacher distributes handouts (see Appendix 6)without stating the potential learning goals. This is in contradiction with Richards and Rodgers's (2002) model that stresses the clearness in the learning objectives and curriculum. Based on the observation, it was clear that the goal of all sessions was the same, and that was to enhance general reading comprehension and increase vocabulary knowledge; there was no explicit attempt to link reading instruction to architectural discourse. while One of the texts provided some informal insights into architectural life but lacked technical or academic details.

▪ **Teachers’ Practices in the ESAP Course**

Table 16:Teachers' Practices in the ESAP Course

Observation Items	Observed / Not Observed	Comments
Teacher clarifies vocabulary and encourages learner inference	Observed	The teacher asked students to guess meanings first and then explained what unfamiliar words meant.
Teacher uses appropriate pedagogical strategies for language learning	Partially Observed	Vocabulary was taught mostly through repetition and translation with limited methods.

Use of English as medium of instruction	Partially Observed	English was used when reading texts, but the vocabulary and concepts were explained in L1 Arabic.
Application of varied language tasks and skills	Not Observed	The activities were limited to reading aloud and memorising the vocabulary.
Use of learner-centered techniques	Partially Observed	There was pair work, in which students read aloud with each other, but there was no interactive speaking or task-based learning.

In the observed sessions, some classroom management strategies were shown by the teacher; he made an effort in helping students understand new terms through questioning and explanation. There was limited variety in the methods, and the teaching approach was mostly teacher-centred. Skills-based or task-based skills were not integrated as suggested by Richards and Rodgers (2002). Furthermore, the use of Arabic for clarification may limit students' exposure to English.

▪ Students' Engagement and Participation

Table 17: Students' Engagement and Participation

Observation Items	Observed / Not Observed	Comment
Students attend the sessions regularly.	Not Observed	Low student attendance with 7 students out of 24 attending the first session, 8 students out of 24 attending the second session.
Students respond to teacher's prompts or questions.	Partially Observed	A few students responded to direct questions, but the others were silent or uncertain in their responses.
Students engage in English communication.	Partially Observed	A small group of students made an effort to speak in English, while others spoke in Arabic to communicate and explain.
Students demonstrate interest or motivation.	Not Observed	The students showed little interest and did not ask questions, except for clarification of the vocabulary.

Use of peer collaboration or student-to-student interaction.	Not Observed	Students had to read aloud together, but there was no real interaction, collaboration, or exchange of ideas.
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The data provided in the table above is an analysis to the “Students’ Engagement and Participation”. The engagement of students during the observed sessions was limited. There was low attendance, with 7 and 8 out of 24 students attending the sessions. It was observed that a few students tried to use English; their participation was generally limited and hesitant. The students used mainly Arabic (L1) to present their ideas, especially when enquiring about vocabulary or asking for clarification of text. This use of their first language may indicate a lack of confidence or a lack of familiarity with English in academic contexts.

Although there were limited responses to questions posed by the teacher, which were mostly short and not developed. Student interaction was also low; peer tasks consisted of reading texts to each other with little discussion. In general, students were passive; there were few chances for them to use their language in meaningful ways in the classroom.

▪ **Summary of ESP Classroom Observation**


The procedures followed in the classroom activities in the sessions do not align with the main principles of ESP teaching, which consider learners’ specific needs and use relevant content and meaningful communication. Instead, the lessons focused on general English and used the same methods repeatedly. Moreover, there was little student interaction. Alongside the use of Arabic (L1) to ask questions and clarify meanings.

This suggests the necessity for the careful planning of ESP courses, including the development of suitable materials and training for teachers, especially in cases where the teacher is a subject specialist, such as an architecture ESP teacher, who lacks previous language teaching experience.

3.3.2 Discussion and Interpretation of classroom observation Findings

The classroom observation aimed to evaluate how the ESP course was taught and how far it met the academic and professional needs of Master 1 architecture students. There were significant findings related to the relevance of content, instructional methods, skill focus and student engagement.

One of the notable findings was the absence of the material that related to architecture in the classroom. The observed sessions mainly focused on general English activities, the most apparent aspect of these being basic reading and vocabulary, without any meaningful



integration of architectural terminology, themes, or tasks. The content delivered was not related to the students' discipline and did not contribute authentic input that would enable them to function in academic or professional architectural contexts. This lack of discipline-specific instruction is in clear contrast to the expectations of ESP, which emphasizes the integration of language and subject matter.

There were no speaking or writing activities observed during the sessions. Students rarely participated orally, and there were no opportunities to develop writing skills through tasks such as describing designs, composing reports, or summarizing texts. This observation confirms the students' self-reported problems with speaking and writing skills and highlights a significant gap in the current method of instruction. The absence of practising productive language skills is particularly negative for a field like architecture, where clear communication of ideas through speaking and writing is essential.

The observed sessions did not start with explicit learning objectives, and there was no indication of a structured lesson plan for developing skills for the students. Thus, the unclear objectives might create confusion among the students about what is required to be achieved and limit the effectiveness of learning

The classroom interaction was teacher centred in a high way; the teacher led most of the lesson, and the students followed passively. Lessons did not have interactive work, student pairs, or task-based material to engage students and encourage communication. The delivery of this mode of instruction provides limited opportunities for learners to practice using language in real life and to gain confidence for professional conversation.

Although the teacher made some effort to let students involved by asking them to explain the meanings of some vocabulary items, the majority of students did not respond. Usually two or three of the students participated, while the rest showed silence. This low level of voluntary responses indicates more than a lack of confidence; it also indicates a lack of communicative experience and that the students had no investment in the learning process.

Learner-centred instruction and communicative task design are fundamental in contemporary ESP methodology. They not only help students learn a new language, but they also boost motivation, engagement, and learner autonomy (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987; Basturkmen, 2010). The observed lack of these practices reveals a significant gap that must be addressed in ESP courses to support the real-world communication demands of architecture students.

3.4 The teachers' interview

The semi structured interview process was conducted with the English teacher of Master 1 architecture students at the University of Laghouat in order to gather specific information such as the teacher's experience, course design and objectives, vocabulary teaching, needs analysis, collaboration with other faculty members, and general opinions about the use of ESP in teaching.

3.4.1 Analysis of the teachers' interview

- **The themes Derived from the Results**

Through the teacher interview, we derived the following themes concerning the implementation and the delivery of the ESP course for the Master 1 architecture students of the University of Laghouat.

1. Teacher's Background and Experience

The teacher has a doctorate in architecture and 17 years of experience as a teacher in the field. But he has only taught English for one year and has no formal training in teaching languages. He said, "No, I do not have any training in teaching English," and he described his confidence level as "just a little." This illustrates a common phenomenon in the Algerian ESP contexts that subject-matter experts are responsible for teaching English without having linguistic or pedagogical preparation.

2. Perceptions of Students' Needs

The teacher understands the significance of English in architecture. He explained that "most of the updated resources are in English," and this is one of the other reasons why students in the questionnaire are highly motivated. He also said reading is the most important skill that students need. This is consistent with the significant focus on reading activities in the classroom; however, it contradicts the students' weaknesses that were identified concerning speaking and writing, as revealed in the questionnaire. This gap indicates there is no correspondence between the skills taught in class and those where students feel they need the most support.

