

**THE UNIVERSITY OF HULL**

**English for Specific Purposes (ESP) in Four Technological and Vocational Higher  
Education Institutions in Taiwan,  
with Particular Reference to the Department of Applied Foreign Languages**

**Being a Thesis Submitted in Fulfilment of the Regulations Governing the Award of  
the Degree of Doctor of Education in the  
University of Hull**

**by**

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***This thesis is dedicated to my father, Su, Tseng-Chao, who understood me better than anyone else. Although he has left me, his encouragement and immerse love continue to guide me today just as if he was there with me as he has done all the years gone by.....***

***For my mother, Wang, Shu-O, a strong woman energetically involved with social activities and inspires in me a positive attitude towards life.***

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## ***ABSTRACT***

This thesis examines problems in the teaching of English for Specific Purposes (ESP) in four technological and vocational higher education institutions in Taiwan, with particular reference to the Department of Applied Foreign Languages – English (DAFL-E)/ Department of Applied English (DAE), a newly established department intended to meet the high demand in the job market for English specialists with adequate business knowledge. The Department provides courses in English for specific purposes, in this study, for business purposes. However, students' low English proficiency results in inadequate meeting of the needs of industry.

To understand ESP and the problems that arise in the DAFL-E/DAE, the writer conducted interviews with the Heads and teachers, and surveyed students, in four selected institutions, to seek their views and attitudes towards the work of the Departments and the difficulties they confronted. The policies regarding new teacher qualification requirements and discontinuation of the 5-year junior college programmes were reviewed.

It was found that the DAFL-E/DAE face many challenges. First, specific goals and distinctive features have not been established. ESP is neither recognised nor its specific purposes served. Teacher training to teach ESP is also not developed. Secondly, the departments do not adequately prepare students for future employment, in terms of course design, English proficiency qualification and industrial placement. Students express dissatisfaction towards the Departments. Recommendations are made to the departments, teachers and students with respect to teacher training, team teaching, course design, needs analysis, English proficiency qualification and industrial placement. It is concluded that ESP should be incorporated in business-

related English courses, in order to promote satisfactory attainment in English competence and business-related knowledge, and so contribute effectively to meeting the growing demands of industry.

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## ***ABBREVIATIONS***

<b>BAT</b>	<b>Basic Achievement Test for Junior High Students</b>
<b>BE</b>	<b>Business English</b>
<b>CER</b>	<b>Commission on Educational Reforms</b>
<b>CNP</b>	<b>Communication Needs Processor</b>
<b>DAE</b>	<b>Department of Applied English</b>
<b>DAFL-E</b>	<b>Department of Applied Foreign Languages-English</b>
<b>EAP</b>	<b>English for Academic Purpose</b>
<b>EBE</b>	<b>English for Business and Economics</b>
<b>EFL</b>	<b>English as a Foreign Language</b>
<b>EGPT</b>	<b>English for General Business Purposes</b>
<b>ELT</b>	<b>English Language and Teaching</b>
<b>EOP</b>	<b>English for Occupational Purposes</b>
<b>ESBP</b>	<b>English for Specific Business Purposes</b>
<b>ESL</b>	<b>English as a Second Language</b>
<b>ESP</b>	<b>English for Specific Purposes</b>
<b>ESS</b>	<b>English for Social Science</b>
<b>EST</b>	<b>English for Science and Technology</b>
<b>GATT</b>	<b>General Agreement of Tariff and Trade</b>
<b>GE</b>	<b>General English</b>
<b>GEPT</b>	<b>General English Proficiency Test</b>
<b>GNP</b>	<b>Gross National Products</b>
<b>GPE</b>	<b>General Purpose English</b>

<b>HOD</b>	<b>Head of Department</b>
<b>IELTS</b>	<b>International English Language Testing System</b>
<b>LTTC</b>	<b>Language Training and Test Centre</b>
<b>JUEE</b>	<b>Joint University Entrance Examination</b>
<b>MOE</b>	<b>Ministry of Education</b>
<b>ROC</b>	<b>Republic of China</b>
<b>SAT</b>	<b>Scholastic Attainment Test for College-bound Seniors</b>
<b>SY</b>	<b>School Year</b>
<b>TEFL</b>	<b>Teaching English as a Foreign Language</b>
<b>TESL</b>	<b>Teaching English as a Second Language</b>
<b>TOEFL</b>	<b>Test of English as a Foreign Language</b>
<b>TOEFL-CBT</b>	<b>Test of English as a Foreign Language-Computer Based Testing</b>
<b>TOEIC</b>	<b>Test of English for International Communication</b>
<b>TSA</b>	<b>Target Situation Analysis</b>
<b>TVE</b>	<b>Technological and Vocational Education</b>
<b>WTO</b>	<b>World Trade Organisation</b>

## ***GLOSSARY OF CHINESE TERMS***

<b>Basic Achievement Test for Junior High Students</b>	國中基本學力測驗
<b>Bilateral High School</b>	綜合高中
<b>Commission on Educational Reforms</b>	教育改革審議委員會
<b>Committees on Academic Review and Evaluation</b>	學術審議委員會
<b>Comprehensive Junior-Senior High School</b>	完全高中
<b>Cooperative Education</b>	建教合作
<b>Distribution Centre</b>	物流中心
<b>Institute of Technology</b>	技術學院
<b>Junior College</b>	專科學校
<b>5-year junior college</b>	五專
<b>2-year junior college</b>	二專
<b>3-year junior college</b>	三專
<b>2-year institute of technology (undergraduate programme)</b>	二技
<b>4-year institute of technology (undergraduate programme)</b>	四技
<b>Joint Public Senior High School Entrance Examination</b>	公立高中聯合入學考試
<b>Joint University Entrance Examination</b>	大學聯合入學考試
<b>Multi-route Promotion Programmes for Entering Senior High Schools</b>	高中多元入學方案
<b>Multi-route Promotion Programmes for College-bound Seniors</b>	大學多元入學方案
<b>National Education Law</b>	國民教育法
<b>Nine-year Compulsory Education</b>	九年國民義務教育

<b>Prolonged National Education Based Upon Vocational Education Programme</b>	延長以職業教育為主的國民教育
<b>Scholastic Attainment Test for College-Bound Seniors</b>	學科能力測驗
<b>Security Investment Advisory Company</b>	投顧公司
<b>Technological and Vocational Education (TVE)</b>	技職教育
<b>Technological &amp; Cooperative Education Centre</b>	技合處
<b>University of Technology</b>	科技大學



## INTRODUCTION

### Background of Problems

The Technological & Vocational Education (TVE) in Taiwan has been changed and developed rapidly in the last few years. Since Taiwan became a member of the World Trade Organisation (WTO) (formerly known as General Agreement of Tariff and Trade, GATT), becoming the Asia-Pacific Operation Hub is now the goal of Taiwan's economic development. To achieve this goal, there is increasing necessity for a rise in the number of technical & vocational institutions and a change in the education system. This will produce more specialists in a variety of fields to aid in the realisation of this goal. More 2-year and 4-year institutes/ universities of technology have been set up to meet this need, as well to support the continuity in technological and vocational high schools (Lin, 1996). According to the statistics for 1993, the number of students was about 515,000 at vocational senior high schools, 367,000 at junior colleges and more than 10,000 at institutes/universities of technology. In total, there were about 890,000 students at technical & vocational programmes. The number of students in general senior high schools and universities is only 520,000 out of a total of 1,410,000. This implies that the majority of students, i.e. 63 percent are placed in the track of Technological & Vocational Education. In 1999, the number of students in the TVE 1.36 times that of those in General Education (MOE, 1999).

In past decades in Taiwan, academic achievement has always been highly valued. Most students are encouraged to continue their education, instead of opting for employment opportunities after graduation. In 1987, 68.94 percent of public/private senior vocational high school graduates joined the workforce after graduation. However, in 1993, the number dropped to 56.61 percent. It is worth noting that among public senior high school students, who were considered to be academically

superior, less than 50 percent of graduates chose to work after graduation. The number decreased dramatically from 64.92 percent to 42.37 percent in 1987-1993 (Yu, 1995). In the case of students at junior colleges, more than 90 percent intended to go to university to continue their study right after graduation (Hung, 1994). Consequently, the need to change the objectives of TVE to accommodate the current situation has been pointed out (CER, 1996).

The goal set was to produce employees with competence-based skills. This has had its challenges, e.g. in the curriculum design. There are several existing problems in curriculum design in the track of TVE. Courses designed to meet academic purposes cannot meet the needs of industry. Furthermore, there is a lack of consistency and unity in different course levels of the school systems (Yiao, 1995). Among senior vocational high schools, the 2-year junior colleges and 2-year/ 4-year institutes/universities of technology programmes, some similar curricula have repeated the old and familiar design patterns. In particular the 2-year junior college and 2-year/ 4-year institutes/universities of technology undergraduate programmes have experienced difficulties in curriculum design because the students are not from the same background, so some courses might have been repeated, others not (Kang, 1995).

In Taiwan, students learn English as a second language from junior high school. From the year 2000, English has been taught in the third grade in primary schools. After three, or seven years compulsory English education, due to the diverse educational systems, students may choose to go to senior/ vocational high schools, junior colleges and then all the way to general universities, institutes of technology, universities of technology or graduate schools with different purposes. The question of consistency of course design of English for Specific Purposes (ESP), particularly

in business-related English courses, in different course levels of TVE, in terms of junior college (5-year/2-year) and institutes /university of technology (2-year/4-year) has emerged. In addition, it might be asked if the learning objectives of Department of Applied Foreign Languages-English (DAFL-E) /Department of Applied English (DAE) are attainable or realistic? Have junior colleges, institutes/ universities of technology developed their distinctive features to suit the main characteristics of local industries? Do English courses, business-related English courses in particular, meet the needs of the students and industry? How do institutions and departments prepare teachers for college upgrade? How does the DAFL-E/DAE prepare students to obtain the English Proficiency Qualification? Does students' English proficiency meet the requirements of the labour market? These issues and problems identified are the basis of the research questions outlined in Chapter 4 (Section 4.3).

### **Purposes of Study**

The writer will investigate the issues and problems arising from the DAFL-E/DAE in one junior college, two institutes of technology and one university of technology at four regions of Taiwan. These include Institution A, where the writer is employed. Analysis and comparison will be made with the data examining the current problems of the DAFL-E/DAE. Thus, the study will be of consequence to both educational authorities and the institutions in Taiwan in the task of course design and training teachers for ESP, with the role of business-related English in particular focus.

## **CHAPTER ONE**

### **BACKGROUND OF TAIWANESE EDUCATION**

#### **1.1. The History of Taiwan**

Off the eastern coast of Asia, in the Western Pacific, lies a mountainous island, Taiwan, separated from the Chinese mainland by the Taiwan Strait (Map1.1). The most important feature of Taiwan's topography is the central range of high mountains running from the north-east corner to the southern tip of the island. On the east coast, the mountains rise steeply from the Pacific. To the west, the level lies just below the surface of the sea. The territory includes Taiwan, Penghu, Kinmen and Matus, with a total land area of 36,179 square kilo metres and the population is over 22,276,000 as of year 2000. The population density of the Republic of China (ROC) on Taiwan is 616 persons per sq km, making it the second highest in the world. The ancestors of the indigenous people of Taiwan came mostly from the south-eastern coastal provinces of the Chinese mainland, particularly Fukien and Kwangtung. The history of Taiwan after 1949 is one of rapid and far-reaching change over a short period. Its rapid industrialisation, urbanisation and modernisation over the last five decades have dramatically transformed the lives of the people of the island. In the late 1940s, the Chinese communists instigated a civil war on the mainland and founded the "People's Republic of China" (PRC) in 1949. Consequently, the government of the ROC, Asia's first democracy, founded by Dr. Sun Yat-Sen in 1912 by overthrowing Ching Imperial Dynasty, relocated to Taiwan. Since then, the Taiwan area and the mainland area have been two separate political entities (ROC, 2003).

Following nearly fifty years of Japanese colonisation, Taiwan was turned into a frontline of the cold war by an influx of around one and half a million soldiers and

civilians from the Chinese mainland. While the economy of Taiwan was still trying to recover from the heavy allied bombing during World War II, the aid from the U.S. and the successful land reforms programme laid the foundations for a future economic takeoff. Led by two policies, import substitution and export promotion, the resource-poor, labour-abundant island soon secured an international reputation as an exporter to the world. Between 1962 and 1985, Taiwan's economy witnessed the most rapid growth in its history. In the 1980s, a highly equitable distribution of income, which was a major objective in the government's economic planning, was reached. After the martial law was lifted in 1987, non-government civilian contacts between Taiwan and the Chinese mainland were allowed. Since then, a significant economic trend beginning with the substantial increase investment by the ROC business community on the Chinese mainland, though politically divided, has shaped the new state of affairs between two sides of Taiwan Straits (ROC, 2003).

Following the lifting of martial law, the legalisation of labour strikes, demonstrations, the formation of new political parties and the freedom of newspapers and publishing gave greater power to the people. Politically, in spite of restrictions under martial law, the ROC government has long upheld local self-government. Beginning in 1950, all the chief executive and representative bodies under the provincial level were directly elected by the people. In 1996, the democratisation process peaked with the direct election of the ROC president. Culturally, Taiwan has spared no efforts to preserve historical and cultural tradition, which has been profoundly influenced by Confucianism and gradually become the mainstream of the oriental civilisation. This tradition includes a strong focus on education. Much of the credit for Taiwan's steady economic growth must go to the spread of universal education throughout the island. Since 1949, the government has expanded education and raised the literacy rate. Even the ROC constitution requires an allocation of the

national budget for educational purposes. By 1969, the rate of illiteracy dropped to 15.3 percent, and as of the end of 2000, the national illiteracy rate stood at 4.45 percent. The rate continues to decrease as the enrolment rate for school-age children remains high, at 90.77 percent for those aged between 6 and 21, in 2001, while the number of the illiterate, older generation shrinks year by year (ROC, 2003).

**Map 1.1: Geographic Location of Taiwan**



## 1.2. Introduction to the Educational System in Taiwan

A formal education system governed by written regulations has been implemented since 1902. In general, it requires a minimum of 16 years to complete the first degree from the elementary school. The education process includes two years at a kindergarten (age 4-5), six years at an elementary school (age 6-11), three years at a junior high school (age 12-14), three years at senior (vocational) high school (age 15-17), and higher education of varying duration (MOE, 2001a) (Figure 1.1). Nine years of education has been compulsory since 1968. In SY2000<sup>1</sup>, approximately 95.31 percent of all junior high graduates continued their studies in either senior high or vocational high school. At the age of 14, students who complete grade nine have to sit for a two-day Joint Public Senior High School Entrance Examination held regionally, under the patronage of the Ministry of Education and the Provincial or City Bureau of Education. Moreover, those who want to get into colleges or universities after graduation from senior high schools have to sit for the national-wide Joint University Entrance Examination (JUEE).

