

## 1.1. Introduction

Industrial Design (ID) has recently found itself a foothold in Iranian universities. Thus the resources are either exclusively or more readily available in English. Furthermore, the curriculum developed for this major includes a two credit course on general English, which has not been explicitly designed in accordance with ID students' educational needs; and an ESP course which according to Atai (2001, p.101) "is currently developing as a great financial and educational investment in the ELT curriculum at Iranian universities", has not been accounted for. Industrial Design Society of America (IDSA) defines ID as:

"the professional service of creating and developing concepts and specifications that optimize the function, value and appearance of products and systems for the mutual benefit of both user and manufacturer; and the role of an Industrial Designer is to create and execute design solutions towards problems of form, usability, user ergonomics, engineering, marketing, brand development and sales."

Relying on the principles of ESP this study aims at designing a course and a material that is hoped to be instrumental in meeting ID students' need of English for academic purposes.

## 1. 2. Statement of the problem

Although English is a compulsory subject taught as a foreign language in Iran's public school system, students and the graduates of formal schooling tend to enroll in private language courses because of the weak points they feel in their level of language proficiency. These institutes and courses which mushroom outside the educational system, as believed by Dubin and Olsthtain (1986, p.11), is "an indication that language programs are failing to meet learners' objectives". As a result, General English is not

developed in full capacity during the school years; so at university level there is a need for remedial English courses coupled with an English for Specific Academic Purposes (ESAP) course related to the students' academic field, which as stated by Atai (2001, p.103) "has not been conducted systematically and coherently". As for the ID students no ESAP course has been considered. There are very few technological, artistic, and scientific journals available in Persian language, and piles of periodicals and books are collected in libraries which are generally used like photo albums. Almost all instructions, catalogs, and manuals accompanying modern machinery do not include a Persian translation of their content; what is more, most ID professionals need to enroll in Ph.D. programs abroad.

In developing societies like Iran increasing investment toward fostering English language proficiency can contribute towards the developing of what Dubin and Olsthtain (1986, p.13) describe as "human resources of high caliber" to realize technological progress.

The present small scale research is not in a position to propose fundamental changes in the educational system, but taking the context of the problem into consideration, this study sets out to follow the below mentioned objectives to have taken only the initial step in improving ID students' language proficiency so that they can perform better in meeting the requirements of their content courses.

### **1.3. Research objectives**

1. To determine and prioritize the ID students' educational need of English language.
2. To introduce a course and develop a sample material that meets the skills and strategies they need to deal with the requirements of their content courses.

#### **1.4. Significance of the study**

We are living in a world which, according to Haskett (1997, p.7), “it has become a truism to speak of a man-made world” whose instrument of transformation has been mechanized industry, in which a key role is played by ID that has a two century history in the first world countries, and has been introduced to Iranian universities in the last twenty five years. Evidently the process of modernization is closely related to the accessibility of technical information which can further be facilitated by fostering a higher English proficiency for the ID students.

In addition, despite the growing number of published textbooks, many subject specialisms are still not catered for. On the report of its 2007 Publications manual, the Organization for Researching and Composing University Textbooks in the Humanities (SAMT) has already published 105 ESP textbooks for students of different majors and is having more than 25 under publication. However no appropriate material is available for the students of ID. Thus this study relies on the principles of ESP to design a course and a sample material that can be instrumental in meeting ID students’ need of English in dealing with their academic needs.

Besides, the decision making bodies of Tabriz University of Islamic Art are thinking of adding an ESP course to the ID curriculum, and this study may be able to contribute to the delivery of this programme.

#### **1.5. Delimitations of the study**

The present study is definitely subject to certain limitations which pose restrictions on generalizability of its outcomes. Among the five major universities which have a department of ID, the researcher had access only to Tabriz University of Islamic Art, and thus the study is restricted to identifying the language needs of the ID students of

this university, whose results later informed the course design and material development. It would also be desirable to collect data from other universities to reach more generalizable results.