3.ESP Awareness and Course Design

Another finding from the interview was the unfamiliarity with the principles of English for Specific Purposes. When the teacher was asked about his knowledge of ESP, he said, 'I don't know what ESP means,' and confirmed that he never experienced training on ESP. Regarding course design, the teacher indicated that he followed the existing syllabus the "canvas" and did not conduct a needs analysis to develop the course content. Although he expressed that performing an analysis like this is beneficial, saying, "*I think it is very important.*" This difference points to a theory-practice gap, indicating that although the teacher would like to provide differentiated instruction in the classroom, he does not have the tools or support to implement it effectively

4.Teaching Methods and Vocabulary Instruction

Regarding the instructional practices, the teacher reported that he teaches vocabulary mainly using visual means, stating, "I teach vocabulary using visual schemas." Certainly, this approach is useful in helping students grasp an idea at first, but this does not cover the complexities of learning technical vocabulary, which students identified as a major challenge. In addition, the teacher stated that students have some voice in what they learn about through informal classroom discussions, saying, "They have a voice through discussions in the classroom." Nevertheless, this practice is unable to be effective since there is no proper mechanism to collect information about students such as surveys or needs analysis. When asking the teacher about how he prepares lessons, he answered that he considers whether the students would understand the subject; this suggests that the teacher uses a reactive and intuitive approach instead of one focused on structured outcomes or learner-centred planning.

5.Institutional Support and Collaboration

A final and important theme is related to the institutional and structural elements of ESP teaching. The teacher said he works alone and does not collaborate with language specialists, noting, "I do everything by myself because collaboration takes time." Such a lack of collaboration between disciplines contradicts ESP best practices, which recommends that content experts and language professionals work closely together. Nevertheless, the teacher agreed to that suggestion, saying, "Yes, I would recommend that." He also supported the use of needs analysis more formally in planning courses, saying, "Of course, it would be helpful." These responses show a certain openness to improvement, suggesting that the teacher's constraints are more related to structural issues than a lack of motivation for changing .

3.4.2 Discussion and Interpretation of the teachers' interview Findings

The teacher interview provides an additional perspective to support the comprehensive understanding of ESP instruction in the architecture department. Although the responses were brief, several common themes appeared that support the findings from the other research tools.

One of the most noticeable points among all instruments is the gap between what is actually taught in the ESP course and what students's language needs are. The teacher indicates that reading is a priority in the course, which is consistent with the emphasis on reading comprehension in classroom activities. This also explains why reading received the highest score in the proficiency test . However, the questionnaire and the classroom observations both show that speaking and writing skills are less developed, which the teacher did not address directly in his course design. This emphasises the necessity to recalibrate the skills focus within the ESP curriculum in order to better address students communicative demands in academic and professional settings.

Although needs analysis and collaborating with language specialists are not common practices here, the fact that the teacher is open to such improvement indicates a willingness to enhance the course design. This corresponds with the student responses that demand more relevant content and real-world tasks, as well as the researcher's observations of the disengagement of the student in the classroom setting. The teachers' remarks regarding informal student feedback reflect the results of the questionnaire, in which students indicated a desire for more participation in determining course content. However, without a structured way to gather such needs, the instruction and resources are only partially consistent with what the students need.

Additionally, the teacher's low confidence and training in English language teaching are barriers to effective teaching, and they also explain many instructional gaps noticed, such as the absence of student interaction, teacher-centred explanation and no communicative activities during classroom sessions. These instructional choices are not due to ignorance of their significance but more possibly due to the absence of training in appropriate pedagogy and institutional encouragement.

In summary, the teacher interview adds validity to the main findings of the study. It suggests that ESP instruction will be more effective if it is based on systematic needs analysis, interdisciplinary cooperation and an equal emphasis on language skills as part of the students' academic and professional realities.

3.5 Triangulation of Findings

To enhance the credibility of the study and offer a comprehensive insight into the needs of the learners, a data triangulation was performed utilizing the findings from the student questionnaire, classroom observations, proficiency test, and the teacher interview. The summary of the important findings from each instrument is presented in the table below, organized into seven primary categories: productive skills (speaking and writing), vocabulary difficulties, reading proficiency, learner engagement, relevance of the course, needs analysis, and collaboration Between Teachers.


Table 18: Triangulation of Findings

Theme	Questionnaire	Classroom Observation	Proficiency Test	Teacher Interview
Speaking and Writing Difficulties	- Speaking (77.3%) and writing (54.5%) were recognized as the most challenging skills.	- No observed activities involving speaking or writing. -Very limited oral engagement or written contributions.	- The lowest scores were noted in the writing task. - Challenges arose in articulating ideas based on visual input.	-The teacher prioritises reading, not speaking/writing.
Vocabulary Challenges	- 86.4% face challenges with both technical and academic vocabulary.	-Vocabulary taught in isolated, general ways. - No focus on architecture terms.	- There is a lack of emphasis on terms related to architecture. - Performance in general vocabulary is moderate.	- The teacher uses visual aids but does not follow a systematic approach.
Reading Skills	- Reading was viewed as the least challenging aspect.	- No exposure to authentic architectural reading materials. - Reading texts were short and general.	- Even though the reading scores were impressive, the materials were simple and familiar. - Authentic academic reading was not evaluated.	-The teacher considers that reading is the most important skill.
Learner Interaction and Engagement	- Many tudents express a deficiency in practice opportunities, particularly in speaking.	- Instruction focused on the teacher. - Only 2 or 3 students participated; most remained passive.	- Not directly evaluated, yet poor writing performance indicates minimal involvement with language utilization	- The teacher expands the discussion through informal comments.

Course Relevance and Satisfaction	- A significant number of individuals expressed dissatisfaction with the course material and time distribution. -Desire for field-specific instruction.	- There is a strong interest in instruction tailored to specific fields. - The lessons provided do not pertain to architecture. .	- The test indicated a lack of preparation for tasks related to architecture, particularly in the written task.	-The teacher follows a fixed programme that is not personalised for students.
Needs Analysis	-The need expressed by students does not align with the current course focus.	-There is no evidence of adjusting the course to meet needs.	-There is a gap between the teaching focus and where students need to improve.	-The teacher expresses that no needs analysis was conducted, but he acknowledges its importance.
Collaboration Between Teachers	Not directly measured.	Not relevant.	Not relevant.	-The teacher does not collaborate with English specialists; however, he is flexible to the idea.

The triangulated data that are presented in Table 18 highlight several consistent and significant findings concerning the existing ESP instruction for Master 1 architecture students. Throughout all four instruments, productive skills, especially speaking and writing, were identified as the weakest areamo. Although students explicitly mentioned these difficulties in the questionnaire, their lack of practice was distinctly evident in class, and their lowest performance on the proficiency test occurred in the writing task. In addition to the teacher interview that confirmed reading is valued higher than speaking and writing, which suggests that the skills imbalance is still present. This alignment reinforces that the current ESP course is insufficiently enhancing students' ability to express their thoughts in English, which is crucial in both academic and professional architectural environments.

Vocabulary also appeared as a significant challenge, especially in learning and applying technical and field-specific terms. Students expressed difficulties with architectural terminology and classroom observations showed that the instruction primarily concentrated on




general meanings of words. Also, the proficiency test indicated moderate results in vocabulary tasks particularly when it came to terms related to the discipline. The teacher reported that vocabulary is taught through visuals, but without using a systematised approach or any explicit attention to terminology. This indicates that there is a need to teach specialised vocabulary that is necessary for understanding texts related to the discipline and for writing reports and participating in discussions on architectural aspects.