The examination system can be traced back to the time of Confucius, when it was called the Imperial Examination. The traditional examination system is highly centralised, yet, “the open, fair, and competitive examination system that had ensured a dedicated, hard-working, and intellectual civil service system had survived virtually unaltered for nearly fifteen hundred years” (Smith, 1991, p.21). The legacy of this examination system can be seen in modern education practices today in Taiwan. The

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<sup>1</sup> A school year (SY) refers to a one-year period from August 1 of the current year to July 31 of the next year, e.g. SY2000 covered the period from August 1, 2000 to July 31, 2001. A school year is divided into two semesters. The first semester covers the period from August 1 of the current year to January 31 of the next year, and the second semester, from February 1 to July 31 of the next year (Ministry of Education, 2001a).



exam was designed to ensure the academic proficiency of students admitted to the high schools and universities and to reduce the influence of family background or wealth. “The exam was an egalitarian move toward making merit, rather than money,” said Smith (1999, pp12-13). Though few people are happy with the way the examination is conducted, since it is held only once per year and one’s future is determined by a two-day exam, nobody doubts the necessity of examinations, and nobody has yet found a better alternative (Boyd & Lee, 1993).

Nevertheless, dissatisfaction with this highly competitive system, which places tremendous stress on young people, has been increasing. Usually, college-bound 17-year-old youngsters have to devote at least a year to test preparation, often attending both regular senior high schools and “Bu-Si-Ban” (cram schools). Those who fail will spend another full year preparing in cram schools to retake the exams. Moreover, the exams over-emphasise rote memorisation of texts, which prevents students from developing creativity and independent thinking. The severe criticism of both the Joint Public Senior High School Entrance Examinations and the Joint University Entrance Examinations is due to the fact that they dominate academic activities, turning students into test-taking machines. Consequently, as a part of educational reforms, starting in years 2001 and 2002 correspondingly, both the Joint Public Senior High School Entrance Examinations and the almost 50-year, long-history of Joint University Entrance Examination were abolished and replaced with Multi-route Promotion Programmes for Entering Senior High Schools and Universities, through which students have more choices and less stress from taking exams. The Multi-route Promotion Programmes for Entering Senior High Schools and College-bound Seniors require a Basic Achievement Test (BAT) for junior high school students and Scholastic Attainment Test (SAT) for senior high school students (ROC, 2003). On top of these, students can file applications, and be selected by recommendation. Since

these new programmes have only been recently implemented, further evaluations are expected.

The students who graduate from junior high have the options of senior high schools, senior vocational high schools, 5-year junior colleges, military schools, or supplementary schools. Professional training and various industrial training programmes are also available to those students who do not wish to pursue formal study. However, sometimes, the students are channelled by the exams into a particular path long before they have any clear idea about their future in the workplace and society (Smith, 1999).

A further reform was the introduction on a trial basis in SY 1996 of bilateral high schools and comprehensive junior-senior high schools, which offer both academic and vocational curricula (ROC, 2003). They admit junior high graduates who may delay their choice between general and vocational education. Prior to this decision, students receive tests and advice to help them to make a choice. Students who have made a decision may sign up for a combination of senior high and senior vocational courses “to increase their common knowledge and reach a goal of personally-tailored development” (MOE, 2001a, p.34).

From 1971 to 1982, the number of students admitted into senior high schools gradually declined, while with the number of students entering senior vocational high schools increased to meet the growing demand for skilled workers in the rapidly growing economy. However, later, when demand for high-quality professions increased, educational policies were reversed. By SY2000, the ratio of senior high school students to those in senior vocational high school (including those in the first three years of the 5-year college programme) was 45.5 to 54.5 and 68.74 percent of senior high school graduates chose to pursue higher education (ROC, 2003). Following the completion of the JUEE after graduation from senior high school or

senior vocational high school, the graduates may be admitted to general universities, or 2-year junior colleges and 4-year institutes of technology (Figure 1.1 and 1.2). 30 percent of the students enter the general university track while 70 percent are directed into a vocational track (Boyd & Lee, 1994).

Apart from general university, higher education covers junior college, which will be introduced in more detail in the next section, institutes of technology, universities of technology, and graduate schools. Junior colleges primarily offer courses in applied sciences, with the aim of training students to be skilled workers after graduation. The general college, university, and graduate programmes offer a wide variety of Master's and Doctoral programmes. The education principally focuses on advanced study in order to train the students to become professional personnel. In 1950, there were only one university, three colleges, and three junior colleges with 6,665 students. Due to economic development and the resultant high demand for professional personnel, the government has established additional colleges and universities and has also allowed the private sectors to set up such institutions. As of SY2000, there were 150 higher education institutions, admitting 1,092,102 students, or 49.41 per 1,000 population, one of the highest rates of enrolment in the world (ROC, 2003) (Table 1.1). Universities can be classified, based on their admission requirements.

- **General Universities.** It usually admits senior secondary graduates to receive four years of education.
- **Institute of Technology and University of Technology.** These are the vocational tracks. The 2-year institute of technology programme admits 5/ 2-year junior college graduates to receive two more years of education to obtain a bachelor degree. Since SY1988, a 4-year institute of technology programme was introduced to admit senior/ vocational high school graduates for four-year study to

obtain a bachelor degree (Table 1.2) (MOE, 1999, p. XXXI).

Since 1994, the new political freedom has brought into question the education system. The Ministry of Education has planned for educational reforms, which will be discussed later; in particular, attention will be paid to the Technological and Vocational Education.

### **1.3. Technological and Vocational Education in Taiwan**

#### **1.3.1. Historical Background**

Technological and Vocational Education (TVE) has played an essential role in Taiwan's economic transformation. From the 1950s to 1960s, the domestic production was moved from labour-intensive to skill-intensive and the transition was completed in the 1970s. One of the features of Taiwan's manufacturing industry was the domination by small and medium business, which generally required workers with only basic education and skills. In 1979, Taiwan created its own "silicon valley" to develop higher technology as a process to uplift its future economy. After 1980, the industry entered a capital-intensive, even more technology-intensive phase. Consequently, there was an increased demand for individuals with well developed managerial and leadership skills. Therefore, TVE was developed to meet the needs of upgraded industry, and thereby enhance competitiveness in the international economy and boost national economic development (Wu, 1995).

In order to understand how higher education was diverted to expansion of vocational high schools and junior college levels as separate streams from general (academic) high schools and colleges, it is necessary to explain further the background of the expansion of junior high schooling, which was made free and compulsory in 1968. Before 1968, primary school graduates who wanted to go to junior high school had to pay tuition fees and pass entrance examinations, which

prevented many young people from continuing their education and caused them to enter the labour market directly. As mentioned above, the labour-intensive industrial expansion in 1960s and 1970s required a large labour force with basic skills, but not with the advanced knowledge and technical skills associated with higher education. The education policy was based largely on the work force needs of the economy. This also explains why there was no effort by government to expand mass schooling at the senior high level because the economy did not require large numbers of technically trained and highly skilled workers. However, the expansion of junior high education, simultaneously produced “overqualified workers for the available market and jeopardized the quality of these institutions and their role in preparing future elites” (Liu & Armer, 1993, p.319), causing public pressure for expansion of senior high schooling and higher education to accommodate the increasing numbers of junior high graduates. The solution to this dilemma was to expand and develop the streams of vocational schooling at the senior high and junior college level as part of a stratified education system.

The first institute of technology was established in order to provide further education opportunities for graduates of vocational high schools and junior colleges. More universities of technology were added, offering Master’s and Doctoral programmes. Currently, to meet Taiwan’s new needs as an aspiring a regional operations hub, the TVE is also entering a new era to make a gradual transition from the current planning-directed mode to a more market-oriented approach. Promotion of a more flexible TVE system, more open to the general public and with a diversified curriculum to provide lifelong learning opportunities is expected. For the long run, the TVE system has kept pace with national economic growth, industry changes, social needs and technological advancement, by continuously adjusting to meet the real work force needs (MOE, 2001b).

### **1.3.2. Programmes and Organisations**

TVE in Taiwan is provided at three levels: vocational high schools, junior colleges and institutes/universities of technology. In addition, the technical art programmes are provided at an early stage in junior high school, to help students gain career awareness. The junior high school programme had been divided into academic and vocational tracks. However, in 1970, the junior high vocational programme was abolished after the implementation of Nine-year Compulsory Education in 1968. As a result, in accordance with the National Education Law, some of the vocational courses were merged into the junior high curriculum to meet both academic and vocational needs. In 1992, the MOE implemented the Prolonged National Education Based Upon Vocational Education Programme, which became an extension of the Nine-year Compulsory Education system in 1993. In addition, as mentioned previously, an experimental programme of bilateral and comprehensive junior/ senior high schools, which include academic and vocational programmes, has been conducted since 1996 (ROC, 2003).

The modern junior college system of post-secondary education devoted to vocational education in Taiwan started with 3-year junior college programmes in 1960 and was followed by the 5-year junior college programmes in 1963 (Boyd & Lee, 1993). Apart from the 5-year junior college programmes, which usually enrol students directly from junior high schools, there are also 2-year junior colleges, 3-year junior colleges, and institutes/ universities of technology. Students can apply to any of these institutions from either senior high or senior vocational high schools. In addition, on completion of any junior college programme, students may take the relevant exams to enter institutes/ universities of technology or transfer to general universities (Figure 1.2). The junior college system is broken down into three distinct

programmes (Table 1.2):

- 5-year junior college programmes encompass the first three years of senior high school, and the last two years of post-secondary work. This programme was formerly most popular in Taiwan before. Students who are admitted into the 5-year junior college programmes can avoid additional entrance examinations, which are set for more traditional institutions of higher learning (Boyd & Lee, 1994). However, in SY2000, 35,848 students, fewer than 13 percent of all junior high graduates studied in this type of institutions. Starting in SY2001, the 5-year junior college programmes have been discontinued in some institutes/ universities of technology (ROC, 2003).
- 2-year junior college programmes admit senior/ vocational high school graduates. Students shall receive two years of education. In SY2000, a total number of 93,645 students graduated from this programme (ROC, 2003).
- 3-year junior college programmes admit senior/ vocational high school graduates to study for three years. They have decreased in number and importance, stopped enrolling freshmen in 1996. Most 3-year junior colleges have been gradually transformed into institutes of technology. As of SY2000, there are only four students remained in 3-year junior college programme (MOE, 2001a).

As mentioned above, the 3-year junior college programme has been discontinued year by year since 1996 and replaced with the predominant 2-year junior college programme. Admission is no longer restricted to senior vocational high school students as it used to be. To improve the quality of education and to meet the requirements of industry, as a result of the evaluation by academic committees appointed by the MOE, some junior colleges will be elevated to 4-year institute/university of technology status (Boyd & Lee, 1993). In SY2000, 16 junior colleges were upgraded to institutes of technology or universities of technology, and

only 23 junior colleges remain, of which 19 are private (ROC, 2003). In the year 2000 and 2001, the entrance examinations for the 5-year and 2-year junior colleges respectively were abolished. Instead, students can apply to the institutions in which they are interested and the students' performance in general will be considered, including art, physical education, leadership, and extra-curricula activities, with certain grades required for admission, instead of relying on academic achievement only.

Junior college has proved to be a stabilising influence on Taiwanese society and it allows Taiwanese students who are not qualified for general university admission to obtain a higher level of education, which usually results in better jobs and greater power, which, in turn, "feeds economic prosperity" (Smith 1999, p.11). This junior college phenomenon in the Republic of China on Taiwan is "a direct response to the need to create a skilled and trained labour force" (Boyd & Lee, 1993, p.57). However, with the rapid change in society and the needs of advanced technology in Taiwan, its importance has been waning.

Institutes /universities of technology, the highest levels of TVE in Taiwan, provide undergraduate and graduate programmes, to develop professional personnel with advanced skills. Some of them also include junior colleges, which are the 5-year and 2-year programmes. The undergraduate programmes are 2-year and 4-year institute/ university of technology and the graduate programmes include Master's and Doctoral programmes. Bachelor, Master's and Doctoral degrees are conferred respectively on completion of the courses. These institutions also offer in-service training courses (MOE, 2001b) (Table 1.2). Specialisations offered by technological and vocational schools, junior colleges, and institutes /universities of technology include the following categories: industry, agriculture, commerce, home economics, marine production, pharmacology, nursing, medical technology, physical education,



arts, music, opera, languages, food service and others (Table 1.3).

## **1.4. The Educational Reforms in Taiwan in regard of TVE**

### **1.4.1. The Background**

Popularisations of education and good citizenship have achieved the development of economic and political democracy of the Republic of China on Taiwan. In 1951, there was one student in every 7.16 persons of the population and 1.73 percent of GNP (Gross National Products) was invested in education. In 1995, the situation had improved to the extent that one in every four persons was a student and 6.75 percent of GNP was utilised in education (CER, 1996). Nevertheless, many problems of educational development have been revealed in these years, without solution; for example, the rigidity and inflexibility of the system, the gap between the academic education and the demands of a rapidly changing society, curriculum and assessment, teacher education and inordinate emphasis on academic examination, etc. Thus, the call for sweeping reforms has been intensive. In September 1994, Executive Yuan, ROC organised the Commission on Educational Reforms (CER). The committee was responsible for analysing the problems of the education system and suggesting reforms. The final report was made public at the end of 1996 and included suggestions for the implementation of multiple channels of access to advanced study without relying solely on examinations, the allocation of educational resources, adult education, teacher training and curriculum changes. The key concept underlying these reforms is flexibility (ROC, 2003).

### **1.4.2. Ideals & Aims**

One of the main ideals of the educational reforms is decentralisation. Central Government, primarily to guarantee the quality of education, has dominated the

side effects. Therefore, decentralisation is a necessary task of re-construction to adapt to social democracy. The plan is to “initially regulate the Education Fundamental Law and then examine and revise the educational regulation system”, suggested by the Commission (CER, 1996, p.14). Decentralisation of higher education is to include not only the increase in the capacity of institute/ university of technology but multiple types and functions. Reasonable distribution of the education resources, active involvement of the local people, and less control of fees should also be taken into account. The Final Report of Educational Reforms also recommended developing higher education institutions with distinguishing features, including general universities, research-oriented universities, institutes /universities of technology, multi-tech colleges, Open Universities and community colleges.