To the best of researcher's knowledge, the ID students' need of English language was investigated for the first time in Iranian universities, and no ESP course was previously designed for them, thus no data was available and the research was needed to be done from scratch. Thus time allowance could not make concessions for the course and sample material to be piloted in a classroom implementation, and the necessary feedback for their evaluation was not provided.

Despite these limitations, the research objectives were pursued by building the backbones of the study through reading the related literature. The next chapter overviews issues such as ESP, course design, needs analysis, and syllabus design; the last subject to be dealt with is the reading skill which according to Richards and Renandya (2002, p.271) is the most needed academic skill.

## **2.1. Introduction**

As pointed out by Hutchinson and Waters (1987, p.3) “ESP is based on designing courses to meet learners’ needs”; which is informed by the designer’s view of language and learning theories and the results of ‘needs analysis’ which at its most basic is described by Graves (1996, p. 12) as a process which involves “...finding out what the learners know and can do and what they need to learn or do so that the course can bridge the gap”. The decisions made at this level are then reflected in ‘syllabus design’, explained by Nunan (1988, p.5) as “the specification of what is to be included in a language course”, ‘methodology’ which is employed in implementing the syllabus, and ‘material design’ which involves selection of the learning tasks, activities, exercise types, and the way they are to be presented in a particular setting.

This chapter is to present an overall view of what was found in the literature about ESP in general, English for Academic Purposes (EAP) as a branch of ESP, course design and its sub-processes, all along with reading and its role in EAP courses.

## **2.2. English for Specific Purposes (ESP)**

ESP is a discernable constituent of Applied Linguistic research which “is generally used to refer to the teaching and learning of a foreign language (here English) for a clearly utilitarian purpose” (Mackay, 1975 as cited in Robinson, 1984, p.6), and a trend in English Language Teaching (ELT) which emphasizes the role of English in a course of “instruction in which the content and aims of the course are fixed by the specific needs of a particular group of learners” (Dudley-Evans and St John, 1998, p.121), in which all decisions are based on the learners’ reasons for learning and is thus considered to be a reaction to general English course. Robinson (1984, p.6-8) characterizes ESP as learning/teaching English to adults not as an end in itself but as a

means for the acquisition of some quite different body of knowledge or skills for occupational, educational or vocational purposes; for the emergence of which Hutchinson and Waters (1987, pp.6-8) and Richards (2001, pp.23-24) enumerate three main reasons:

1. Demands of a new world: before 1945, language learning was its own justification but the end of the World War II and the expansion of international scientific and commercial interrelationships under the Anglo-American influence generated specific needs for learning English, which was by then accepted as the international language. Immigrants, refugees, tourists, etc. generated a huge demand for English courses. The growth of radio, film, and television was an additional source of strength for English as a foreign language.

2. A revolution in linguistics: the study of the nature of particular varieties of English came into vogue during the 1960s - 70s, and the view that English needed by particular groups of learners could be identified by analyzing the linguistic characteristics of their specialist area of work or study blossomed.

3. New orientation in educational psychology: by the late 1960s, the need for a practical command of English made the educational psychologists shed light on the importance of the learners in learning process, as a result of which the courses came to be developed in relevance to language learners' needs and interests.

Dudley-Evans and St John (1998, p.5) mention some absolute characteristics for a course to be labeled as ESP which includes, its being designed to meet specific needs of the learners, its making use of the underlying methodology and activities of the discipline it serves, and its being centered on the language, skills, discourse and genre appropriate to those activities.