Although the students reported that reading as their strongest skill, there was clear evidence from the observation and test results that students generally have been exposed to reading materials that were simple and familiar to them. The teacher also confirmed that reading is prioritised in the course, as he considers it the most important skill for architecture students. These findings can result in an inflated estimation of their reading proficiency, particularly when faced with real academic texts in architecture, which are full of technical language uses and complex structures.

The observation also indicated minimal learner participation and engagement, as only a few learners engaged in classroom discussions. Although the teacher made some efforts to engage learners, most of the students showed silence. This is consistent with questionnaire findings that students lack enough practice, particularly in speaking. According to the teacher, students have a voice in content selection as part of class discussions, but the process is unstructured and informal. The low level of interaction may be linked with the lack of a learner-centred approach and interactive activities in the current course.

The triangulated results reveal that there is a distinct misalignment between the course contents and the students' academic and professional needs. Although the students expressed a great interest in relevant field instruction and indicated that English is essential for their future careers, the observation and the test show that the course is not specific, lacks integration into ESP, and does not prepare them for professional communication activities. The teacher also confirmed that the course follows a fixed program (Canva) and does not respond to student needs. This agreement throughout sources further suggests the need to modify curriculums in order to be more relevant to students' actual professional settings.

It was clear that there was no formal needs analysis across all instruments. The questionnaire indirectly showed that there were gaps between what the students needed and what the instruction focused on. Furthermore, observation and test results showed that the skills that needed the most improvement (speaking and writing) were not being taught enough. Also, the teacher clearly said that he does not conduct needs analysis, although he agreed that it is



important. The triangulated evidence indicates that the absence of needs analysis is a cause of skill imbalance and course misalignment.

Finally, although the collaboration between teachers was not directly measured in the questionnaire, observation, or test. The teacher interview revealed that there is no collaboration between the ESP teacher and English language specialists. The teacher said this was because of time limits; however, he expressed openness to collaboration. The lack of coordination across different fields probably makes it harder to combine language and subject expertise, which is why there is currently an imbalance between learning technical skills and developing communication skills.


In summary, the triangulated data provides a clear representation of an ESP course largely focused on reading, without systematic vocabulary instruction, and with limited opportunities for speaking, writing, and interaction. This is caused by the lack of needs analysis and collaboration, resulting in a course that does not correspond with the academic and professional needs of the students. These findings therefore suggested the need to restructure the curriculum, integrate productive skills properly, provide more systematic vocabulary instruction, and develop institutional strategies that address needs analysis and teacher collaboration.

3.6 Connecting the Study Findings with the Research Questions and the Purpose of the Study

The present research aimed to investigate the English language needs of Master 1 architecture students at the University of Laghouat, the specific difficulties encountered by them in acquiring the necessary language skills and how far the existing ESP course fits their needs. The findings from the questionnaire, the proficiency test, the classroom observations, and the teacher's interview provide clear answers to the three research questions. To comprehensively explore this aim, the following research questions were posed and have been answered through the results :

1. What are the actual and perceived English language needs of Master 1 architecture students at the University of Laghouat?

The findings indicate that the students strongly believe that English is needed for their academic career and professional future, especially for the international cooperation, conferences and publishing research. They were very motivated to develop their speaking and writing skills, while the results of the proficiency test indicated that they excelled mainly in reading. This



suggests a clear gap between what students require and value and what they are most competent in.

2. What challenges and difficulties do these students face in developing the necessary English language skills for their academic and professional contexts?


Among the difficulties faced by the students in learning English were understanding technical vocabulary and using English for productive activities such as writing and speaking. Classroom observation confirmed that learners' engagement was limited during activities when the teacher asked learners to explain vocabularies or to answer questions. The teacher interview also showed reliance on limited techniques, such as visuals, and the lack of systematic needs analysis and communicative activities. These results demonstrate that vocabulary acquisition, speaking, and writing continue to pose persistent challenges.

3. To what extent do the current ESP courses and teaching practices address these identified needs, from both students' and teachers' perspectives?

The triangulated results confirm that the ESP courses do not meet students' authentic academic and professional needs. Although the courses focus on reading comprehension, they neglect writing, speaking, and technical vocabulary learning. Both students and the teacher reported that the time provided is not enough, the teacher admitted that needs analysis was not conducted and he did not collaborate with language specialists. However, the teacher was ready to adopt changes, which indicates that there is a possibility to reform if institutional support is provided.

Conclusion

This chapter presented a comprehensive analysis of the data collected through the questionnaire, classroom observation, proficiency test, and the teacher interview, in order to determine the English language needs of Master 1 architecture students at the University of Laghouat. The findings showed that there is a clear gap between the students' academic and professional language needs and the current ESP instruction. In general, speaking and writing emerged as the most difficult skills, with students showing a lack of confidence and receiving little to no chances to practice these abilities in their classroom settings. Additionally, Vocabulary, particularly technical and field-specific terms, was also found to be a significant difficulty that affects students' academic performance and ability to communicate in a work context in the future. While reading was perceived as a strength, this may reflect the result of exposure to simplified texts. These results underline the need for a more relevant, interactive



and discipline-based EPS course. Consequently, for a suitable ESP course that meets the needs of the learners, a list of recommendations was constructed.

3.7 Implications for the study

The results of this study have several implications for teaching and learning ESP, mainly for teachers, learners, and materials designers.

1. Implications for teachers


NA is an essential component of language teaching, as it informs the design, objectives and evaluation of the language programs (Richards, 1984; as cited in Nunan, 1988). For ESP teachers, needs analysis is necessary to determine students' language needs, which helps in setting objectives, selecting content, and choosing appropriate teaching methods. Students' awareness of their own needs also motivates them to actively participate in class and enables them to share subject knowledge in class.

2. Implications for students

Needs Analysis (NA) is a way of placing learners in the centre of the learning process by allowing them to express their needs and interests, which will define the objectives, content, and methodology of language programs. Students must also take responsibility for their learning and be “active” learners, not “jug” learners who simply absorb knowledge and make no contributions (Larouz, 2012).

3. Implications for materials designers

Due to the lack of suitable ESP resources, the teacher often design or adapt materials to suit the students' needs (Dudley Evans & St. John, 1998). However, this is not easy since teachers are supposed to develop courses adapted to students' needs with no time to prepare (Johns, 1990). The results of the study indicated that the students were dissatisfied with the existing materials; this emphasises the development of new, well-organized and attractive materials that correlate to the students' professional field (Stevens, 1988). In addition, the materials should address the restriction of time allocated for ESP courses and focus specifically on speaking and writing the necessary skills from the perspective of the learners for their professional future. Nevertheless, concentrating on speaking and writing in the new designed ESP teaching materials does not mean that the other skills should be ignored. In fact, it is the teachers' responsibility to make students aware of the importance of the integration of the four skills; in



other words, they need to have all of the skills, this way, they will be able to develop their language proficiency and communicative competence.

3.8 Limitations of the study

The current research comprises some limitations that must be addressed .

First , the sample size in this study was small and particularly limited to 24 Master 1 architecture students at the University of Laghouat. Although these results provide valuable comprehension within this specific context, they might not be applicable for other departments, universities or educational systems.

Second , regarding the piloting of the questionnaire, the instrument was reviewed and approved by the supervisor, but a request for additional feedback from other teachers was unsuccessful. Therefore, the questionnaire was not piloted more widely, reducing the opportunity to refine some of the items based on multiple expert viewpoints.