Modernisation, fulfilment of the needs of individuals and society, life-long learning, re-construction of the educational system and social mobilisation are the aims of the educational reforms. The administration of the educational system needs to be improved due to its ineffectiveness. It has been suggested that revising the educational regulations is the key. The design of the educational system should be flexible and avoid mainstreaming at an early stage.

In the Educational Reform Act, it is emphasised that Technological & Vocational Education, one of the important policies of Ministry of Education, should

- establish a consistent and flexible system from vocational high school to institute/ university of technology, including upgrading well-performing junior colleges to institutes/ universities of technology;
- continue the trial of comprehensive high schools, including curriculum planning and teacher training;
- elevate the quality of TVE, emphasising curriculum consistency and students' basic competency;

- implement a certificate system, encouraging both students and teachers to be certified and recognising the equivalency of diploma and certification.

(MOE, 2002)

### **1.4.3. The Problems of Technological & Vocational Education Development**

In 1968, the government of the ROC had extended compulsory education to 9 years. Mainstreaming in the educational system started after junior high school. According to the statistics, nearly 20,000 senior vocational high school students try to enter the universities every year. In 1995, there were 98,000 5/ 2-year junior college graduates and 9,700 signed up for the exams for transferring to general universities. Evidently, the TVE needs to be re-examined. Furthermore, the current joint entrance examinations place too much emphasis on academic courses. The recruitment of senior high, senior vocational high school, 2-year, 5-year junior college, even the general university, 2-year, 4-year institute/ university of technology is not integrated. Obviously, the system of mainstreaming is too rigid and the pathways offered are not clear.

#### ***Decline of Technological & Vocational Education in its functions***

In the current educational system, the number and types of schools, and number of students are all influenced by labour planning. However, they do not meet the needs of the society any more. Moreover, the students tend to move on to further study, instead of entering into the work force immediately after graduation, and what they learn at school is no longer enough for employment.

#### ***Insufficiency of basic competence of the students***

Over-emphasis on a single skill has neglected the importance of basic competence of the students, which has endangered their future careers, in case they need to be changed.

### ***Monotony and inflexibility of the educational system***

It is difficult for the students to transfer between different types of institutions and they need to re-take exams to move on in their studies but it is also hard to harmonise the school systems.

(CER, 1996)

#### **1.4.4. The Upgrade from Junior Colleges to Institutes/ Universities of Technology**

In 1967, the student ratio between senior high schools and senior vocational high schools was 6:4. For the development of the economy, more basic technical manpower was needed. Therefore, a policy of establishing of more senior vocational high schools and 5-year junior colleges, more departments and classes was implemented. Thus, the student ratio had adjusted to 3:7 in 1982 (CER, 1996). However, with the change of social, economical structure, the policy of cultivating more senior vocational high school and 5-year junior college students needs to be adjusted again. In an Educational White Paper it states that the student ratio of senior high to vocational senior high schools will be adjusted from 3:7 to 5:5 (Chuang, 1995). In the meantime, as the Commission on Educational Reforms (1996) suggested, the 5-year/ 2-year junior colleges, in which teaching is focused on vocational skills, can be elevated into 2-year institutes of technology, while institutes of technology, which emphasise advanced professional technology, can be upgraded to universities of technology. The reasons are as below.

- A high percentage of senior vocational high schools graduates used to provide high quality manpower for the industry. However, due to the increase of GNP, people, especially parents, are more willing to invest in education. In the other words, parents would rather prepare their children in “Bu-Si-Ban” (cram schools) to re-take the entrance exams for higher education than have them work in low-

status occupations after graduation from senior/ vocational high school (CER, 1996).

- Technological and Vocational Education is not given the respect it deserves. Apart from the reason of aspiration for promotion, mainly it is because of the limited progression pathways for the graduates of senior vocational high schools and junior colleges. In 1984, there were fifty-two general universities for senior high school graduates, but only six 2-year/ 4-year institutes/universities of technology for 5-year/2-year junior college and senior vocational high school graduates. Hence, most of the junior college graduates would like to take the transferring examination to the general universities (Wu, 1995). According to an Education White Paper, 90 percent of candidates in this transferring examination are the 5-year and 2-year junior college graduates (Chuang, 1995). Thus, students often do not pay attention to the core courses. Instead, they focus on courses related to the transferring exams on their final year of study. Teaching quality has been seriously affected.
- According to the statistics, in SY1994, junior high graduates are numbered 370,000. Nevertheless, the capacity of senior/ vocational/ military high schools, 5-year junior colleges, which are the pathways for junior high school graduates, has risen to 450,000. Evidently, most high schools and 5-year junior colleges will not have sufficient students. Noticeably, most junior colleges are privately funded. Insufficiency of enrolment will therefore threaten school survival. Reforming senior high schools to senior vocational high schools or comprehensive high school, and elevating junior colleges to institute/universities of technology is one of the solutions (Chuang, 1995).

#### **1.4.5. Suggestions by the Commission on Educational Reforms**

##### ***Decrease of the school and student numbers of vocational senior high schools and junior colleges***

Because the industrial structure has been changed, the need for manpower with basic skills is less than before. The demand of the market should be taken into account when designing different course levels of institutions and their departments.

##### ***Flexibility and multiform of Technological & Vocational Education system***

Institutes/ universities of technology could include junior college programme to form a flexible system.

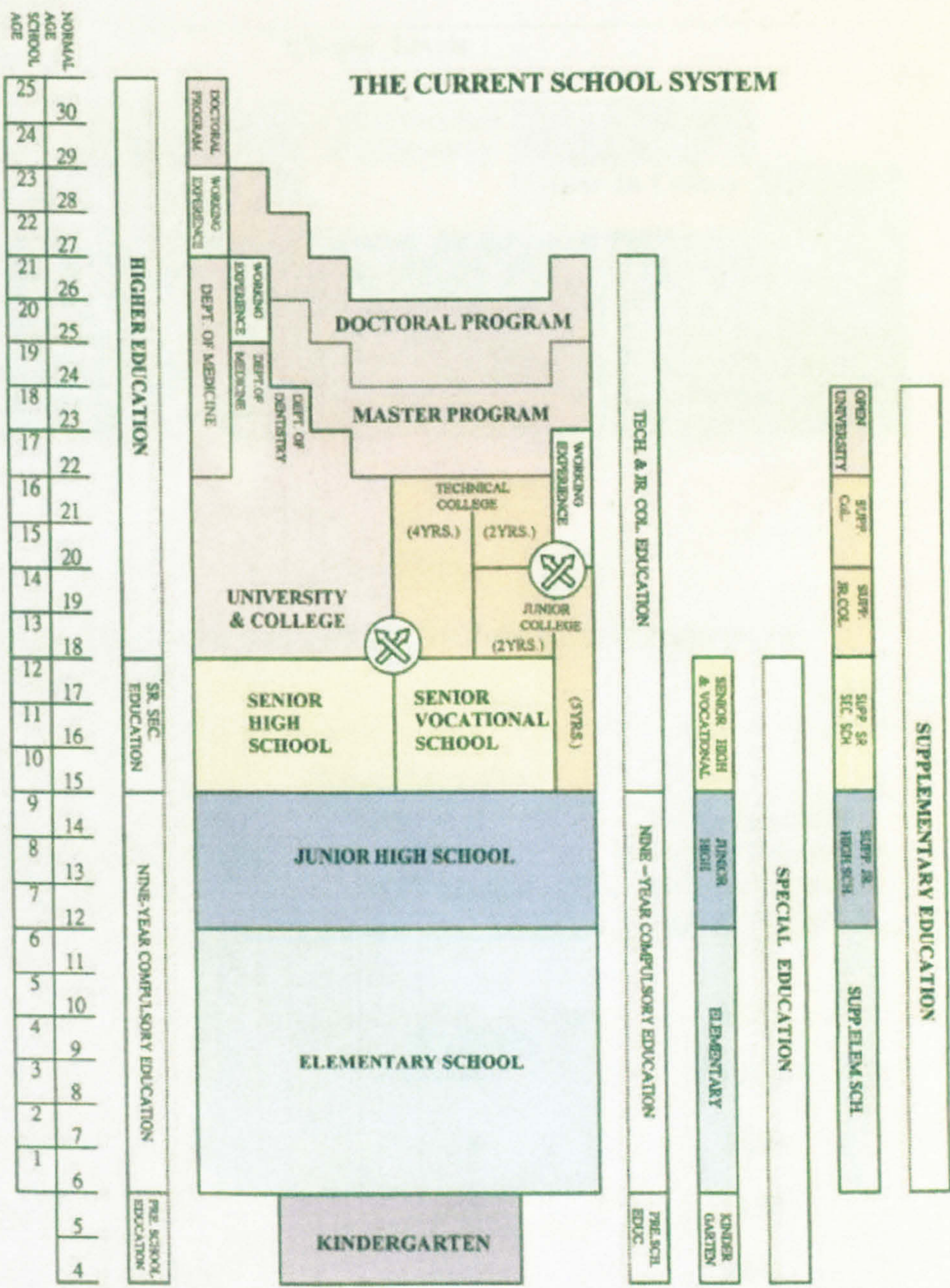
##### ***Reinforcement of professional qualifications***

The diploma or degree is not the only verification of professional value. Introduction of professional qualifications is necessary.

#### **1.5. Summary**

In this chapter, the history of Taiwan, the Taiwanese education system in general, and Technological & Vocational Education in particular, have been introduced. The background, ideals & aims and challenges of educational reforms have been described. The issue of the upgrade from junior colleges to institute of technology and university of technology has been discussed. In the following chapter, the Department of Applied Foreign Languages- English at four institutions, including one junior college, two institutes of technology and one university of technology and their location sites will be introduced.

Figure 1.1: The Current School System in Taiwan



Source: Cited in the Ministry of Education, 1999

**Figure 1.2: The Connections among Junior High School, Senior/Vocational High School, 5/ 2-year Junior College and 2/ 4-year Institute /University of Technology**

Age	Diploma/ Degree	Course Levels			
21	Bachelor	University	4-year Institute of Technology	2-year Institute of Technology	5-year Jr. College
20					
19	Diploma			2-year Jr. College	
18					
17	Diploma	Senior High School	Vocational High School		
16					
15					
14	Diploma	Junior High School			
13					
12					

**Table 1.1: Enrolment Rates and Students as 1/10 Percent of Population in Higher Education**

School Yr.	Higher Education			
	Net Enrolment Rate %	Gross Enrolment Rate %	Students as 1/10 percent of Population	Students as 1/10 Percent of Population (incl. Open Uni. & Supp. Jr. College.)
76'	9.97	15.70	14.27	14.27
81'	11.47	18.71	15.17	16.53
86'	14.24	25.18	17.73	19.89
91'	20.98	37.92	24.18	26.80
96'	29.07	47.71	31.52	34.33
00'	38.70	68.42	40.55	49.41

Source: Cited in the Ministry of Education, 2001a, p.37.



**Table 1.2: The Course Levels and Programmes Offered in Higher Education Institutions of the TVE**

<b>Course Levels</b>	<b>Main Programmes Offered</b>	<b>Remarks</b>
<b>Junior College</b>	▪ 5-year junior college	▪ Accept the students from junior high schools (age 15) and offer a 5-year programme with a diploma.
	▪ 2-year junior college	▪ Accept the students from senior/ vocational high schools (age 18) and offers a 2-year programme with a diploma.
	▪ 3-year junior college (eliminated in 1996)	▪ Accept the students from senior/ vocational high schools (age 18) and offer a 3-year programme with a diploma.
<b>Institute of Technology</b>	▪ 2-year institute of technology	▪ Accept the students from 5-year/2-year junior colleges (age 20) and offer a 2-year undergraduate programme with a bachelor degree.
	▪ 4-year institute of technology	▪ Accept the students from 5-year/2-year junior colleges (age 20) and offer a 2-year undergraduate programme with a bachelor degree.
<b>University of Technology</b>	▪ 2-year institute of technology	▪ Accept the students from 5-year/2-year junior colleges (age 20) and offer a 2-year undergraduate programme with a bachelor degree.
	▪ 4-year institute of technology	▪ Accept the students from senior/ vocational High schools (age 18) and offer a 4-year Undergraduate programme with a bachelor degree.
	▪ Graduate programmes	▪ Accept the students who hold a bachelor degree and offer a graduate programme.

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**Table 1.3: Vocational Fields and Courses in the Technological and Vocational Education in Taiwan**

<b>Catalogues</b>	<b>Courses</b>	
<b>Industry</b>	<b>Mechanical</b>	Machinery, Matrix, Charting, Casting, Metal Plate, Pipe Repair, Motor Vehicle, Machinery and Wooden Model, Heavy Machine, Machine Electricity
	<b>Electronics</b>	Information System, Electric Machinery, Electron, Control Restrict, Refrigerate and Air Conditioner, Avionics, Repair and Defend of Plane
	<b>Civil Engineering and Architecture</b>	Construction and Building, Construct, Furniture and woodworking, Interior Design
	<b>Chemical Industry</b>	Chemical Industry, Spinning and Weaving, Dyeing and Renovation
	<b>Craft Techniques</b>	Art and Design, Printing, Metal Technology, Pottery, Environmental Studies
<b>Commerce</b>	Business Management, Catering, International Trade, Accounting, Data Processing, Official Dispatch Affairs, Layout Design, Tourism, Real Estate, Applied Foreign Languages (English, Japanese)	
<b>Agriculture</b>	Farms Management, Agricultural Construction, Food Processing, Livestock Products Care, Forest, Gardens, Agriculture Construction and Building, Landscape Gardening, Agriculture Product Marketing	
<b>Home Economics</b>	Home Economic, Beauty Salon, Clothing, Early Childhood Care and Education, Interior Design, Food Products	
<b>Marine and Aquatic Products</b>	Navigation, Turbine, Management of Marine, Fishery, Fishery Business, Aquatic Products, Aquatic Management, Electron Correspond	
<b>Medical Science</b>	Nursing	
<b>Arts</b>	Art, Dancing, Movie and Drama, Music, Traditional Music, Movie and Video, Drama	

Source: Cited in the Ministry of Education, 1999

## CHAPTER TWO

### BACKGROUND OF THE DEPARTMENT OF APPLIED FOREIGN LANGUAGES-ENGLISH

#### 2.1. Introduction to the Department of Applied Foreign Languages-English (DAFL-E/DAE) in Taiwan

English is now used as a first or second language by more than 745 million people around the world, as reported in U.S News and the World Report 1985. It has become the world-wide *lingua franca* in tourism, aviation, diplomacy or pop culture, and most importantly, in science, technology and commerce. Both internationally and intra-nationally, English has served as a communication tool in business and technology, which are the driving forces behind today's increasingly global economy (Huckin, 1988). The importance of English in Taiwan can be attributed to the rapid economic development and enormous needs of international business. For communications between individuals who do not share the same mother tongue, they need to use a common language. The English language could meet that need. Therefore, those who have no knowledge of English are disadvantaged because of the needs of the growth of business and need for access to much scientific and technical literature (Albazzaz, 1994). Thus, English has been introduced as the first foreign language by the Taiwanese government and will be elevated to an official second foreign language in six years. Brumfit stated the importance of English as:

*English is the most widespread medium of international communication, both because of the number and geographical spread of its speakers, and because of the large number of non-native speakers who use it for part at least of their international contact.*

(quoted in Albazzaz, 1994, p.103)

Kennedy and Bolitho (1984) explained the role of English as most importantly a medium of communication in business, government and education and as a subject on the institutional curricula. In the labour market, when contact with foreign agencies is required, the demand for English is greater. Accordingly, more appropriate English courses, English for Specific Purposes (ESP) in particular, need to be provided, especially in the field of vocational education (Albazzaz, 1994). These demands and requirements have resulted in the expansion of English Language Teaching and ESP. Moreover, the needs are usually from the learners who have no needs for “general” English provided as a typical secondary school English course, but wish to learn English for particular purposes in relation to their studies or jobs (Kennedy & Bolitho, 1984).