According to Jordan (1997, p.4), ESP is traditionally conceived of having two main strands: English for Occupational/ Vocational/ Professional Purposes (EOP, EVP, EPP) and English for Academic Purposes (EAP, hereafter). Jordan (1997, pp. 2-4) and Dudley-Evans and St John (1998, pp.39-40) summarize the characteristics of EAP courses as follows: EAP is targeted towards a study purpose and may involve any of the main skills depending on the context which range from an entirely English-speaking ambience (e.g. in UK) to students' own countries where English may be studied as a second or foreign language. The teachers may be native speakers of English or non-native speakers. The course may be pre-sessional, i.e. held before an academic course begins and commonly fulltime, or in-sessionl, i.e. held during an academic term or semester and usually part time. Since the global language skills are central to all language purposes, in most EFL contexts where the subjects are taught in national language but English is included on the timetable, the materials tend to focus on key micro-skills related to the overall macro-skill of reading, they also teach certain lexical and grammatical items relevant to the comprehension of undergraduate academic reading text. Courses may be 'short', e.g. 4-12 weeks or 'long', e.g. 6-12 months, or longer. They may include formal teaching, self-assessment, distance learning, etc.

Jordan (1997, p.4) indicates that ESP has two divisions: "it may be common-core (generally known as 'study skills') or subject-specific". In words of Blue (1988) Jordan introduces other terminologies to refer to these divisions: "English for General Academic Purposes (EGAP)" and "English for Specific Academic Purposes (ESAP)".

### **2.2.1. Approaches to ESP**

Since the emergence of ESP in 1960s, the ESP approach in language teaching has undergone different stages. Due to what features and aspects of language is accounted

for, Jordan (1997) and Richards (2001) outline three main ESP approaches: (1) *register analysis*, (2) *discourse analysis*, and (3) *genre analysis*. Taking genre as an extension of discourse, Hutchinson and Waters (1987) hold '*target situation analysis*' as the third stage. They also believe that ESP is now in its fourth phase that is '*skills and strategies*' with the fifth phase of '*learning-centered approach*' coming to view.

### **2.2.1.1. Register analysis**

This approach to ESP teaching was the focus of study mainly in 1960s and early 1970s. In light of Widdowson (2003, p.61), as English crossed the national boundaries, it was diversified into deviating registers; which he defines as “different encodings of the virtual code potential, particularly with respect to lexis, specially adopted to communicative requirements”. Halliday (1978, p.31 as appeared in Richards, 2001, p.30) states that

“types of linguistic situation differ from one another, broadly speaking, in the three respects: first as regards to what is actually taking place; secondly, as regards what part the language is playing ; and thirdly, as regards who is taking part. These three variables determine the range within which meanings are selected and the forms which are used for their expression. In other words, they determine the “register”.

Halliday and Hasan (1989, p.38) define register as “a semantic concept” which includes “the expressions, lexico-grammatical and phonological features that typically accompany to realize the meaning”.

According to Hutchinson and Waters (1987, p.30) and Widdowson (2003, p.61), the agenda that “language varies according to context of use” gave rise to the formulation of English courses in reference to registers in which higher priority was given to forms that the students would meet in their academic studies or occupational settings. So, as pointed out by Jordan (1997, p.228) statistical analyses were conducted to count the frequency of verb tenses and vocabularies which would then inform the syllabus. These



analyses, however, did not reveal any form that was not found in General English. Eventually, register analysis “proved to be an insubstantial basis for the selection of syllabus items” (Hutchinson and Waters, 1987, p. 30).

### **2.2.1.2. Discourse analysis**

Jordan (1997, p.226) and Richards (2001, p.31), among others, indicate that since register analysis operated at the word and sentence level, a different approach was adopted in late 1970s to obtain information about the structuring of longer stretches of texts. This view is supported by Hutchinson and Waters (1987, p.31) who brings up the point that “... there is more to meaning than just the words in the sentence. The context of the sentence is also important in creating the meaning”; and Widdowson (2003, p.52) who shows that meaning is achieved by making reference to context, assuming a communicative intent, convergence on shared knowledge, common frame of reference and shared values which assigns significance to discourse. So it is not just the matter of knowing the semantic meaning of the words, for the words are schematically connected to form conceptualization of the reality which define the culture of a particular discourse community (Swales 1990). Such community is defined by Swales (1990, pp. 24-27 ) as having the following characteristics:

1. common goal
2. participatory mechanism
3. information exchange
4. a highly specialized terminology
5. a high general level of expertise
6. community specific genres.