Third , listening and speaking skills could not be evaluated at the stage of proficiency test since students had limited time and there were architectural design projects going on concurrently. Therefore, the analysis was limited to reading comprehension, vocabulary identification, grammar, and written production.

Fourth, although the application of various research instruments, e.g., questionnaire, classroom observation, and proficiency test, enhances the validity of the study, the number of observed sessions was limited, as some pedagogical conditions allowed the researcher to observe only two sessions since the students were on a field trip. This constraint reduced the richness of observed data.

Finally ,the research was conducted with only one English teacher who is a subject expert and not a language teacher. This limits the variety in teaching perspectives and instructional approaches that can be enriched by the findings. It further restricts the applicability of the results , since conclusions are closely connected to the teaching practices and understanding of one teacher.

4 Recommendations

According to the analysis of students' questionnaire, classroom observations, proficiency test, and the teacher interview results, a number of recommendations are offered to enhance the English for Specific Purposes (ESP) course for Master 1 Architecture students at the University of Laghouat. These recommendations help to meet the learners' real needs, improve classroom practice, and offer the opportunity to incorporate new technology for better language learning.

- The English language must be incorporated into the architecture program from the first year and not only in Master One as is currently the situation in Algerian universities, including the University of Laghouat. If students receive early and regular exposure to English, particularly around specific terminology related to the area of study, it will help architecture students benefit in several ways with their language acquisitions and professional preparation throughout their studies.
- A comprehensive needs analysis should be conducted before attempting any ESP course. This is important for the determination of the learners' linguistic needs, academic goals and professional communicative demands. Designing a course without this foundation can result in irrelevant content and low student interest. The curriculum should be adaptable to changing student needs and professional demands.
- The ESP syllabus should be designed according to the needs of architecture students. The priority should be placed on vocabulary related to the field, reading a technical text, and oral communication for academic and professional purposes.
- The allocation of more instruction time for the ESP course should be considered. One hour and a half per week is not enough to cover the content of the ESP course. Thus, increasing the time is a necessity in order to maximize students' opportunities to learn and practice their language, and hence improve their proficiency in English language.
- Universities need to provide continuous ESP methodology training and promote cooperation between language teachers and architecture specialists to enhance the quality of instruction. This dual strategy helps guarantee that instruction is linguistically correct and relevant to the students' field, and successfully addresses the challenge of the phenomenon of non-specialist teachers delivering ESP content without the necessary pedagogical or linguistic knowledge.

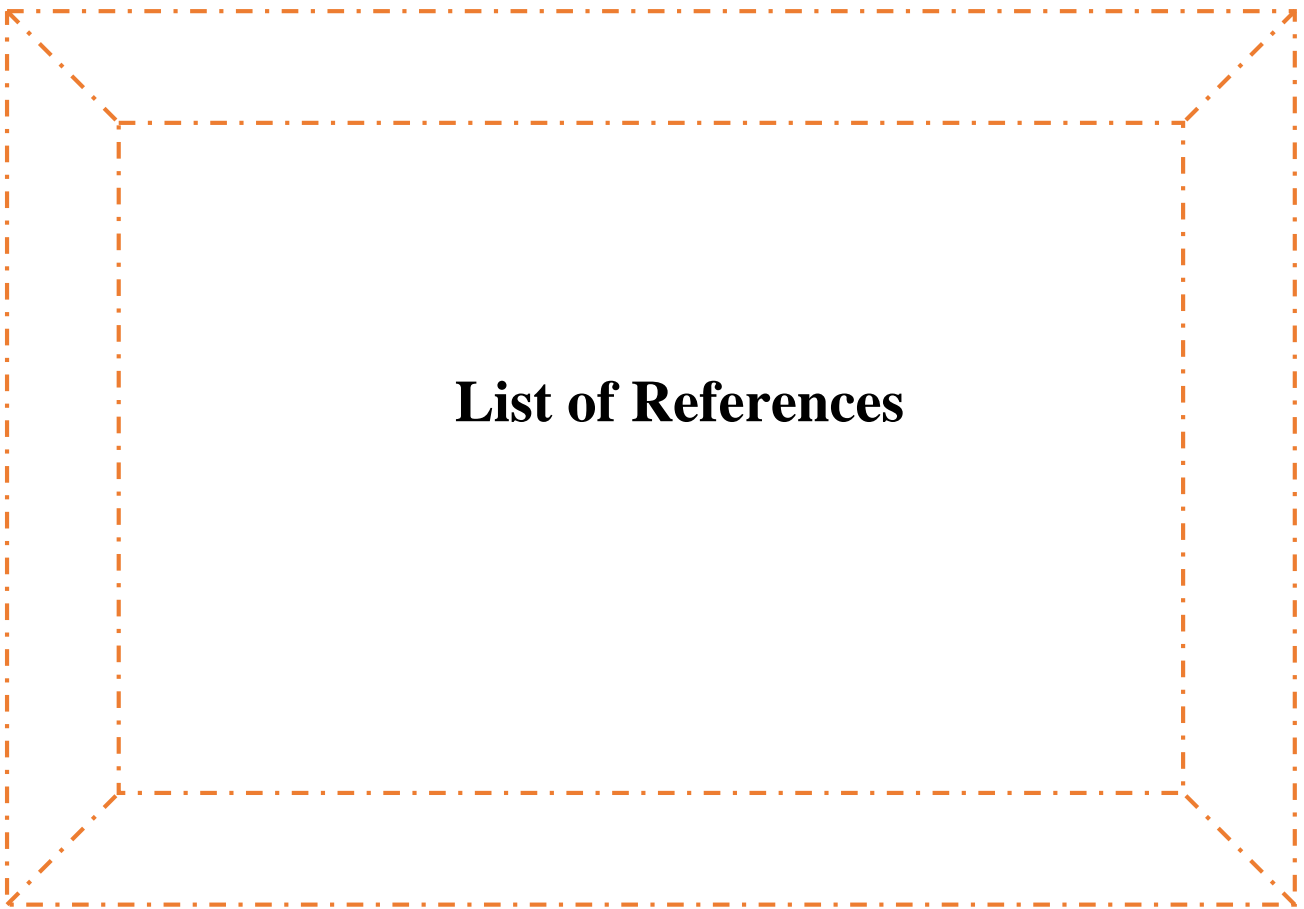
General conclusion

The current situation of ESP at the University of Laghouat, especially in the Department of Architecture, reveals the necessity for serious attention to students' linguistic needs and how English is taught. The aims of the present study were to investigate the objectives and perceptions of Master 1 architecture students, the challenges they encounter in the acquisition of language skills in English and the extent to which the current ESP course meets their learning needs. For this purpose, data were collected from a questionnaire, a proficiency test, classroom observation and a semi-structured interview with the English teacher, which together provided a comprehensive and valid overview of the learning situation.

To meet these objectives and provide meaningful recommendations for future practice, the research used a mixed-methods design, including both quantitative and qualitative tools. The student questionnaire was designed based on three major needs analysis approaches (Target Situation Analysis, Present Situation Analysis and Deficiency Analysis), enabling us to collect data regarding students' current skills, their academic and professional needs, as well as the gap between them. In addition, a proficiency test was developed to assess students' actual performance, classroom observation to examine the engagement and learning dynamic, and a semi-structured teacher interview to better understand course design and institutional limitations. These tools helped to make the results comprehensive and reliable.