In the Final Report of the Commission on Educational Reforms, it was stated clearly that due to industrial development and to adapt to the change in the manpower structure, it is imperative to “equip students with competence in adaptability to social change, communication, language, mathematics, science, problem-solving and professional ethics”(CER, 1996, p.16). There has been a shift of student interest to sectors, which directly support rapid industrialisation. Managerial work has shown a 2.8 percent rise, clerical work has shown a 17.2 percent rise and transportation and communications have gained 8.5 percent (Boyd & Lee, 1993). The situation was illustrated in the previous chapter in Table 1.3, which showed how vocational fields and courses are distributed in the Technological and Vocational Institutions.

In this context, the importance of English in education, especially in vocational education, led to the establishment of Department of Applied Foreign Languages-English (DAFL-E), also known as the Department of Applied English (DAE), which caters for the need for English in Taiwan’s workplaces. Its establishment was

approved by the Ministry of Education (MOE) in 1993, to adapt to the trend in national economic development. "Applied English" means applying the English language as a communication tool in the fields of business and the science of information technology, to cultivate would-be technicians with competence-based skills. It focuses on the Basic English Language proficiency in listening, speaking, reading and writing and the professional skills in international business and information technology, to meet the demands of industry. Thus, the general educational goal has been set as training students to have professional knowledge in foreign languages, international business, catering and tourism. The basic goal is to equip students with basic communication skills in foreign languages (English). The objective of courses designed is for the students to learn the usage of English language, in addition, to apply English for specific purposes-ESP, in particular with business-related English in the case of the DAFL-E/DAE. The objective of English in the DAFL-E/DAE has been distinguished from that in the Department of English Literature, in curriculum and instruction (Lin, 1997).

In total, there are 56 junior colleges and institutes/ universities of technology, which have a Department of Applied Foreign Languages across the country. This department emphasises mainly English and Japanese languages, although in some language institutes, French, German and Spanish language courses are also offered. Of the 56, 19 schools are located in the north, 3 in the east, 21 in the south and 13 are in the mid-west. According to the statistics, SY1998-99, the total number of students in the Department of Applied Foreign Languages (DAFL) /Department of Applied English (DAE) was 12,683 in the 5-year junior colleges and 9,563 in the 2-year junior colleges. There were 1,741 and 4,204 students in the 2-year and 4-year institutes /universities of technology respectively (MOE, 2001c) (Table 2.1).

**Table 2.1: Distribution of the DAFL-E/DAE of Junior College and Institute  
/University of Technology**

Number of Institutions					Number of Students					
Locations					Course Levels					
North	Mid- West	South	East	Total	5-year Jr. College	2-year Jr. College	2-year Institute of Technology	4-year Institute of Technology	Graduate School	Total
19	13	21	3	56	12,683	9,563	1,741	4,204	33	28,224

Source: Ministry of Education (2001c)

## 2.2. Survey Sites

In order to evaluate whether the features of each institution meet the needs of industry in each locality, four regions of Taiwan, east, south, mid-west and north, have been selected. Meeting the industrial need has been declared as one of the goals of the DAFL-E/DAE (CER, 1996)

### 2.2.1. Hualien

Considered as the most beautiful county in Taiwan, Hualien county is situated at the east of Taiwan, lying between the Central Mountains and the Pacific Ocean, which lies to the east (Map 2.1). It is the largest county in Taiwan (4,628 square km.), about one eighth of the island's area and its population is approximately 350,000. The east coast of Taiwan features a variety of different landscapes, from Taroko National Park, East Coast National Scenic Area to Eastern Hualien Cliff. Thus, the local economy is based on tourism and partly on mining marble and limestone (Hualien, 2003).

### **2.2.2. Tainan**

Tainan City is positioned in the south-west of Taiwan (Map 2.1) with a population of 74,000 and covers an area of about 175 square km. The city is regarded as the most historical city of Taiwan. Most of its business is in commerce and industry. Textiles, food, metal, plastics and mechanics are the main industries. Several Industry Zones are being planned (Tainan, 2003).

### **2.2.3. Taichung**

Taichung City is located in the heart of the central part of Taiwan (Map 2.1). It has become a major transport hub with excellent links to the metropolitan areas of Taipei in the north and Kaohsiung in the south. Its population is nearly 950,000 covering an area of 163 square km. There are 65,000 approximately business premises in the city featuring sky-high shopping malls and various restaurants. Taichung Industry Zone is the location of many factories, as well as the World Trade Centre and Mechanical Technology Industry Park. Its prosperity has attracted business from neighbouring counties. (Taichung, 2003).

### **2.2.4. Taipei**

Located in northern Taiwan with the population of approximately 2.63 million, Taipei is the political, economic, financial, and cultural centre of Taiwan (Map 2.1). Geographically, Taipei is nestled in a basin with mountains and covers an area of 271 square km. Its business sector is accounted to 20 percent of all Taiwanese business. The economic activities focus on finance, services, light and high-tech industry (Taipei, 2003).

### **2.3. Description of Application of the DAFL-E/DAE in Four Technological and Vocational Higher Education Institutions**

Since the establishment of the DAFL-E/DAE is based upon the needs of the regions, the course design is supposed to have distinctive features to reflect these needs. Therefore, the writer has considered the regions, distinctive nature of courses, stages of upgrade, funding, size, the length of functioning and the writer's place of work as the significant factors when making the selection of four institutions as cases for this study (Table 2.2).

#### **2.3.1. Institution A**

Institution A is a private college, where the writer is employed. It is located at Hualien County in the east of Taiwan (Map 2.1). The college was established in 1989 under the 2-year junior college system. It started with only 600 students in five departments: International Trade, Industrial Management, Accounting & Statistics, Finance and Tourism. Subsequently, Estate Management, Information System Management and Applied Foreign Languages were added. Later still, the Department of Accounting & Statistics was abolished. Education resources in Taiwan are unequally distributed between west and east. As one of the few colleges established in the eastern Taiwan, the importance of Institution A is prominent. Geographically, eastern and western Taiwan is separated by numerous mountains. The natural landscape has become a major attraction for tourists and tourism has therefore become the major local industry. Thus, in 2002, the college was renamed the Hospitality & Tourism College to focus on this specialisation, with a current student number of 3,123. The related departments were transformed to Leisure & Recreation



Management, Hotel Management, Food & Beverage Management, Travel Management and Hospitality Management accordingly. At present, there are eight departments in total (THTC, 2003).

### ***Goal of the Institution***

- To promote prosperity by providing well-trained human resources for the needs of local industry.

In 1995, the only department with a 5-year programme at this college, the Department of Applied Foreign Languages-English (DAFL-E) was launched. In 1996, a 2-year junior college level of DAFL-E programme was added to and making Institution A the first day-school across the nation in this programme. The 5-year junior college programme was discontinued in 2001 (THTC, 2003) (Table 2.2).

### ***Goals of the Department***

- To enable the students to have better understanding of foreign culture, social, politics, economics and education.
- To equip students with the skills of international trading, business and translation, in addition, Chinese/English typing and basic computer skills.

At present, several societies and activities exist, related to English learning, such as the yearly English drama performance, English speech contest and celebration of all kinds of western festivals.

### ***Career Prospects***

Plans include cooperation with industry to assist students with work placement and preparation for future employment, and also to help the business sectors to train employees as interpreters and secretaries (THTC, 2003).

### **2.3.2. Institution B**

Situated at Tainan City, south of Taiwan (Map 2.1) and started as a 2-year junior college, Institution B was founded in 1969 with private funding. In 1972, a 5-year junior programme was included. In 1996, the school was transformed into an institute of technology and started a 2-year undergraduate programme in 1997. In 1999, Institution B was upgraded into a university of technology, and some departments have stopped enrolling students for the 2-year and 5-year junior college programmes since then (Table 2.2). A School Teacher Certification Programme at the Centre of Teacher Education was offered. In the year 2001, a graduate school was incorporated. Currently, there are twenty-four departments, included thirteen Master's programmes and two research centres, consisting of Engineering, Business, Management and Humanities & Social Science colleges (STUT, 2003).

In general, each department is upgraded according to its own progress. The Department of Applied Foreign Languages (DAFL) was established in 1994 with a 5-year junior college programme/day-school only and offered both English and Japanese majors. The 2-year junior college programme/night-school was added in 1995. The DAFL was upgraded in 1997 and launched a 2-year undergraduate programme. In the following year, the DAFL was divided into the Department of Applied English (DAE) and Department of Applied Japanese (DAJ). In 1999, a four-year undergraduate programme was introduced. In 2001, a Master's degree programme was included. It is worth noting that the 5-year junior college programme at DAFL-E was abolished in 1999. Since 1999, both 5-year and 2-year junior college programmes have stopped admitting students (STUT, 2003) (Table 2.2).

## ***Goals of the Department***

Primarily to train students to reach a high level of English proficiency and secondarily to meet the future needs in work-related fields. The department aims to equip students to reach basic language ability requirements, such as TOEFL 550, TOEFL-BCT 213, TOEIC 730, IELTS 6.5 or GEPT in high intermediate. In different course levels, the different focuses of curriculum design are as follows:

### ***Graduate School***

The Master's programme is divided into two tracks, Teaching English as a Foreign Language (TEFL) and Business Affairs.

*The 2-year undergraduate programme, which accepts junior college graduates, focuses on three areas:*

- general education courses
- advanced English skills in listening, speaking, reading, writing, translation and interpreting
- business and computing applications.

*The 4-year undergraduate programme, which accepts senior /vocational high school graduates, emphasises :*

- basic English ability training and general education courses
- advanced English skills in listening, speaking, reading, writing, translation and interpreting
- commercial and computer applications.

Since the students admitted from senior/vocational high school have diverse background in the first year, basic English ability training is emphasised. There are plans in the future to employ highly qualified and more competent teachers to enrich

teaching facilities, to expand cooperative relationships with foreign and domestic universities, and to build partnership with industry. A Doctoral programme will be included within the next few years (STUT, 2003).

### **2.3.3. Institution C**

Institution C is located at Taichung City, in the mid-west of Taiwan and was established in 1919, with funding public (Map 2.1). Institution C was started as a public commerce school and promoted into a provincial-level commerce junior college with a 5-year junior college programme in 1963. A 2-year junior college night-school programme was added in 1968. In 1982, the school was upgraded into a national commerce college and included a 2-year junior college day-school programme. In 1999, Institution C was upgraded to a national institute of technology.

In total, there are 662 teachers and staffs and 8,591 students in the programmes of 5-year and 2-year junior college and 2-year/ 4-year institute of technology. The 5-year junior college programme takes junior high graduates and includes seven departments: International Trade, Accounting & Statistics, Banking & Insurance, Business Management, Commercial Design, Applied Foreign Languages and Information System Management with 3,975 students in total. The 2-year junior college programme accepts senior/ vocational high school graduates and includes four departments: Accounting & Statistics, Commercial Design, Information System and International Trade with 2,608 students in total. The 2-year/ four-year undergraduate programmes have 1,290 and 718 students respectively. In addition to the above-mentioned programmes, the Institution is under several different systems, affiliated with continuing education in 2-year open junior college in commerce, and several

different programmes taking senior/ vocational high school graduates (NTIT, 2003) (Table 2.2).

### ***Goals of the Institution***

- Partnership with the community, cooperating with industry, cultivating talents in the humanities and technology, and providing practically oriented subjects geared towards the needs of local industry, with information technology as the foundation.
- Integration of departments, incorporating four-year undergraduate programme.
- Re-defining the 5-year junior college programme.

The Department of Applied Foreign Languages with English and Japanese Divisions was started in 1980 with a Japanese major only. Until 1986, only male students were admitted. In 1995, an English major was incorporated. The department was upgraded in 2000 and started a 2-year undergraduate programme leading to a bachelor degree (Table 2.2). In the English Division (DAFL-E), the curriculum design is the proportions of 40%, 30%, and 30% in English, Japanese and Commerce respectively. Periodically, English speech and other kinds of contests are held. Students have been sent to visit and study in foreign countries, and visiting professors invited to give keynote speech have been a feature of the department.

### ***Goals of the Department***

- To give students practical proficiency in English language and teach business knowledge in both theory and practice.
- Professional ethics will be reinforced to equip students not only with knowledge in language and business, but with professional and practical experience.

### ***Career Prospects***

Several plans have been mapped out, such as encouraging students to enter national public services exams, seeking cooperation with industry and guiding students who are interested in further study at university with two /four- year undergraduate programmes (NTIT, 2003).

#### **2.3.4. Institution D**

Institution D is a junior college located at Taipei, in the north of Taiwan (Map 2.1), funded privately. It was established in 1965 with the 5-year junior college programmes in International Trade, Business Administration, Banking & Insurance, Accounting & Statistics. A Secretarial Department and 2-year junior college programmes were included two years later. In 2000, Institution D was upgraded to an institute of technology affiliated with junior colleges (Table 2.2).

In 1999, the Department of Applied English (DAE) was created from the former Secretarial Department, starting with the 5-year junior college programme which was completely replaced with DAE in 2003. A 2-year junior college programme, representing continuing education in the Secretarial Department was launched in 1988, and adjusted to DAE in 1999. Moreover, in 2002, a 2-year undergraduate programme was added (CTI, 2003) (Table 2.2).

#### ***Goals of the Department***

- To create a wholly English environment.
- To employ teachers with doctorate degrees and native English speaking teachers at least with a Master's degree.
- To improve teaching facilities, language labs in particular.