Dudly- Evans and St John (1998, p.87) consider discourse studies to involve “the study of cohesive links between sentences, of paragraph structure, or the structure of the whole text” to make statements about how texts work. Taking the scope of

discourse analysis a step further, Jordan (1997, p. 229) states that it also explores the communicative contexts that effect the language use, i.e. the relationship between the discourse and the interlocutors.

The course designers, who assume that the rhetorical patterns of the text organization differ from one specialist area to another, and agree with Widdowson (1974, quoted by Hutchinson and Waters, 1987) in that the difficulties which the students encounter arise from unfamiliarity with English use and not lack of General English knowledge, employ these patterns to form the syllabus of their ESP course.

This approach is criticized by Hutchinson and Waters (1987, p.37) on the account that “it misrepresents the real nature of discourse. It establishes patterns, but does not account for how these patterns create meaning”.

### **2.2.1.3. Genre analysis**

Genre analysis is seen by Jordan (1997, p.58) as a fruitful area of research in the 1980s, continuing to 1990s. On the authority of Swales (1990) genre “comprises a class of communicative events, the members of which share some set of communicative purposes”. These purposes constitute the rationale of the genre which is recognized by the professional members of the discourse community. It is this rationale that shapes the schematic structure and style of a text.

Genre analysis is described by Dudley- Evans and St John (1998, p.87) as an approach to ESP research whose “focus is on the regularities of structure that distinguish one type of text from another type”, and “the results focus on the difference between text types, or genres”. Mayor and Trayner (2001, p.346) interpret genre as often “informing the organizational structure for skills or activities focus of many ESP

and ESAP course books”, which is worthy of a critical understanding on the part of the teacher.

#### **2.2.1.4. Target situation analysis**

Target Situation Analysis is not completely a new approach; except for the fact that it relates language analysis more closely to learners’ reason for learning. As stated by Hutchinson and Waters (1987, p.12), this attitude necessitates courses to start with identifying the target situation in which the learners will find themselves, followed by a rigorous analysis of the linguistic features of that situation, which later form the syllabus. The shortcoming of this perspective of learners’ need is that it has proved to be far too simple.

#### **2.2.1.5. Skills and strategies approach**

While the approaches outlined above are concerned with surface form of language one way or another, this avenue of ESP research attempts to delve into the text and consider the thinking processes that underlie language use. As specified by Hutchinson and Waters (1987, p.14), in learning contexts where students are taught in their native language and their need of English language is reading the specialist texts, ESP courses are engrossed in teaching reading strategies.

In this approach more weight is given to interpretive strategies and reasoning, such as guessing the meaning of the unknown words from the context, determining the type of text, etc., than to forms of language.

This view which favors teaching the underlying processes of interpretation is not specific to any subject register, what is more, it is linguistically supported by cognitive learning theories, in which language learner is seen as thinking beings who rely on their knowledge of how meaning is produced and retrieved to interpret the texts.

### **2.2.1.6. Learning-centered approach**

ESP is said by Hutchison and Waters(1987, p.2) to have been Language –centered in its approach which has provided important insights into the nature of language needs, however, it is stated that for the learning to have lasting value, more attention needs to be paid to the ‘howness’ of language learning than on its ‘whatness’. In other words, while the other approaches are based on description of language use, the main concern in Learning-centered approach is how language is learned. It cannot be simply assumed that describing and exemplifying what people do with language can enable someone to learn it (ibid. 1987, p.14).

### **2.3. ESP course design**

In words of Robinson (1991), Jordan (1997, p.65) defines ESP course design as “the product of a dynamic interaction between a number of elements: the result of the needs analysis, the course designers’ approach to syllabus and methodology, and existing materials (if any)”. For Hutchinson and Waters (1987), Designing a course “is fundamentally a matter of asking questions in order to provide a reasoned basis for the subsequent process of syllabus design, material writing, classroom teaching and evaluation” (p. 21).