The results indicate that the present ESP course does not meet the students' academic or professional needs. They further demonstrate a demand for a more relevant, discipline-based, and interactive ESP syllabus which would emphasize on speaking, writing, and the technical vocabulary with the integration of authentic tasks such as reading and analysing blueprints in English, writing project proposals, and simulated client presentations. In addition, institutional support is needed to promote collaboration between English teachers and content experts to design a program that is truly tailored to the needs of students.

This study is an important contribution, as it focuses on the architecture field, which has received limited research in ESP in Algeria. It addresses the gap between the existing and desired situations and provides particular recommendations for enhancing ESP teaching at the University of Laghouat and in other institutions of higher education. However, the study is restricted to one institution and one group this indicating that further research is required with larger samples and a broader scope to validate and generalize the findings.



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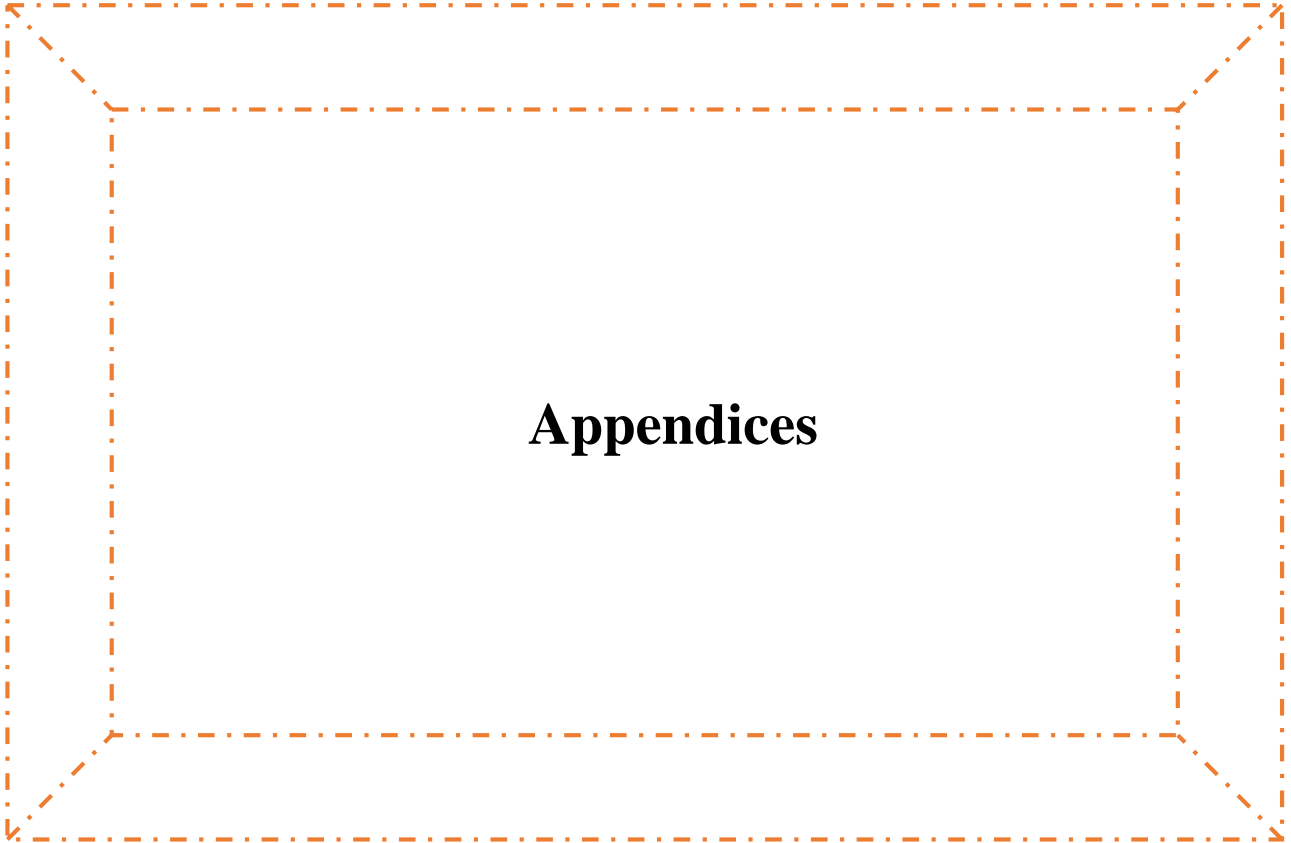
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Appendix 1 :

Information sheet and informed consent

Title of the research: Exploring the ESP Needs Analysis for Architecture Students: Case Study of Master One Students of Architecture at Laghouat University

Supervisor: Dr Yasmine MUSTAPHA

Affiliation: University of Ammar Telidji Laghouat.

Contact Information: mustapha-yas@hotmail.com

Supervisees: Benharzallah Iman

contact information: iman.benharzallah@gmail.com

• Introduction

I kindly request your participation in providing insights into the English for Specific Purposes (ESP) needs of architecture students. Please take your time to thoroughly read the following information.

• Purpose of the Study

By understanding the specific English language needs of architecture students, this study seeks to uncover insights that can inform the development of effective ESP teaching strategies, thereby enhancing their ability to engage with English language resources and communicate effectively within their field of study. This study aims to explore and analyze the ESP needs of Master One students of Architecture at Laghouat University. Specifically, this research aims to:

- Identify the specific English language skills (reading, writing, speaking, listening) that Master One architecture students perceive as most crucial for their academic studies.
- Investigate the English language demands of their architectural coursework, including understanding technical texts, participating in discussions, and presenting projects.
- Explore the students' perceptions of their current English language proficiency in relation to their academic needs.
- Identify any challenges or difficulties Master One architecture students face due to their English language skills in their studies.



Subject Participation

You are kindly invited to participate in the above-mentioned research by answering this questionnaire. When you participate in this study, you will be provided with an opportunity to share your experiences and viewpoints on the English language demands of your architectural studies and your perceived needs for ESP instruction. This questionnaire will approximately take, **10-15 minutes** of your time to complete.

• Potential Risk and Discomfort

When sharing your experiences and views regarding the English language needs in your architectural studies, you may feel some concern about your identity being revealed. However, rest assured that your responses will be kept anonymous, and no identifying information will be collected in the questionnaire.

• Potential Benefits

By participating in this sharing of experiences and views on the English language needs in the Master One architecture program, I am able to gain valuable insights into how ESP instruction can be better tailored to support your academic success. This knowledge can help to improve the relevance and effectiveness of future English language teaching for architecture students, ultimately enhancing your learning experience and preparing you for future professional endeavors where English may be required.

• Confidentiality

I will ensure that your information will be kept confidential, and no identifying details will be collected in this questionnaire. Your responses will be grouped together for analysis, and no individual responses will be linked back to you. Rest assured that your responses will remain completely anonymous.

• Voluntary Participation and Authorization


Your participation in this study is entirely voluntary. Your decision to participate or not will have no effect on your academic standing, grades, or any benefits to which you are entitled at the university.

• Withdrawal from the Study and/or Withdrawal of Authorization

If you choose to take part in this study, please be aware that you have the option to withdraw from participation at any point before submitting the questionnaire. Once you have submitted the questionnaire, your responses will be included in the anonymous data set, and it will not be possible to withdraw your individual responses.

• Cost/Reimbursements

There is no cost for participating in this study. Moreover, there won't be any reimbursement provided for your engagement.



By proceeding to answer the questionnaire, you indicate your voluntary agreement to participate in this research.

Thank you for considering participating in this important research.