- To arrange English Camps by linking with local primary schools and sending students to help with English teaching.
- To enhance extra activities such as English speech contests and drama performance. A Special Course for Promotion of English Proficiency held during lunch hour on a daily basis is a feature of the department.

### ***Goals of Teaching***

- For undergraduate programmes, the goal is to enforce competitive capacity. Apart from elevating student's competence in English basic skills, the goal is to cultivate students with business and basic computing knowledge.
- For 5-year junior college, the goal is to equip intermediate specialists with basic English skills, business and computing competence, second foreign languages, training in interpersonal communication, coordination skills, and leadership.

### ***Career Prospects***

The institution aims to prepare students in several professional fields, such as civil and diplomatic service, journalism, tourism, import-export trading, English teaching, translation/interpretation, mass media, banking, etc (CTI, 2003).

**Table 2.2. The Description of Selected Institutions and the DAFL-E/DAE**

<b>Institution</b>	<b>A</b>	<b>B</b>	<b>C</b>	<b>D</b>
<b>Location in Taiwan</b>	East	South	Mid-west	North
<b>Funding</b>	Private	Private	Public	Private
<b>Type of Institution</b>	College	University of Technology	Institute of Technology	Institute of Technology
<b>Year of Institution Establishment</b>	1989	1969	1919	1965
<b>Year of College Upgrade</b>	—	1999	1999	2000

**Table 2.2. (continued)**

<b>Institution</b>	<b>A</b>	<b>B</b>	<b>C</b>	<b>D</b>
<b>Total Number of Students</b>	3,123	15,053	8,591	7,146
<b>Year of the DAFL-E/DAE Establishment</b>	1995	1994	1995	1999 (transformed from Secretarial Department)
<b>Type of Programmes Offered in the DAFL-E/DAE</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▪ 5-year junior college*</li> <li>▪ 2-year junior college</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▪ 5-year junior college**</li> <li>▪ 2-year junior college (N)**</li> <li>▪ 2-year institute of technology (D/N)***</li> <li>▪ 4-year institute of technology (D/N)</li> <li>▪ Graduate School</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▪ 5-year junior college</li> <li>▪ 2-year institute of technology</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▪ 5-year junior college</li> <li>▪ 2-year junior college (N)</li> <li>▪ 2-year institute of technology</li> </ul>
<b>Number of Students of the DAFL-E/DAE</b>	658	1,098	696	678

Source: Ministry of Education (2001b)

Note:

\* In the Institution A, the 5-year junior college programme was discontinued in 2001.

\*\* In the Institution B, the 5-year and 2-year junior college programmes stopped enrolling students in 1999.

\*\*\*D= Day N= Night

#### **2.4. The Curriculum Pattern of the DAFL-E/DAE in the Selected Institutions**

In general, the core curriculum of the DAFL-E/DAE consists of three categories: language learning and application, business, and information management (Lin, 1997) (Figure 2.2). In other words, the objective of the department is not only to develop students' English communication skills but also to apply English language to business and information technology.

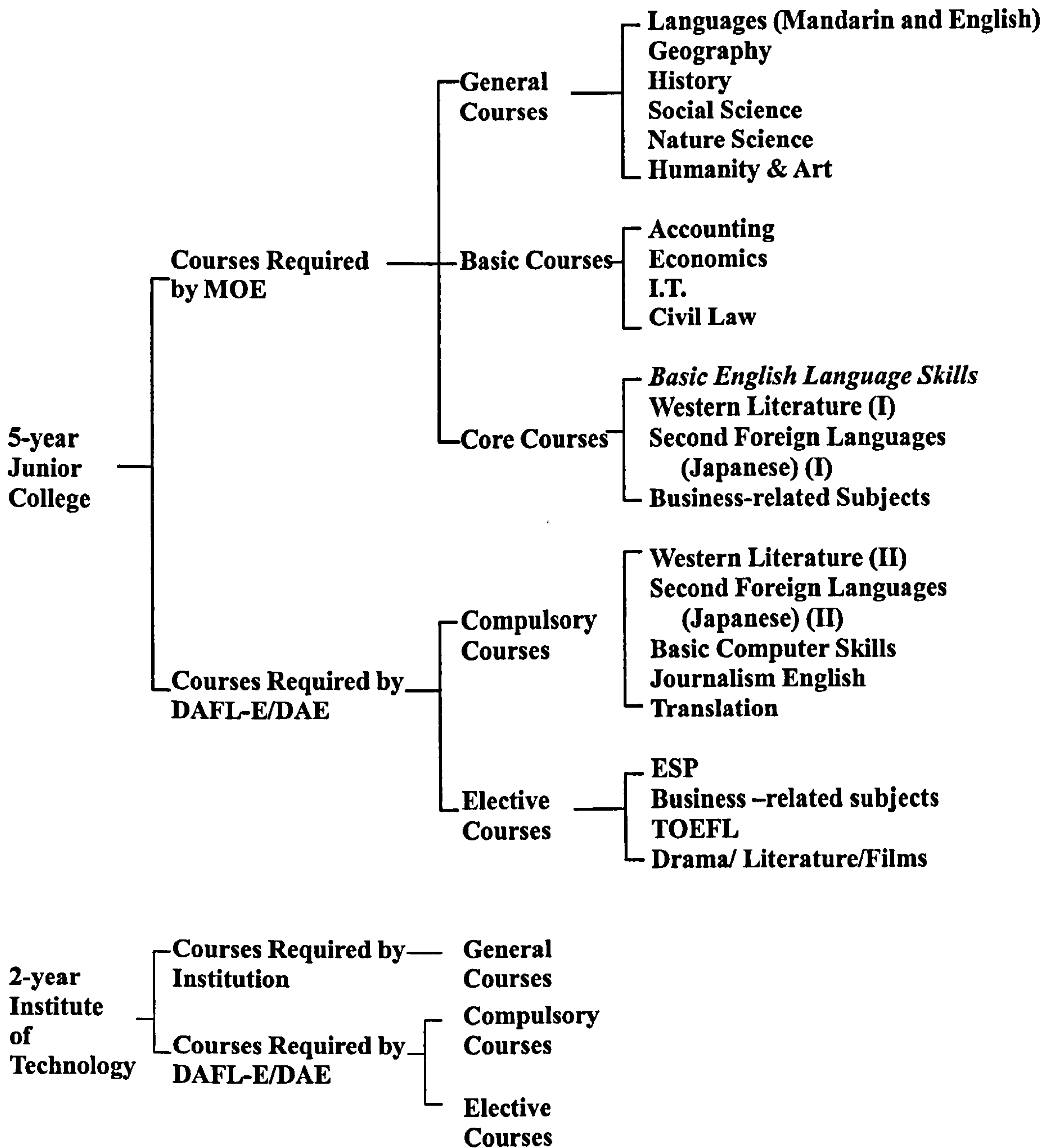
According to the National Curriculum, the courses of 5-year/2-year junior



college have been streamed into several tracks, General Courses, Basic Courses and Core Courses, which are regulated and mandatory by MOE, and Compulsory and Elective Courses required by the DAFL-E/DAE. However, in 2-year institute of technology undergraduate programmes, there are no mandatory courses regulated by MOE, but only General Courses required by each institution, and Compulsory and Elective Courses required by the DAFL-E/ DAE. General Courses consist of Languages (Mandarin and English), Geography, History, Social Sciences, Natural Sciences and Humanities & Arts subjects. Basic Courses include Accounting, Economics, I.T. and Civil Law. Core Courses emphasise basic English language skills and business-related subjects. The Compulsory and Elective Courses designed by the DAFL-E/DAE reflect the specialisation of the Department, mainly in language and business, and therefore will be investigated in the following section (Figure 2.1).

The most recent course menus were collected from one 5-year/ 2-year junior college and two institutes of technology and one university of technology, which are coded with Institution A, Institution B, Institution C and Institution D. Content analysis was used to scrutinise and compare the curricula. Excluding 2-year junior college programme, which is only existed in one institution and therefore makes the comparison impossible, the curricula of 5-year junior college and 2-year institute of technology undergraduate programmes were investigated. The aim was to evaluate the emphasis of the curriculum planning of each institution and to evaluate whether the courses featured the speciality of the DAFL-E/DAE. The analysis and conclusion will be presented in later chapters.

**Figure 2.1: Courses Distribution of the 5-year junior college and 2-year institute of technology programmes**



### **2.4.1. The 5-year Junior College Programmes**

Graduation in the 5-year junior college programmes require 220 credits in total and includes at least 25 elective credits. The curricula of the 5-year junior college programmes at Institution A, Institution B, Institution C and Institution D were investigated. The course subjects were categorised into nine: Second Foreign Languages, Information & Technology, Commerce, Translation & Interpretation, English Teaching, ESP (Tourism English and Journalism English), English Proficiency Testing Preparation, and Humanity & Culture Awareness (Table 2.4).

The following areas were investigated.

- The Basic English language courses in the 5-year junior college programmes were examined.
- Compulsory and Elective Courses required by the Department are scrutinised, since they are designed by the DAFL-E/DAE of each Institution and therefore can represent the specialisation of the Department.

#### **2.4.1.1. The Courses of Basic English Language Skills**

Most of the courses of basic English language skills courses, in terms of listening, speaking, reading and writing, are presented as Core Courses regulated by MOE. A few are Compulsory and Elective Courses designed by the individual institution (Figure 2.1). The course subjects for the four skills are categorised as follows.

- **Listening & Speaking:** Labs for Listening & Speaking, Listening Comprehension Pronunciation Practice, Speech & Communication, Conversation
- **Reading:** Vocabulary & Reading, Reading Digest
- **Writing:** Vocabulary & Reading, Reading Digest

**Table 2.3: The Courses of Basic English Language Skills (Listening, Speaking, Reading, Writing) Offered in the 5-year Junior College Programmes**

<b>Institution</b>	<b>Listening &amp; Speaking</b>	<b>Reading</b>	<b>Writing</b>	<b>Total Credits</b>	<b>% of graduation credits (220)</b>
<b>A</b>	18	22	16	56	25.45
<b>B</b>	22	22	12	56	25.45
<b>C</b>	20	28+4*	4+4*	60	27.27
<b>D</b>	14	26	12	52	23.63
<b>Average</b>	18.5	25.5	12	56	25.45

\* Elective Courses

Table 2.3 shows that basic English language courses offered by each Institution in aggregate account on average for one fourth of graduation credits (25.45 percent). Thus, the four skills of basic English receive intensive focus.

#### **2.4.1.2. The Courses Offered in Compulsory and Elective Courses required by the DAFL-E/DAE**

It is noted that,

- Elective Courses listed on the menu are not necessarily the same as actually offered due to teachers' availability and number of students on each elective course.
- Japanese is the only second foreign language offered.
- Besides the business courses offered in Compulsory and Elective courses, there are some business related courses offered in Basic and Core Courses mandated by MOE, such as Accounting, Economics, International Trade in Practice and Business English, which are not included in the discussion.

**Table 2.4: The Compulsory and Elective Courses Required by the DAFL-E/DAE (5-year junior college programmes)**

Institution	A		B		C		D		Average		
	Categories	Credits	% of Grad. Credits (220)	Credits	% Of Grad. Credits (220)	Credits	% of Grad. Credits (220)	Credits	% of Grad. Credits (220)	Credits	% of Grad. Credits (220)
	Second Foreign Language	12+4*	7.27	26	11.81	46+18*	29.09	13*	5.90	29.75	13.52
	Information & Technology	12+6*	8.18	4+12*	7.27	4*	1.81	12+2*	6.36	13	5.90
	Commerce	8*	3.63	4+15*	8.36	6+12*	8.18	16+19*	15.90	20	9.09
	Translation/ Interpretation	6	2.72	6	2.72	2*	0.90	4	1.81	4.5	2.04
	English Teaching	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
	ESP	6+3*	4.09	8*	3.63	8*	3.63	4	1.81	7.25	3.29
	English Proficiency Testing Preparation	0	0	1	0.04	4*	1.81	4+6*	4.54	3.75	1.70
	Humanity & Cultural Awareness	8+6*	6.36	4+32*	16.36	12*	5.45	4+8*	5.45	18.5	8.40

\* Elective Courses

Table 2.4 shows that Institution C highly emphasises the Second Foreign Languages (Japanese) the most, with 46 compulsory and 18 elective credits (29.09 percent). This is attributed to the background of DAFL, which was originally established as the Japanese Department (Section 2.3.3.). Institution A emphasises Information & Technology courses, including basic English and Chinese computer input skills (8.18 percent) and Second Foreign Languages learning (7.27 percent) It is worth noting that, ESP, including Tourism English and Journalism English is offered the most at Institution A among four institutions (4.09 percent). However, it

only accounts for 3.29 percent in average. Institution B focuses more on Humanity & Cultural Awareness (16.36 percent) and Second Foreign Languages (11.81 percent). Institution C emphasises the Second Foreign Languages and Commerce with 29.09 and 8.18 percent respectively. Commerce is emphasised the most at Institution D (15.09 percent). As to English teaching, none of the institutions provides such a course in the 5-year junior college programmes. By and large, the priorities of each institution are Second Foreign Language, 13.52 percent, Commerce 9.09 percent, Humanity & Cultural Awareness 8.40 percent, and ESP, 3.29 percent.

#### **2.4.2. The 2-year Institute of Technology Programmes**

The 2-year undergraduate programmes require 77 credits for graduation, including at least 42 elective credits. The curricula incorporated in Institution B, Institution C and Institution D are investigated, regarding the percentage of courses offered at each Institution. The courses have been grouped into nine categories: Advanced English Skills, Commerce, Information & Technology, Second Foreign Languages, Translation/Interpretation, English Teaching, English Proficiency Testing Preparation, Humanity & Culture Awareness and ESP (Table 2.5). It is notable that there are more English for specific purposes (ESP) courses integrated into 2-year institute of technology programmes. They are Media English, Finance English, English for Business Contract, English for Current Affairs of Finance, Technology English, and Movie English, which are all categorised under ESP.

The 2-year institute of technology programme has several characteristics:

- There are no mandatory courses regulated by MOE. Each Department has more flexibility to offer diverse courses reflecting its specialisation.
- More elective courses designed by the DAFL-E/DAE are offered. However, they

are determined by teachers' availability and the number of students. It is possible that the courses actually offered may differ from those listed on the course menu.

However, the emphasis of each Department is well represented.

- With regard to the English language skills courses, including listening, speaking, reading and writing, it offers more advanced courses, and in particular combined with business and technology. For instance, Advanced English (Business) Writing, Advanced Vocabulary & Reading, Media English, Advertising English, Speech & Business Presentation, English for (Business) Conference & Communication.