Different wordings have been used in the literature to refer to the sub-processes of course design, for example: The online Center for Instructional Development and Research (1999) describes designing a course as a process which involves:

- “1. Asking questions about the students who will take the course,
2. Determining (a) what you want students to learn and (b) how you will know they are learning it, and
3. Designing a set of activities, assignments, and materials that will help you lead these students in their learning.”

On the authority of Nunan (1988), Course design contains three phases of ‘pre-course planning’ in which the language needs and proficiency level is determined, ‘planning content’ that involves content selection and grading, and ‘methodology’ which deals with selecting /designing learning activities and materials. Richards (2001, p.145) enumerates the different levels of planning and development involved in designing a course as follows:

- “- establishing aims and objectives
- developing a course rational
- describing entry and exit level
- choosing course content
- sequencing course content
- planning the course content
- preparing the scope and sequence plan”.

The same process is broken down by Graves (1996, p. 13) into the components below:

- “- needs analysis
- determining goals and objectives
- selecting and developing material and activities
- organization of the content and activities”,

which needs to be completed by evaluation. All these lists of the sub-processes of the course design can be boiled down into the below illustration taken from Hutchinson and Waters (1987, p.22):

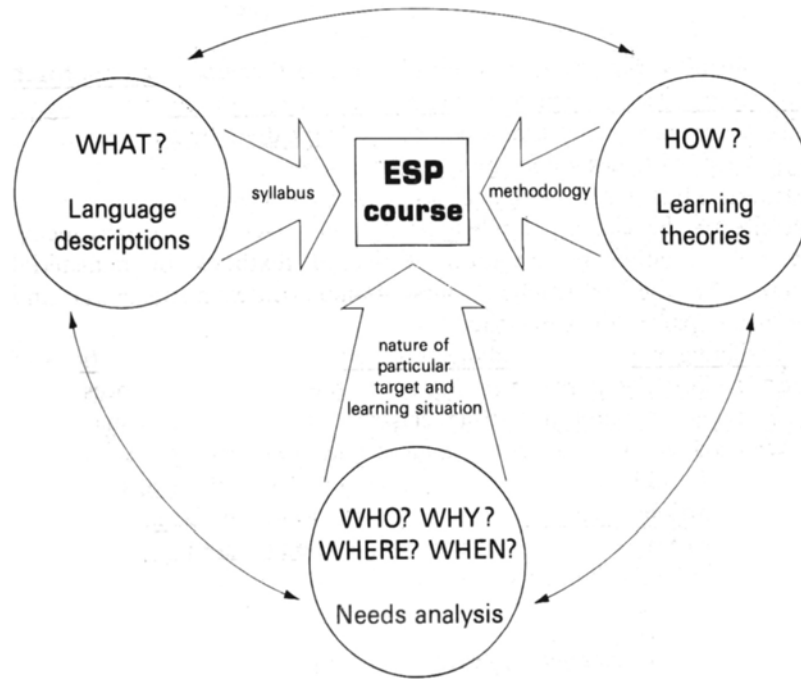


Figure 2.1. Factors affecting ESP course design  
(Hutchinson and Waters, 1987, p.22)

At its most basic ‘needs analysis’ is described by Graves (1996, p. 12) as a process which involves “...finding out what the learners know and can do and what they need to learn or do so that the course can bridge the gap”. As explained by Nunan (1988, p.5) ‘Syllabus design’ is “the specification of what is to be included in a language course”, which entails “the selection, grading and sequencing of the language and other content, and the division of the content into units of manageable materials”. And ‘methodology’ which is employed in implementing the syllabus includes “material selection and development” which involves selection of the learning tasks, activities, exercise types, and the way they are to be presented in a particular setting. Having gone through the above stages, course can be designed and realized by means of timetable and finally evaluated utilizing various kinds of feedback.

‘Language description’ as “the way in which the language system is broken down and described for the purpose of learning” and ‘learning theories’ which “provide the

theoretical basis for methodology” are considered by Hutchinson and Waters (1987, p.24) as implicit in the course design process, and need to be elaborated upon .