Appendix 2 :

Students' Questionnaire

Introduction:

This questionnaire aims to collect information about your English language needs as an architecture student at the University of Ammar Theliji, Laghouat. Your answers will help identify particular areas where English language teaching can be more suited to fit your academic and professional needs. Please answer all questions honestly. And remember that the information you provide is completely voluntarily, anonymous, and confidential. Your participation is wholeheartedly appreciated.

يهدف هذا الاستبيان إلى جمع معلومات حول احتياجاتك في اللغة الإنجليزية كطالب في قسم الهندسة المعمارية بجامعة عمار ثليجي، الأغواط. ستساعد إجاباتك في تعيين المجالات الخاصة التي يمكن فيها تحسين تعليم اللغة الإنجليزية لتلبية احتياجاتك الأكاديمية والمهنية بشكل أفضل. يرجى الإجابة على جميع الأسئلة بصدق. وتذكر أن البيانات التي تقدمها تطوعية تمامًا ومجهولة الهوية وسرية. نقدر مشاركتك بكل إخلاص .

Part 1: General Information

معلومات عامة

1. Gender: الجنس

Male ذكر

Female انثى

2. What is your specialty?

ما هو تخصصك

.....
.....

3. Age :

Part 2: English Language Proficiency

القسم 2: إتقان اللغة الإنجليزية

4. How do you consider your level in English? كيف تقدر مستواك في اللغة الإنجليزية؟

- Beginner مبتدئ
 Intermediate متوسط
 Advanced متقدم

Part 3: English Language Use in Academic Settings

القسم 3: استخدام اللغة الإنجليزية في

الأه ساط الأكاديمية

5. Are you satisfied with the way English is taught in your department?

هل أنت راضٍ عن طريقة تدريس اللغة الإنجليزية في قسمك؟

- Yes نعم No لا

6. Do you think the English courses in your department meet your English language needs?

هل تعتقد أن دروس اللغة الإنجليزية في قسمك تلبي احتياجاتك في اللغة الإنجليزية؟

- Yes نعم
 No لا
 To some extent إلى حد معين

7. Do you think one hour and a half session per week is sufficient to learn English?

هل تعتقد أن حصة واحدة لمدة ساعة ونصف في الأسبوع كافية لتعلم الإنجليزية؟

- Yes نعم No لا

- If no, how many hours per week do you think are sufficient?

إذا كانت الإجابة لا، كم عدد الساعات في الأسبوع التي تعتقد أنها كافية في الأسبوع ؟

.....
.....

7. In what academic activities do you use English? (Select all that are applicable)

ما هي الأنشطة الأكاديمية التي تستخدم فيها اللغة الإنجليزية؟ (اختر جميع الخيارات المناسبة)

- | | | |
|--------------------------|--|--|
| <input type="checkbox"/> | Reading academic papers and articles | قراءة الأوراق والمقالات الأكاديمية |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | Writing research papers and reports | كتابة الأبحاث والتقارير |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | Attending lectures and seminars | حضور المحاضرات والندوات |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | Participating in group discussions and presentations | المشاركة في المناقشات الجماعية والعروض |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | Taking exams and tests | اجتياز الامتحانات و الفروض |

8. What challenges do you face with academic English? (Select all that are applicable)

ماهي التحديات التي تواجهها مع اللغة الإنجليزية الأكاديمية؟ (اختر جميع الخيارات المناسبة)

- | | | |
|--------------------------|--|------------------------------------|
| <input type="checkbox"/> | Pronunciation and speaking fluency | الطلاقة في النطق و الكلام |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | Listening comprehension | فهم الاستماع |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | Reading academic texts | قراءة النصوص الأكاديمية |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | Academic writing | الكتابة الأكاديمية |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | Technical vocabulary related to architecture | المفردات التقنية المتعلقة بالعمارة |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | Grammar and sentence structure | القواعد وتركيب الجملة |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | Other (please specify): (يرجى التحديد) | أخرى |

.....
.....
.....

9. What obstacles do you face while learning English? (Select all that are applicable)

ماهي العقبات التي تواجهها أثناء تعلم اللغة الإنجليزية؟ (اختر جميع الخيارات المناسبة)

- Teachers' choice of lessons اختيار الاساتذة للدروس
- Poor teaching quality ضعف جودة التعليم
- Lack of materials related to architecture in English نقص في المواد المتعلقة بالعمارة باللغة
- Limited opportunities to practice English فرص محدودة لممارسة اللغة الإنجليزية
- Other (please specify): (يرجى التحديد): أخرى

.....

.....

4.1.1.1 Part 4: Specific Language Needs

القسم 4: الاحتياجات

اللغوية

10. Which English language skills do you need to improve the most? (Select all that are applicable)

ما هي مهارات اللغة الإنجليزية التي تحتاج أكثر الى تطويرها؟ (اختر جميع الخيارات المناسبة)

- Reading القراءة
- Writing الكتابة
- Listening الاستماع
- Speaking التحدث
- All of the above كل ما سبق

11. What reading skill do you need to improve? (Select all that are applicable)

ما هي المهارة الي تحتاج إلى تحسينها في القراءة؟ (اختر جميع الخيارات المناسبة)

- Reading general authentic texts قراءة نصوص عامة
- Reading discipline-related publications (books, articles, reports) قراءة المنشورات المتعلقة بالتخصص (كتب، مقالات، تقارير)
- Understanding technical and academic vocabulary فهم المصطلحات التقنية والأكاديمية
- Other (please specify): (يرجى التحديد): أخرى

.....

.....

12. What listening skills do you need to improve? (Select all that are applicable)

ما هي المهارة التي تحتاج إلى تحسينها في الاستماع؟ (اختر جميع الخيارات المناسبة)

- Understanding speech instantly فهم الكلام على الفور
- Understanding general conversations in everyday situations فهم المحادثات العامة في المواقف
- Understanding discipline-related lectures and identifying main ideas فهم المحاضرات المتعلقة بالتخصص وتحديد الأفكار الرئيسية
- Other (please specify): أخرى (يرجى التحديد):

13. What speaking skill do you need to improve? (Select all that are applicable)

ما هي المهارة التي تحتاج إلى تحسينها في المحادثة؟ (اختر جميع الخيارات المناسبة)

- Speaking fluently التحدث بطلاقة
- Using correct grammar while speaking استخدام القواعد الصحيحة أثناء التحدث
- Participating in discipline-related conversations (asking and answering questions) المشاركة في المحادثات المتعلقة بالتخصص (طرح الأسئلة والإجابة عليها)
- Speaking with clear pronunciation التحدث بنطق واضح
- Other (please specify): أخرى (يرجى التحديد):

14. What specific writing skills do you need to improve? (Select all that apply)

ما هي المهارة التي تحتاج إلى تحسينها في الكتابة؟ (اختر جميع الخيارات المناسبة)

- Summarizing and paraphrasing information تلخيص وإعادة صياغة المعلومات
- Using technical and academic vocabulary in writing استخدام المفردات التقنية والأكاديمية في
- Writing reports and articles كتابة التقارير والمقالات
- Writing for leisure or personal interests الكتابة للترفيه أو الاهتمامات الشخصية
- Other (please specify): أخرى (يرجى التحديد):

.....
.....
.....