**Table 2.5: The Compulsory and Elective Courses Required by the DAFL-E/DAE(2-year institute of technology programmes)**

<b>Institution</b>	<b>B</b>		<b>C</b>		<b>D</b>		<b>Average</b>	
<b>Categories</b>	<b>Credits</b>	<b>% of Grad. Credits (77)</b>	<b>Credits</b>	<b>% of Grad. Credits (77)</b>	<b>Credits</b>	<b>% of Grad. Credits (77)</b>	<b>Credits</b>	<b>% of Grad. Credits (77)</b>
<b>Advanced English Skills</b>	12+18*	38.96	16+8*	31.36	15	19.48	23	29.87
<b>Commerce</b>	16*	20.77	2+22*	31.36	2*	2.77	14	18.18
<b>Information &amp; Technology</b>	12*	15.58	2+4*	7.79	6+2*	11.11	8.66	11.25
<b>Second Foreign Languages</b>	36*	46.75	8*	10.38	2*	2.77	15.33	19.91
<b>English Teaching</b>	6*	7.79	4*	5.19	2*	2.77	4	5.19
<b>ESP</b>	4+10*	18.18	6	7.79	10+6*	20.77	12	15.58
<b>Translation/ Interpretation</b>	2+14*	20.79	4+4*	10.38	3+2*	6.94	9.66	12.55

**Table 2.5. (continued)**

<b>Institution</b>	<b>B</b>	<b>C</b>	<b>D</b>	<b>Average</b>				
<b>English Proficiency Testing Preparation</b>	1+2*	3.89	0	0	0	0	1	1.29
<b>Humanity &amp; Culture Awareness</b>	8+28*	46.75	8*	10.38	4+11*	20.83	19.66	25.54

\* Elective Courses

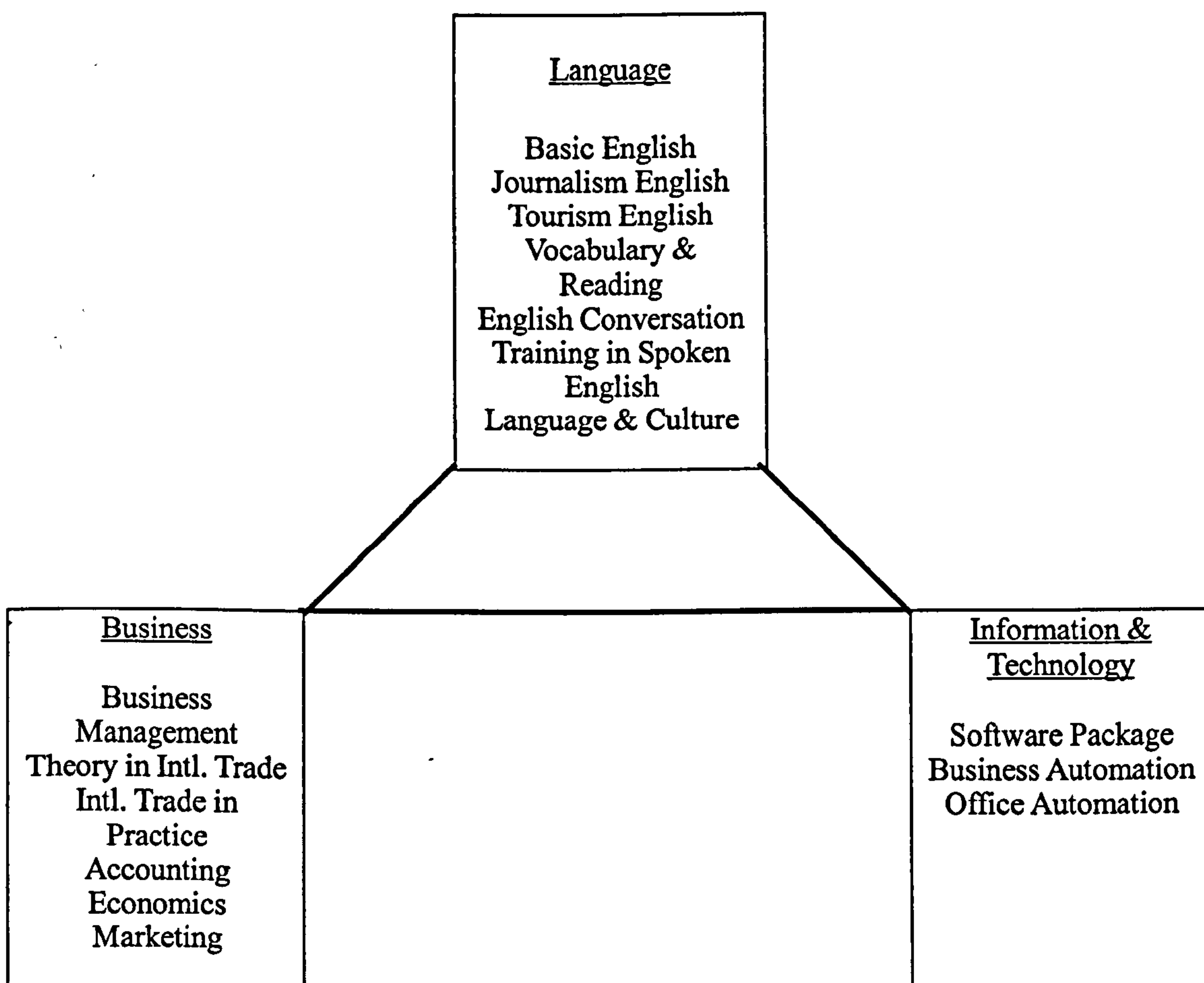
Table 2.5 shows that Institution B focuses on the tracks of Second Foreign Languages, in which Japanese and German languages are offered, Humanity & Culture Awareness, and Advanced English Skills with 46.75, 46.75 and 38.96 percent respectively. Institution C offers predominantly Advanced English Skills and Commerce courses with both 31.36 percent. Institution D emphasises Humanity & Culture Awareness (20.83 percent), ESP (20.77 percent), and Advanced English Skills (19.48 percent). Consequently, overall, Advanced English Skills accounts for most courses (29.87 percent), followed by Humanity & Culture Awareness (25.54 percent), Second Foreign Languages (19.91 percent), Commerce (18.18 percent), ESP (15.58 percent), Translation & Interpretation (12.55 percent), Information & Technology (11.25 percent), English Teaching (5.19 percent), and English Proficiency Testing Preparation (1.29 percent). It is worth mentioning that compared with the 5-year junior college, the range of ESP courses offered in the 2-year institute of technology is more various, which includes Technology English, English for Finance and Investment, English for International Trade, Movie English, Media English, Speech and Business Presentation, Business Contract, English for Advertising, etc. However, ESP courses only amount to 15.58 percent in average of total credits, evidence that distinguishing features of the DAFL-E/DAE are not prominent.



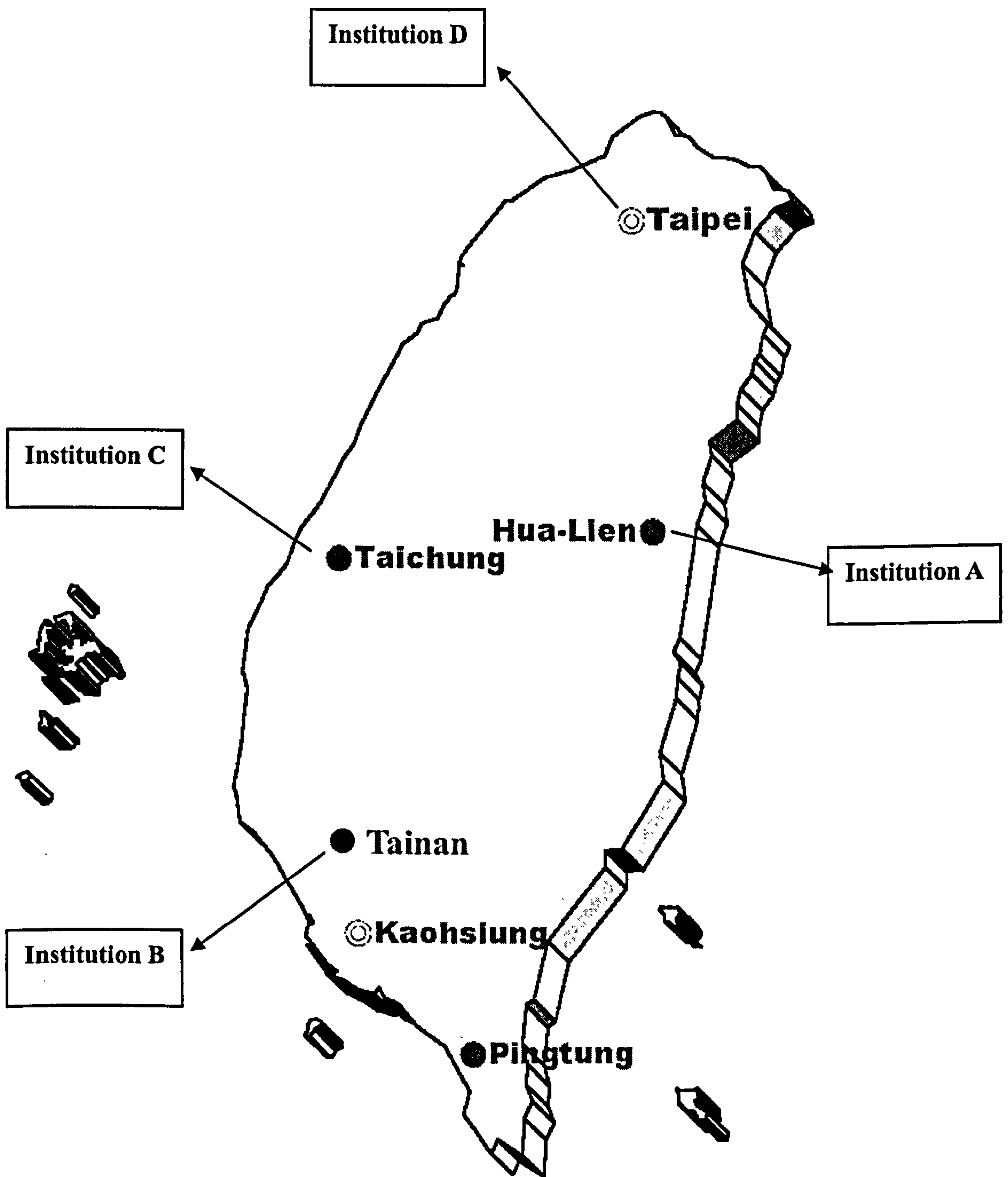
## 2.5. Summary

In this chapter, the background and the establishment of the Department of Applied Foreign Languages-English (DAFL-E/DAE) have been introduced. The surveyed institutions, which are one junior college, two institutes of technology and one university of technology were described. Last but not the least, the curriculum pattern of the 5-year junior college and 2-year institute of technology programmes in the four institutions were scrutinised. A literature review regarding ESP, Business English and related researches in Taiwan will be presented in the next chapter.

**Figure 2.2: Three Categories of Core Curriculum in the DAFL-E/DAE (Lin, 1997, p.2)**



**Map 2.1: Location of Four Technological & Vocational Higher Education Institutions**



## **CHAPTER THREE**

### **REVIEW OF LITERATURE**

#### **3.1. Introduction**

English for Specific Purposes (ESP) is rather a new concept in English language teaching. The Department of Applied Foreign Languages-English (DAFL-E/DAE) in junior colleges and institutes/ universities of technology is also considered a brand new department established in accordance with the needs of economic development of the nation. In these departments, English is taught for a specific purpose; in this study, it refers to business purposes. Accordingly, business-related English has been emphasised. Though Business English has been claimed to be largely the concern of private language schools and training organisations (St John, 1996), the DAFL-E/DAE in Taiwan is regarded as a special case. By and large, business-related English offered in the Applied Foreign Languages/English Department, is officially incorporated in junior colleges and institutes /universities of technology. Some courses are provided as the on-job training as continuing education, affiliated with the Foreign Languages & Literature Department where General English, foreign languages and literature are mainstreamed (Shih; Su & Lin, 1998). In addition, need analysis is usually crucial to ESP, and therefore its background and application to curriculum development will be discussed. As noted above, the DAFL-E/DAE is a newly established department in Taiwan, and consequently, faces difficulties of being effective in terms of theory-to-practice, objectives, course design, teaching materials, ESP teacher training, English Proficiency Certification and cooperation with commercial organisations. These issues will be scrutinised through the published sources in Taiwan. However, most of

the papers were concerned with the investigation of ESP in science and technology, as one of the common courses offered at college/university levels. English taught as a major course in the DAFL-E/DAE, mainly for business purposes is rarely mentioned. Literature pertaining to government documents, the course content of the DAFL-E/DAE and the methodology applied while conducting this study are not included in this chapter, but in Chapter 1, 2 and 4 respectively. A summary will follow at the end of this chapter.

## **3.2. The Concept of ESP**

### **3.2.1. Origins and Development of ESP**

ESP was not planned, but rather a phenomenon. The world has been unified and dominated by two forces- technology and commerce. Moreover, the economic power fell to the United States in the post-war world, leading to an emphasis on the English language. As Hutchinson and Waters (1987, p.6) commented,

*The effect was to create a whole new mass of people wanting to learn English, not for the pleasure of prestige of knowing the language, but because English was the key to the international currencies of technology and commerce.*

Learning a foreign language had previously been regarded as a sign of a well-educated person, though few had really questioned why it was necessary. Now, however, came a new generation of learners who knew specifically why they were learning a language. English became big business. Time and money constraints created a need for cost-effective courses with clearly defined goals. In addition, influential new ideas began to emerge in the study of language. Traditionally, the aim of linguistics is to describe the rules of English usage, the grammar. The new studies

shifted attention to the ways in which language is actually used in real communication. These ideas married up naturally with the development of English courses for specific groups of learners. The idea was simple: “if language varies from one situation of use to another, it should be possible to determine the features of specific situations and then make these features the basis of the learners’ course.” “Tell me what you need English for and I will tell you the English that you need” became the guiding principle of ESP (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987, p.7-8).

ESP has developed since the 1960s. Earlier approaches to ESP were similar to traditional English Language and Teaching (ELT), with content of a “general interest” nature, reflecting a literary rather than a specific subject audience, and therefore there was no attempt to match the topic to the learners’ subject area. Then, as mentioned above, came a shift towards a focus on the learner as a main consideration in course design and towards a view of language as not only a set of grammatical structures but also a set of functions, that is, using language to communicate with people. Since many learners in ESP situations already had a background of grammatical knowledge of the language, this “communicative” approach provided them with an opportunity to use this knowledge more productively than had been possible before. The teaching approach has also changed from teacher-centred to learner-centred, and learners’ needs were taken into account when courses were designed (Kennedy & Bolitho, 1984).