### **2.3.1. Language description**

ESP viewed in the general context of ELT, makes direct or indirect use of the linguistic theories. Although not all linguistic findings have pedagogical context, various ideas about language have influenced ESP:

1. Classical/traditional grammar, which inspired register analysis,
2. The structural linguistics that focused on the systematic description of the generative core of language,
3. Transformational Generative Grammar, whose direct influence on language is not enormous. But Chomsky’s distinction between performance and competence, made the ESP practitioners consider the difference between the performance, and the repertoire of the language use. It also had a notable impact on the development of ESP target situation analysis and the competence which provides the basis to deal with the target needs and further learning.
4. Language variation and register analysis, which states that language varies according to context of use, but was proved to be unfounded,
5. Functional/Notional Grammar, which is based on language use, asserts that the categories of human thinking and social behaviour do not vary across languages and it is enough to learn using this already existing knowledge,
6. Discourse analysis, that emphasizes the ways meaning is generated between sentences.(Hutchinson and Waters, 1987, pp. 24-38)

Since each of these linguistic views has its own validity and weaknesses, most courses are developed on an eclectic use of these complimentary linguistic theories.

### 2.3.2. Theories of learning

Understanding how people learn is the starting point for all teaching courses. As maintained by Hutchinson and Waters (1987, pp. 39-52), there are six main stages in developing scientific accounts of learning:

1. Behaviorism, which takes learning as equal to habit formation,
2. Mentalism, that defines learning as acquiring rules,
3. Cognitive code, that describes the learners as thinking beings who learn while they are engaged in interpretation and pattern finding in a given piece of data. Its emphasis on making the students aware of the different reading strategies so that they can consciously apply them to other texts was highly influential in ESP reading courses. Ellis (1994, p.295) characterizes language learning as being engaged in the cognitive systems of “perception, memory, problem solving, information processing, etc”.
4. The affective factor, which interprets learning of a language as an emotional experience. Ellis (1994) mentions numerous studies which testify the complexity and dynamic nature of learners’ affective states and the influence they have on the students’ learning abilities. Thus ESP teachers (among others) consider the students’ motivating factors and the importance of sweetening the learning process by fun and enjoyment and enhancing the students’ sense of achievement;
5. Learning and acquisition, which has it that a good ESP course should try to exploit both conscious and unconscious processes of learning;
6. A model of learning, which sustains that individual items of knowledge only acquire meaning and use when they are connected to a network of existing knowledge; items of knowledge are not of equal significance, and that learning appears to progress in leaps.



It is advised that methodologies and materials should not too narrowly be based on a single theory. So as with the Language description it seems wise to take an eclectic approach.

### **2.3.3. Approaches to course design**

According to Hutchinson and Waters (1987), there are three types of course design:

1. Language-centered course design, which is the simplest and the most familiar approach. It engenders the false belief that since language is systematic then learning itself is also systematic, and fails to account for the fact that learning is internally generated and not externally imposed.
2. Skills-centered course design, which states that the students' need to learn certain skills and strategies underlies any language behaviour. It is derived from the distinction made by Widdowson (1981) between goal-oriented and process-oriented courses, and views ESP as a continuum of constantly developing degrees of proficiency with no cut-off point of success or failure. Thus it is to help the learners develop skills and strategies in order to make them better processors of information.
3. Learning-centered approach, that is based on the principle that learning is determined by the learner. It looks beyond the competence that enables someone to perform, because what we want to discover is not the competence itself but how it is acquired, so it analyzes both the learning and the target situation to write the syllabus (ibid. 1987, pp. 65-77).

### **2.3.4. Specificity in ESP course design**

As believed by Basturkmen (2003, p.48) "ESP courses are often discussed in terms of a two way distinction between 'wide-angled' and 'narrow-angled' designs." The

term 'wide-angled' is used to refer to courses for learners targeting a broad workplace, professional or academic field. The term 'narrow-angled' makes mention of the courses for learners whose aim is to work or study in a particular workplace or academic environment. Holding similar views, Belcher (2006, p.138) differentiates between two types of conceptualizing learners' need of language and task-proficiencies. A 'narrow' one whose focus is on the immediately useful, domain specific language and related tasks and a more 'widely' view that bring to bear a common-core language and language learning strategies for an ever-expanding domain of unpredictable fields and tasks.