15. What type of English language support would be most useful to you? (Select all that are applicable)

ما هو نوع الدعم اللغوي الإنجليزي الذي سيكون ذا فائدة أكثر لك؟ (اختر جميع الخيارات المناسبة)

- Additional English courses دروس إضافية في اللغة الإنجليزية
- Specialized ESP courses for architecture students
دروس متخصصة في اللغة الإنجليزية لأغراض محددة (ESP) لطلبة العمارة
- Opportunities to practice English in real-life situations فرص لممارسة اللغة الإنجليزية في مواقف الحياة الواقعية
- Support for academic writing and research دعم الكتابة الأكاديمية والبحث العلمي
- Access to English learning materials الوصول إلى مواد تعلم اللغة الإنجليزية
- Languages exchange programs برامج تبادل اللغات
- Other (please specify): (أخرى (يرجى التحديد):

4.1.1.2 Part 5: English Language Use in Professional Settings

القسم 5: استخدام اللغة الإنجليزية في البيئات المهنية

16. How important is English for your future career in architecture?

ما مدى أهمية اللغة الإنجليزية لمستقبلك المهني في مجال الهندسة المعمارية؟

<input type="checkbox"/> Very important مهم جدا	<input type="checkbox"/> Important مهم	<input type="checkbox"/> Neutral محايد	<input type="checkbox"/> Not important ليس مهما	<input type="checkbox"/> Not applicable غير قابل للتطبيق
--	---	---	--	---

17. Which English language skills are most important for your future career as an architect? (Rate the importance of each skill on a scale of 1–5, with 1 being “not important” and 5 being “very important.”)

ما هي مهارات اللغة الإنجليزية الأكثر أهمية لمستقبلك المهني كمهندس معماري؟ (قيم أهمية كل مهارة على مقياس من 1 إلى 5، حيث 1 تعني "غير مهمة" و5 تعني "مهمة جداً").

	1 not important	2	3	4	5 very important
<input type="checkbox"/> Technical vocabulary related to architecture and construction المفردات التقنية المتعلقة بالعمارة والبناء					
<input type="checkbox"/> Reading and understanding complex technical texts قراءة وفهم النصوص التقنية المعقدة					
<input type="checkbox"/> Writing clear and concise technical reports كتابة تقارير تقنية واضحة ومختصرة					
<input type="checkbox"/> Giving effective presentations in English تقديم عروض فعالة باللغة الإنجليزية					
<input type="checkbox"/> Negotiating and collaborating with international partners التفاوض والتعاون مع شركاء دوليين					

Other (please specify): أخرى (يرجى التحديد):

.....
.....

18. Do you plan to pursue your career in an English-speaking country?

هل تخطط لمتابعة مسيرتك المهنية في بلد متحدث باللغة الإنجليزية؟

Yes

No لا

19. Do you expect to use English in your career?

هل تتوقع أن تستخدم اللغة الإنجليزية في مسيرتك المهنية؟

Yes نعم

No لا

20. If yes, in what ways do you expect using English? (Select all that apply)

إذا كانت الإجابة بنعم، كيف تتوقع استخدام اللغة الإنجليزية؟؟ (اختر جميع الخيارات المناسبة)

Attending international conferences حضور المؤتمرات الدولية

Publishing research papers in international journals نشر الأبحاث في الجرائد الدولية

Working on international projects العمل على مشاريع دولية

Other (please specify): (يرجى التحديد): أخرى

.....

.....

Thank you for your collaboration and time.

شكرا على تعاونك و وقتك .

Appendix 3 :

English Language Test for Architecture Students

Part 1: Reading Comprehension

- **Read the following passage and answer the questions below.**

"Architecture is both an art and a science. It involves designing spaces that are functional, aesthetically pleasing, and sustainable. Architects must consider factors such as climate, materials, and cultural context when creating their designs. In recent years, there has been a growing emphasis on sustainable architecture, which focuses on reducing the environmental impact of buildings. This includes using renewable energy sources, energy-efficient materials, and designs that minimize waste."

Questions:

1. What is architecture depending on the passage?
 - a) Only an art
 - b) Only a science
 - c) Both an art and a science
 - d) Neither an art nor a science
2. What factors must architects consider in their designs ?
 - a) Only aesthetics
 - b) Only functionality
 - c) Climate, materials, and cultural context
 - d) None of the above
3. What sustainable architecture focusing on ?
 - a) Architecture that focuses on luxury
 - b) Architecture that reduces environmental impact
 - c) Architecture that uses only traditional materials
 - d) Architecture that ignores climate

4. What are the characteristics of sustainable architecture mentioned in the passage?
- a) Renewable energy sources
 - b) Energy-efficient materials
 - c) Designs that minimize waste
 - d) All of the above

Part 2: Vocabulary

- Match the words on the left with their correct definitions on the right.

Blueprint	a) The front of a building
Facade	b) A detailed plan or design
Sustainability	c) The ability to preserve ecological balance
Renovation	d) The stabilization of parts in a building
Structure	e) The process of improving or repairing a building

Part 3: Grammar

- Complete the sentences with the correct word.

1. The architect _____ (is designing / designs) a new building for the city.
2. If I _____ (were / was) an architect, I would focus on sustainable designs.
3. The new museum _____ (will open / opens) next month.
4. The materials _____ (were chosen / chosen) for their durability.
5. She _____ (has worked / worked) on this project for two years.

- Look at this image of a building and answer the questions below.



1. What is the name of the building ?	
2. Where is this building located?	
3. What is the most attractive characteristic of this building?	
4. What materials do you think were used to construct this building?	
5. Why do you think this building is famous?	

Appendix 4 :

Interview with English Teachers of architecture

Research Title: Exploring the ESP Needs Analysis for Architecture Students: Case Study of Master One Students of Architecture at Laghouat University

Dear Teachers, Your honest answers are very important to the success of this research. The information you provide will help me to contribute a better comprehensive understanding of the ESP needs for architecture students and allow me make suggestions for how to improve their academic and professional development. Therefore, please provide honest answers to the questions I ask you. You are guaranteed the confidentiality of your answers. Thank you very much for devoting your valuable time and effort to this interview.

I . Background and Experience:


1. Which degree do you have?
2. Can you tell me how long you've been teaching architecture students?
3. In your experience, what role does English play in the academic and future professional lives of architecture students?

II. Approach to Teaching English :

4. Do you have training in teaching English? If not, how confident do you feel teaching English to architecture students?
5. What English skills do architecture students need most in your classes?" (For example reading, writing, speaking, listening)
6. What are the main English problems you see architecture students have in their studies? (Like reading, talking in class, giving presentations, writing papers, understanding what you say, etc.)
7. Do you find difficulties in preparing the lecture? If yes, would you mention some of these difficulties.

III . Understanding and Application of ESP & Needs Analysis:

8. Do you know what is meant by ESP?

- 
9. Have you already studied the ESP course? -If so , do you have an idea about it?
 10. Do you use needs analysis before designing your lecture?
 11. How do you identify and assess your students' needs? Do you ask your students about the needs they want to fulfil and the objectives they want to achieve before beginning the course ?
 12. How important do you think is the role of needs analysis in the course design and delivery?
 13. How do you teach vocabulary ? What types of vocabulary do you focus on (technical, semi-technical, general)?

IV.Course Design and Collaboration:

14. What are the parameters you take into consideration when designing your lectures?
15. Do students have a voice in selecting the content of the English Course ?
16. Do you think the time allocated for the English course is sufficient?
17. Do you collaborate with language specialists or other faculty members to address the language needs of your students? If so, can you describe these collaborations?
18. Would you recommend collaborations between language instructors and architecture faculty to design the course?

V. Future Perspectives:

19. Do you think it would be helpful to formally analyze the English needs of architecture students?
20. What do you think about teaching specific English for architecture students in their courses?