### **3.2.2. Definition of ESP**

Many writers have commented that ESP cannot be easily defined, because it is a developing subject. The term “English for specific purposes” implies that what is specific and appropriate in one part of the globe may well not be elsewhere. Thus, it

is impossible to produce a universally applicable definition of ESP. Stevens (quoted in Robinson, 1991, p.1) suggested that “a definition of ESP that is both simple and watertight is not easy to produce.” However, looking at a range from narrow to wide of definitions of ESP, will help to understand its specific purposes. English for *Specific Purposes*, as Robinson (1980) mentioned, focuses on the purpose of the learners and refers to the whole range of language resources. Robinson (1991) then defined the ESP enterprise today as involving education, training and practice and three major realms of knowledge: language, pedagogy and the students’ (participant’s) specialist areas of interest. Widdowson (1998, p.3) noted that the term English for Specific Purposes implies that

*English is somehow peculiar to the range of principles and procedures which define that particular profession; and so we have English which is specific, associated with a kind of institutional activity which is also conceived of as specific.*

Munby (1978, p.2) defined ESP courses as,

*Those where the syllabus and materials are determined in all essentials by the prior analysis of the communication needs of the learner.*

Blackie’s definition of ESP, quoted in Afifi (1991,p.17), is that

*ESP normally refers to programmes designed for groups who are homogeneous with respect to aims, and whose learning objectives have been quantified and stated in communicative terms.*

ESP courses have been regarded as communicative in nature at a time when General English courses focused much less on this characteristic. More recently, Widdowson

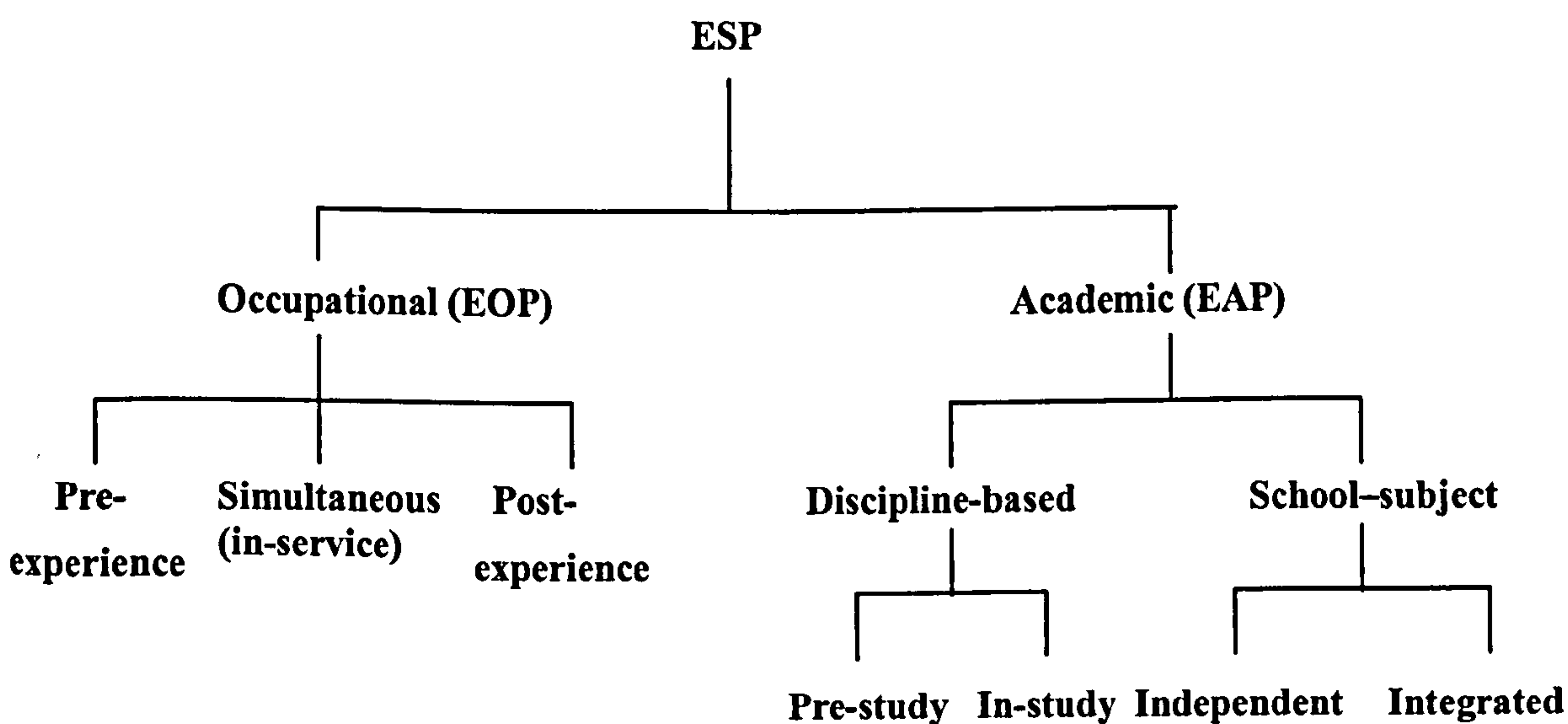
(1998, p.3) also pointed out “My English at the moment it designed to serve a specific purpose and it is that which makes it communicative.” Brumfit (quoted in Afifi, 1991, p.19) might have produced the best given definition to cover almost all aspects of ESP as below:

*First, it is clear that an ESP course is directly concerned with the purposes for which learners need English, purposes which are usually expressed in functional terms. ESP thus fits firmly within the general movement towards communicative teaching of the last decade or so.*

### **3.2.3. The Branches of ESP**

ESP is an umbrella term which consists a number of sub-divisions. Two versions of the “ESP family tree” are often drawn as EOP (English for Occupational Purposes), involving work-related need and training in the use of English, and EAP (English for Academic Purposes), regarding using English for academic purposes, to pursue one’s studies. (Munby, 1978 and Robinson, 1991) EOP is taught in a situation where English is used as part of learners’ work or profession. Furthermore, the courses will be different depending on whether the learners have learned English before. For instance, on a secretarial course, the content of an English programme for someone who with needs to acquire both practical skills and theoretical knowledge is different from a programme for someone who is already a qualified secretary but now needs to operate in English. EAP is taught within educational institutions. The language taught is based on particular disciplines at higher levels of education when the student is specialising (in-study) or intends to specialise (pre-study) in a particular study. There is also a growing interest in school-subject ESP, which can be

divided into those situations where English is a separate subject on the curriculum but with a content related to other subjects (independent ESP) and those where English is the medium for learning other subjects (integrated ESP) (Kennedy & Bolitho, 1984) (Figure 3.1). In the case of this study, English taught in the DAFL-E/DAE, which is the Department incorporated in the college/university level, is more like school-subject ESP, where English is an independent subject with content related to other subjects, such as Business English, Tourism English, Finance English, etc.

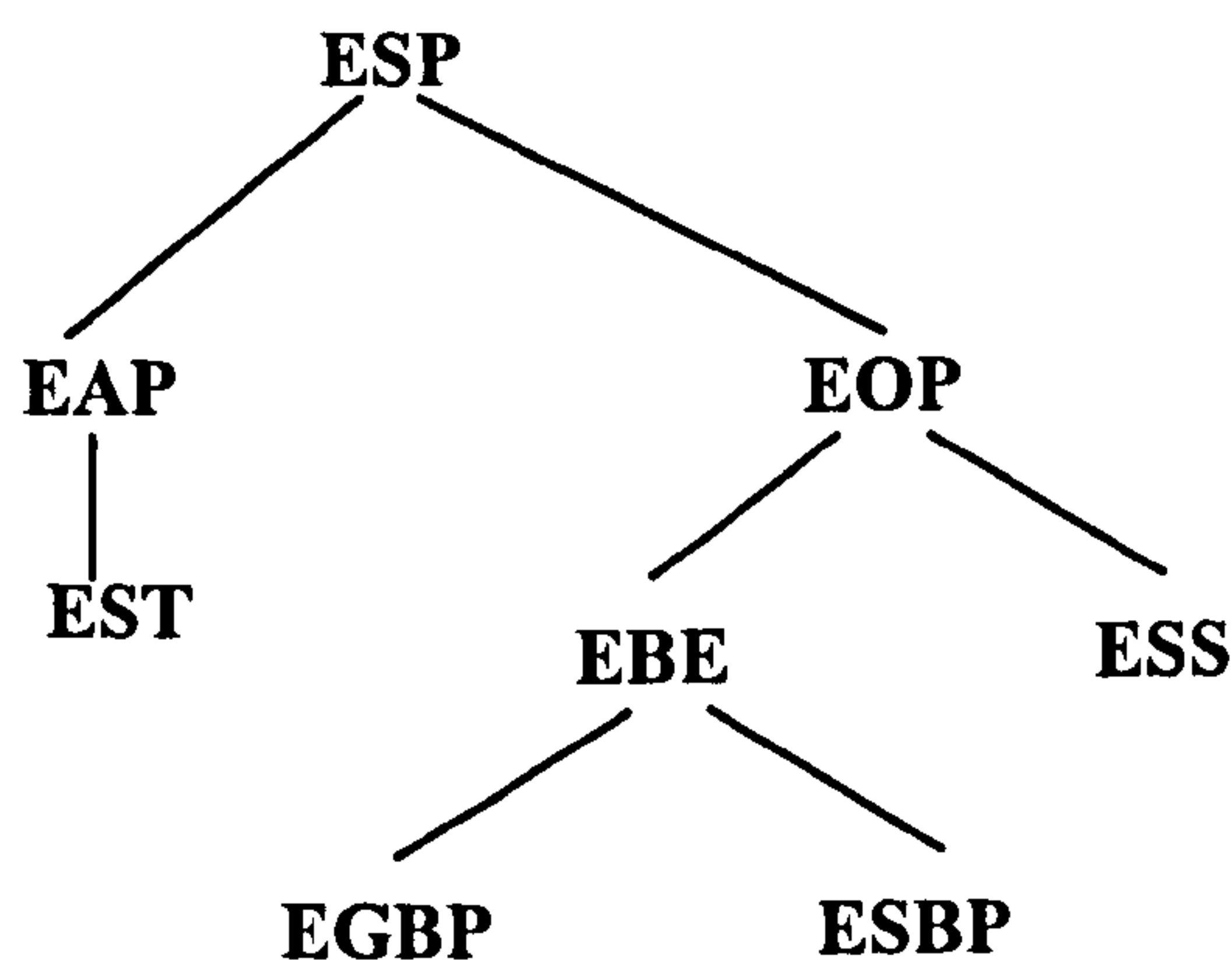


**Figure 3.1: Types of ESP (Strevens, 1977, p. 92; also see Kennedy & Bolitho, 1984, p.5; Munby, 1978, p.56 and Robinson, 1991, p.3)**

Robinson (1991) also made an important distinction between learners of ESP. Some are newcomers to their field of work or study who need instruction in the concepts and practices of that field and others are already expert and experienced, but require operational ESP materials, where the instruction and training are taken for granted, and where it is the ability to function in English which is being imparted.



In this study, the focus is on the former. Hutchinson and Waters (1987) distinguished ESP by the nature of learners' specialism, into EST (English for Science and Technology), EBE (English for Business and Economics) and ESS (English for Social Sciences). Business English, which will be discussed at greater length later in this chapter, has itself become an umbrella term, including EGBP (English for General Business Purposes) and ESBP (English for Specific Business Purposes). Broadly speaking, EGBP courses are pre-experience, extensive courses, while ESBP courses are more likely to be post-experience, intensive and company-based courses (St John, 1996). The branches of ESP mentioned here can be illustrated as follow:



**Figure 3.2: Branches of ESP**

### **3.3. Needs Analysis**

Traditionally, learners' needs in General English could not be specified; therefore, no one attempted to find out learners' true needs. Nevertheless, in ESP, the need to communicate in English is definable. As a result, needs analysis is considered essential (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987). However, how to define the "needs" becomes problematic. Lawson, quoted in Robinson (1991, p.7), indicated

that, “a ‘need’ is a matter for agreement and judgement, not discovery.” Several writers have discussed the different types of “needs”. Widdowson (1981) interpreted “learners’ needs” in two definitions. One is goal-oriented and is related to the learner’s terminal behaviour, in other words, what the learner needs to do with the language once he/she has learned it. The other is process-oriented, and is refers to the learner’s transitional behaviour, that is, what the learner needs to do to actually acquire the language. Then, Hutchinson (1987) distinguished the former as target needs, and the latter as learning needs. Furthermore, Robinson (1991, p.7) declared,

*The needs that are established for a particular group of students will be an outcome of a need analysis project and will be influenced by the ideological preconceptions of the analysis.*

A need analysis which focuses on students’ needs at the end of a language course can be called a Target Situation Analysis (TSA). The Munby model has been widely studied and discussed, which is Participant (Learner) – CNP (Communication Needs Processor) - Profile of Needs. Hutchinson (1987, p.59) explained that the analysis of TSA “is a matter of asking questions about the target situation and the attitudes towards that situation of the various participants in the learning process.” Then Robinson (1991, p.9) proposed the idea of Present Situation Analysis (PSA) which aims “to establish what the students are like at the start of their language course, investigating their strengths and weaknesses.” He suggested that, in practice, information regarding both TSA and PSA is likely to be found simultaneously. Thus, needs analysis may be seen as a combination of TSA and PSA.

Awareness of learners’ needs should be encouraged and the identification of learners’ needs should be undertaken by three separate bodies: the learner himself/

herself, the teaching establishment, and the learner's employer (Afifi, 1991). Needs assessment is recognised as the necessary starting point in designing curriculum materials for ESP. (Schmidt, 1981) Several instruments for gathering information about target needs have been suggested, such as questionnaires, interviews, participant observation, case studies, press ads, testing and the collection of authentic materials. Their advantages and disadvantages were also discussed (Hutchinson, 1987, Mackay, 1978, Robinson, 1991 and Schmidt, 1981). Bearing this in mind, needs analysis is not a once-for-all activity; instead, it should be a continuing process. In addition, the importance of learner motivation in the learning process, learners' perceived wants and self-perceived needs cannot be ignored (Hutchinson, 1987, McGinley, 1984).