The proponents of 'wide-angle' are of the opinion that general language learning strategies can be taught with any carrier content thus instead of designing many different courses for each and every group, a course can be developed for a mixed group of students that target the students' common needs. This type of course design offers the advantage of practicality and economy.

'Narrow-anglers', on the other hand, argue that their position is theoretically defensible with reference to social constructive views of language which are based on the assumption that "disciplines and professions are constructed and reproduced through discursive practice" (Basturkmen, 2003, p.55), and psychological perspective of learning which supports their point that "if any content will do why not choose content that is most relevant to learners' goals and most likely to motivate learners" (Belcher, 2006, p.138). One problem related to narrow-angled design is the students who desire to learn English in order to progress beyond their present position. A second problem is brought up by Widdowson that ESP teaches surface-level linguistics forms but not core grammatical structures and vocabulary which only allows the learner to operate in restricted circumstances. Finally one further difficulty of practical nature

concerns the amount of research and preparation required for designing highly specific ESP courses.

While Basturkmen (2003) resolves the conflict between wide versus narrow approach, by arguing for a third type of ESP course which focuses on the language of a broad field and the language associated with it rather than trying to predict future communication needs, Belcher (2006, p.139) mentions that "... instructional decisions should have more to do with the learners themselves than with instructors preferences or beliefs...". He marks out that a wide-gauge approach is of benefit to people like low literacy level adults and undergraduates without major, while other learners with more specific needs such as graduate students, pilots or nurses may gain most from a narrow approach.

## **2.4. Needs Analysis**

In broad terms needs analysis is defined by Richard (1992, appeared in Jordan, 1997, p.20) as the process of determining the needs for which the learners demand a language and arranging the needs according to precedence.

Brumfit (1977) as quoted by Robinson (1980, p.10), states that "ESP is not necessarily a new approach but a new emphasis in teaching. Part of this emphasis is on the learner rather than the teacher or the educational authorities". This definition gives a lot of weight to Needs Analysis which according to Long (2005, p.51) is "a necessary phase in planning educational programs"; and was "introduced into language teaching through the ESP movement during the 1970s" (Johnson & Johnson, 1999, p.228); the reason for which, according to Cowling (2007, p.427), is that in ESP students' needs are "often clearer and of such a nature that a published textbook would not adequately fulfill their needs". Belcher (2006, p.135) draws attention to the role of needs analysis

in ESP as the foundation on which all other decisions should be made; which makes ESP specialists to be seen, first and foremost, as “needs assessors, than designers and implementers of special curricula in response to identified needs”.

As mentioned by Graves (1996, pp. 14-15) needs analysis is not a once for all activity. It can be conducted in the planning stage, when the teachers have contact with their students prior to teaching the course; in the teaching stage, where it becomes a teaching tool to help students become more aware and more purposeful in their learning; and at the replanning stage, where the stakeholders feel the need for modification in some way.

Mindful of the complex nature of defining students' needs, Munby (1978) has developed a 'Communicative Needs Processor' (CNP) which can help the material designer define the learners' Target and Learning needs. 'Target needs' which refer to what the learners need to do in the target situation is looked at in terms of 'necessities', 'lacks' and 'wants'. 'Necessities' would describe what the learners have to know in order to function in the target situation. Having established what learners already know and estimating the gap between their present level of English proficiency and their target needs, their 'lacks' come to fore. The term 'wants' refers to the learners' image of their needs whose consideration can have influence on learner's motivation.

Graves (1996, p.13) makes a distinction between 'objective' and 'subjective' needs. Quoting from Briendley (1989), she describes objective needs as “derivable from different kinds of factual information about learners, their use of language in real life situations, as well as their current proficiency and language difficulties”; and subjective needs as “ the cognitive and affective needs of the learner in learning situation”, which can be derived from the information about learners' personality type, confidence,