Appendix 5 :

QR Code of The Questionnaire



Appendix 6 :

Sample Texts From Observed Sessions

ABD AL-QADIR, AMIR (1807–1883) (by Peter von Sivvers)¹

During the early nineteenth century, Abd al-Qadir governed a state in Algeria. His family, claiming descent from Muhammad, led a Qadiriyya brotherhood center (zawiya) in western Algeria. In 1831 the French conquered the port of Oran from the Ottomans. Fighting broke out in the Oranais among those tribes formerly subjected to Turkish taxes and those privileged to collect them. The Moroccan sultan, failing to pacify the tribes on his border, designated Abd al-Qadir's influential but aging father as his deputy. He, in turn, had tribal leaders proclaim his son commander of the faithful (amir al-muminin) in 1832.

The highly educated and well-traveled new amir negotiated two treaties with France (1834–1837). Happy to cede the job of tribal pacification to an indigenous leader, the French acknowledged him as the sovereign of western Algeria. Abd al-Qadir received French money and arms with which he organized an administration, diplomatic service, and supply services, including storage facilities, a foundry, and textile workshops, for a standing army of six thousand men. Unfortunately, frequent disputes, and even occasional battles, punctured the treaties. The final rupture came when Abd al-Qadir began expanding into eastern Algeria. In response, the French decided on a complete conquest of Algeria and destroyed Abd al-Qadir's state (1839–1847), exiling him to Damascus. During his exile, the amir immersed himself in religious studies. He reemerged briefly into the public eye when riots shook Damascus in July 1860. It was then that Muslim resentment against perceived advantages enjoyed by Christians under the Ottoman reform edict of 1839 exploded into widespread killings and lootings. Virtually alone among the notables of Damascus, Abd al-Qadir shielded Christians from Muslim attackers.

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¹ Martin, R. C. (2004). *Encyclopedia of Islam and the Muslim world*. Thomson Gale.

A Day in the Life of an Architecture Major

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Would you study this? Let's see what we have today. Architecture You wake up, put on an all-black outfit, grab your paper straws, and head to the vegan coffee shop down the street. After that, you head to your second home, the studio.

You polish up the design you've been working on for weeks, but your professor wants you to make some changes. Again, again, and again. On the bright side, you finished your work early today.

It's only 3.15am. You grab some dinner from the vending machine, pull out your sleeping bag, and crash on the studio floor.

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الملخص

يفتقر غالبا تدريس الانجليزية لاغراض خاصة (ESP) في مؤسسات التعليم العالي بالجزائر إلى توظيف السياقي وتحليل الاحتياجات منهجيا، ونتيجة إلى ذلك، فإن العديد من المناهج الدراسية غير مرتبطة بالاحتياجات الحقيقية الاكاديمية و المهنية للطلبة. استجابة إلى هذا الوضع، هدفت هذه الدراسة إلى تحقيق الاحتياجات الفعلية المدركة للغة الانجليزية لدى طلبة سنة اولى ماستر تخصص هندسة معمارية بجامعة الاغواط، ومشكلاتهم في تعلم اللغة الانجليزية، وما إذا كان منهج ESP حاليا يلبي احتياجاتهم. استخدم هذا المنهج المختلط لجمع البيانات، يجمع بين الأدوات الكمية والنوعية. و للاستكشاف، تم اعتماد ستيبان لتحليل الاحتياجات المستوحى من تحليل وضعية الهدف، (TSA) وتحليل الوضعية الحالية، (PSA) وتحليل النقائص (DA) ووزع على 24 طالبا. بالإضافة إلى ذلك، تم إعداد اختبار كفاءة لغوية، كما أجريت ملاحظات صفية للتحقق من ممارسات التدريس وتفاعل الطلبة، و أجري أيضا مقابلة شبه موجهة مع أستاذ الانجليزية لتوفير فهم إضافي للصعوبات أو التحديات البيداء البيداغوجية. أظهرت النتائج أنه على الرغم من أن الطلبة كانوا متحمسين جدا لاستخدام اللغة الانجليزية في السياقات الأكاديمية و المهنية، خصوصا في مهارتي التحدث والكتابة، إلا أن هذه المهارات لم تحظ بالاهتمام الكافي و بقيت غير مطورة في القسم. أما أقوى مهارة لديهم فكانت القراءة، وربما يعود ذلك إلى تعرضهم لنصوص مبسطة في حين تمثلت أكبر تحدياتهم في المفردات التقنية، التي أعاقت قدرتهم على الوصول إلى الموارد الأصلية. كما أكدت مقابلة الأستاذ هذه النتائج، حيث أظهرت غياب التحليل المنهجي للاحتياجات و التعاون مع مختصي اللغة، و التركيز المفرط على القراءة. وضحت الدراسة أن هناك فجوة واضحة بين ما يحتاجه الطلبة فعليًا وما يقدمه منهج ESP حاليا. كما أبرزت ضرورة إعادة صياغة منهاج أكثر عملية وملاءمة قائم على تحليل الاحتياجات مما يساعد طلبة الهندسة المعمارية في حياتهم الأكاديمية والمهنية.

Résumé

L'enseignement de l'anglais à des fins spécifiques (ESP) dans l'enseignement supérieur algérien manque souvent de contextualisation et d'une analyse systématique des besoins. Par conséquent, de nombreux cours s'avèrent non pertinents par rapport aux besoins académiques et professionnels réels des étudiants. Face à cette situation, la présente étude a visé à examiner les besoins perçus et réels en langue anglaise des étudiants de Master 1 en architecture à l'Université de Laghouat, leurs difficultés dans l'acquisition de l'anglais, ainsi que l'adéquation du cours d'ESP existant à leurs besoins. Une méthodologie mixte a été utilisée pour recueillir les données, combinant des outils quantitatifs et qualitatifs. Afin d'explorer les besoins perçus et réels, un questionnaire d'analyse des besoins, adapté de l'Analyse de la situation cible (TSA), de l'Analyse de la situation présente (PSA) et de l'Analyse des déficiences (DA), a été administré à 23 étudiants. En outre, un test de compétence linguistique a été conçu pour mesurer leur performance réelle dans plusieurs compétences linguistiques, des observations de classe ont été menées pour examiner les pratiques pédagogiques et l'interaction des étudiants, et un entretien semi-directif avec l'enseignant d'anglais a permis d'approfondir la compréhension des défis pédagogiques et institutionnels. Les résultats ont révélé que, bien que les étudiants soient fortement motivés à utiliser l'anglais dans des contextes académiques et professionnels, notamment à l'oral et à l'écrit, ces compétences étaient négligées et restaient peu développées en classe. Leur compétence la plus forte semblait être la lecture, probablement en raison de l'exposition à des textes simplifiés, tandis que leur principal défi résidait dans le vocabulaire technique, qui limitait leur accès aux ressources authentiques. L'entretien avec l'enseignant a confirmé ces résultats, mettant en évidence l'absence d'analyse systématique des besoins, une focalisation excessive sur la lecture, ainsi que le manque de collaboration avec les spécialistes de la langue. L'étude conclut qu'il existe un écart manifeste entre les besoins réels des étudiants et ce que propose actuellement le cours d'ESP. Elle souligne la nécessité de reformuler un programme plus pratique, pertinent et basé sur l'analyse des besoins, afin d'aider les étudiants en architecture tant dans leur parcours académique que dans leur vie professionnelle.