### **3.4. Business English**

Business English (BE) is broadly regarded as business-related English in this research. There has been increased interest and awareness of it in the last two decades, though it has often been neglected by linguistics researchers, or poor research has been done, compared with the language of EST (Robinson, 1991; Ellis & Johnson, 1994). Business English is a branch of ESP and not easy to define. It is usually associated with secretarial and management activities, and so by far the largest part of ESP consists of courses in business and commerce. In the early 1960s and 70s, the terms "commerce" or "commercial" dominated and primarily referred to "written communication relating to trade, and importing and exporting" (St John, 1996, p.4). In many ways, Business English distinguishes itself from General English. Tsai (1998) pointed out several differences between BE and GE. With regard to the needs analysis, Business English will go beyond the language of the

learners. Furthermore, Business English has more precise course objectives. The learners in Business English are more goal-oriented and have specific expectations towards the course. Therefore, Business English materials tend to be more tailor-made, which means teachers sometimes have to develop their own materials to satisfy the specific needs of the learners. However, in general, teaching methodology has no major differences. Business English may be also considered as either EAP or EOP, depending on the situation where learning is taking place and the learners' purposes (Afifi, 1991). However, Business English can also differ from other varieties of ESP because it is a mix of specific content, which is related to a particular job area, and general content related to general ability to communicate more effectively, especially in business situations. Ellis & Johnson (1994, p.3) declared that Business English,

*must be seen in the overall context of English for Specific Purpose (ESP), as it shares the important elements of needs analysis, syllabus design, course design, and materials selection and development which are common to all fields of work in ESP.*

There has been a development in the way ESP practitioners see Business English, as follows. In the 1960s to 70s, the specialist vocabulary of Business English was different from General English, and there were business-related words and terminology. Learners' language level was assumed to be at least intermediate, and no subject knowledge was taken into account. Furthermore, there was no consideration of how learners apply the language in real life and how to develop meeting and writing skills. In 1972, some videos and course books placed emphasis on training in the skills of English communication within a business context. In the mid-1970s and 1980s, following the trends in General English, Business English

teaching focused more on functional areas, such as giving opinions, showing agreement and language for recommending. In the late 1980s, the emphasis was on the need to develop the skills for using the language learned, for example, presentation techniques, negotiating, and effective meetings skills (Ellis & Johnson, 1994).

Any reference in this thesis to ESP, unless otherwise noted, applies equally well to BE and “Business English” is used as a blanket term. It refers to business-related English courses, such as International Trading, Business Management, Journalism English, Tourism English, Finance English, English for Business Basic, English for Business Contract, Business English Writing and, in particular as above-mentioned, the course subject named “Business English” offered in the DAFL-E/DAE.

### **3.4.1. The Learners of BE**

Kennedy and Bolitho (1984) declared many ESP learners are adults, who are more able to define the idea why he/she is learning English. Thus, the agreement on needs between learners at adult level and teachers is well matched since the purpose is more clearly defined. Robinson (1991) suggested that business-related English courses and materials can serve both for occupational users of English, such as the manager of a company, an accountant or a secretary, and students of business, banking, economics or management. This view was echoed by Ellis & Johnson (1994), who pointed out in detail that the characteristics of the two kinds of Business English learners. The pre-experienced, usually in the educational system, such as students in colleges or universities and the job-experienced. The former, on whom we focus in this study, will have obtained business knowledge mainly from books,

which might be insufficient and theoretical rather than practical. As a result, students will be less aware of language needs, such as communicating in real-life business situations. In many cases, pre-experienced learners are preparing for examinations. Thus, the examination curriculum will be the basis for the syllabus and there are very specific objectives for the course. As to pre-experienced learners' concern, there are two kinds of needs. First, for examination purposes, they need to read textbooks in English to gain the qualifications they are seeking. Therefore, the development of reading and listening skills is a major component of their English training, with a strong emphasis on the vocabulary of the subject. Secondly, students will need to be prepared for their future working life in business. Accordingly, their language courses will include skills such as commercial correspondence, or presenting information (Ellis & Johnson, 1994).

Although EFL and ESP have dissimilar objectives, they have similarities in learning situations, that is, the learners are non-native English speakers learning English out its natural environment and practising the language inside the classroom only. The learners, in this study, BE learners, were suggested to be exposed to the target language as much as possible. "The amount of exposure to the target language is crucial in language learning" (Brumfit quoted in Albazza, 1994, p.108). Though it is difficult for non-native language learners to comprehend the foreign language as well as native speakers, adequate exposure to the target language leads to greater success in learning the language. Second language learners are recommended to be exposed to "whole instances of language use" (p.109). In particular, for those who have insufficient competence in language, exposure to the target language will enhance their knowledge of the language and enrich their linguistic competence. Undoubtedly, the learners will have opportunity to practise what they have learned

(Albazza, 1994). Nevertheless, in practice, students do not receive adequate English learning environment (Hung, 1998a).

### **3.4.2. The Teaching Materials of BE**

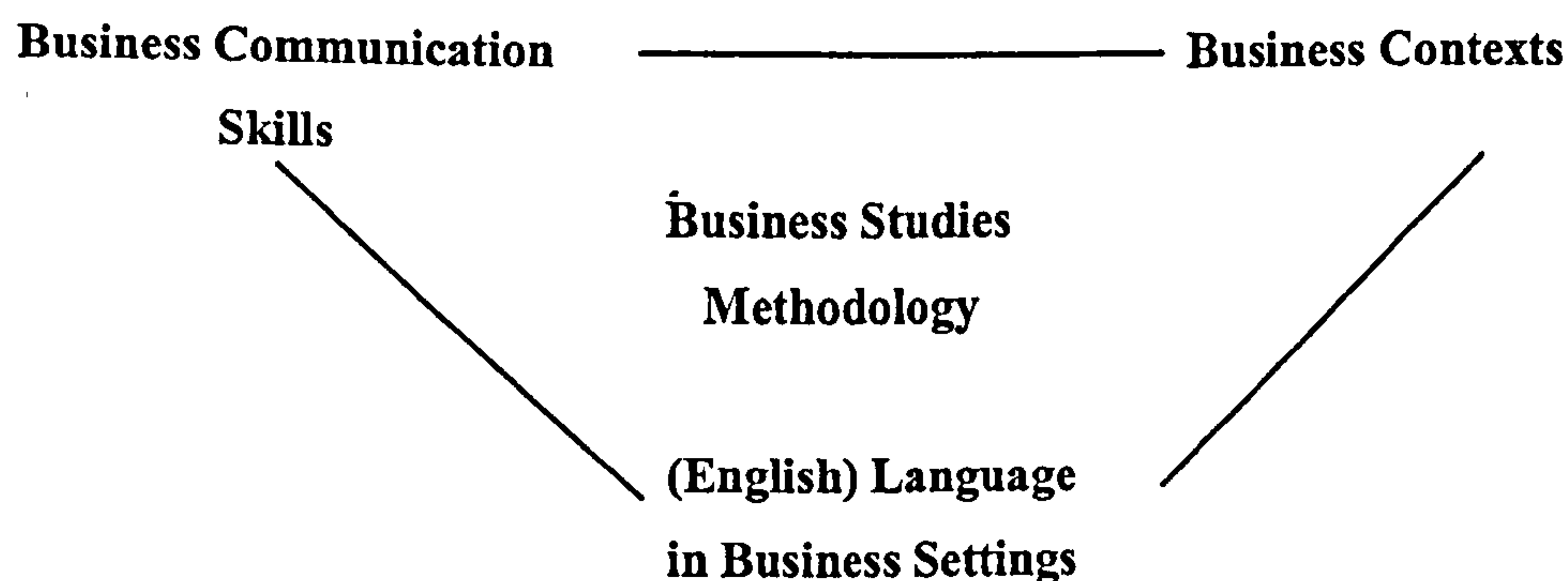
As defined previously, the target audiences with both practising business people and students of business are supplied with the same materials. Business English textbooks are also meant to cater for both native and non-native English speakers, because native speakers might be new to the work of business. Furthermore, as an international language, English is used as the means of communication in business transactions between people, none of whom might be native speakers. Thus, Robinson (1991) suggested that authentic Business English language must include data employed by practising business people and non-native speakers of English.

With regard to teaching materials for Business English, Kennedy & Bolitho (1984) pointed out that most of materials suitable for younger learners are written as “general” English courses. Similarly, Robinson (1991) noted that there are a large number of general books, which seem little different from course books for GPE. She suggested that :

- Business English is regarded as a “mediating language”, which implies a similarity with everyday language.
- Most people who study Business English are students, suggesting a market for general course books.
- Students, particularly in language schools are not “homogeneous” in terms of work experience. Therefore, a general textbook applicable to a range of business situations may be the most appropriate.

Thus, Business English course books often have very general aims to provide a flexible learner-centred course in English communication skills used in day-to-day work and to provide students with the practical skills to communicate effectively in a wide range of business situation (Robinson, 1991).

St John (1996) classified Business English teaching materials into four categories:



**Figure 3.3: Four Categories of Business English Teaching Materials (St John, 1996, p.9)**

The three corners of the triangle are related to the three main features of the work environment that determine the linguistic skills required. The fourth category relates to how business is studied. Business communication skills refer to the core skills of business activity such as meeting, discussing and presentation. These activities require not only verbal language but also organisational skills, non-verbal language and awareness of audience. With regard to business contexts, they consist of the materials on specific disciplines such as finance and marketing. The category, language in business settings, is the material related most closely to EFL material. ESP practitioners should recognise the needs of the students and their work experience and modify the teaching approaches (St John, 1996). In Arthur's opinion, good Business English teaching materials should include up-to-date information pertaining to a variety of relevant topics presented in the form of authentic articles,



accompanied with audio/video taped interviews, meetings, etc., and the materials for language skills development, such as realistic simulation, role play and project work (quoted in Afifi, 1991).

One characteristic of Business English that has been emphasised is the need to be pragmatic.

*The practical use of the language will be more important than theoretical knowledge about the language.*

(Ellis & Johnson, 1994, p.6)

However, language taught in textbooks is different from that used in real life.

Therefore, Williams suggested that,

*more real data is needed about what language is used in different situations before we as teachers and coursebook writers can begin to select what to teach for different situations.*

(quoted in Robinson, 1991, p.98)

Many writers have pointed out that collecting authentic data is essential to produce ESP materials for courses and communicative syllabus, which is the approach developed alongside ESP. Morrow defined an authentic text as:

*a stretch of real language, produced by a real speaker or writer for a real audience and designed to convey a real message of some sort. In other words it is not a made-up text.*

(quoted in Afifi, 1991, p.43)

Ellis & Johnson (1994, p.157) also defined authentic material as,

*any kind of material taken from the real world and not specifically created for the purpose of language teaching. It can be text, visuals, or audio material; it can be realia such as tickets, menus, maps, and timetables; or it can be objects such as products, equipment, components, or models.*

For Business English, authentic material is very important. First, the authentic texts contain the content-specific terminology which is often neglected in texts and dialogues created for learning English. The language used in authentic texts will reflect the genuine purpose to which the learners need to be exposed. Second, the material provides information about real-life situations. The information conveyed is more accurate and up-to-date and, therefore, has higher credibility. This is the content of the material rather than the language (Ellis & Johnson, 1994). Kennedy & Bolitho (1984, p.3) suggested “A gap in materials had to be filled for these specific-purpose learners.” In an international survey of business English, it was reported that only 38 percent were using business-oriented instructional materials, and only 47 percent incorporating business-oriented activities and tasks similar to those that occurred at work. It was concluded that the needs for high-quality business English programmes in all areas were unmet (de Beaugrande, 2000).

However, whether the issue of “authentic” or “simplified” texts should be used has highlighted the debate between ELT and ESP. As Kennedy & Bolitho (1984, pp.47-48) explained,

*A 'simplified' text is one in which grammatical, lexical and rhetorical elements have been made less complex to render the learning of the language more effective.*

*An 'authentic' text is one written for a specific audience (not language learners) and its purpose is the communication of subject content rather than language form.*

The use of either one of them has problems. Simplified texts presented to the learners often lack genuineness and lose some meaning due to the simplification, so they are different from the real texts the learners will face in the subject area (Kennedy & Bolitho, 1984). However, some objections to authentic reading texts have been made. Widdowson was strongly opposed to the use of authentic texts from the real world and suggested that authenticity should be considered "not as a quality residing in instances of language but a quality which is bestowed upon them, created by the response of the receiver" (quoted in Kuo, 1993). Widdowson argued that if students cannot fully understand the language they are exposed to or cannot communicate due to the poor knowledge of the language, then the language cannot be considered authentic at all (Afifi, 1991).

Authentic texts are always used in particular and individual situations and different speakers in different situations might use different languages. There may also be some confusion between authenticity and relevance. Kuo (1993) argued that authentic materials often lack relevance for learners in the real environment in Taiwan. The textbooks available in Taiwan are written for a general ESL/EFL situation and lack localised content. Though she referred to the case in EST, the same point seems to apply to Business English. Robinson (1991, p.98) suggested that more

consideration needs to be given to cultural aspects of business communication. She pointed out that “currently too much attention is focused on the business practices of Western Europe and the USA, and a cross-cultural adjustment is being made in the direction of the West.” Similarly, St John (1996) claimed that the underlying business culture is a Western European/North American one and published materials presuppose that the learners have familiarity and understanding of that culture. Moreover, Kennedy & Bolitho (1984) emphasised that there was little concern for appropriateness, and many overseas students were offered a “frozen and old fashioned” correspondence style for imitation. Similarly, St John (1996) echoed that materials with formalised letters provide examples and models for learners to “copy” but do little to develop language awareness. More cultural and social appropriateness should be taken more into account.

Another major factor in ESP materials production, as Mountford (1988) asserted is teacher’s competence and confidence in using English. He gave the example of English teachers in Thailand, who are very conscious of deficiencies in their own ability which they ascribe to poor training, the lack of English language use in society, and the relatively low status assigned to English institutionally. This is partly the reason why many teachers are terrified of “authentic” materials. “They don’t understand them.” he said ( Mountford, 1988, p.81).

Furthermore, whether ESP teachers should use ready-made materials or produce their own learner-made materials has been debated over years. As Kuo (1993) pointed out, general opposition to ready-made materials has been expressed for the following reasons.

- They are written for particular situations and learners. Therefore they are impossible to apply to all learners even though they claim to be ready-to-use in all ESP courses.
- The level of English proficiency and specialist knowledge of any particular group of learners is not taken into account since those published materials aim for a large, unknown readership.
- For the purpose of pleasing a large market, they do not consider the appropriateness for classroom use in a local learning situation.

However, published materials have several strengths as well. For instance, they provide predictability for the learners about the course plan and content, great internal coherence, cost-effectiveness and more credibility vis-à-vis tailor-made materials. Due largely to the pressure of work, constraints of time, limitation of resources and facilities, and lack of expert knowledge, published materials are recommended. Kuo (1993) therefore suggested ESP teachers can choose whatever textbooks are appropriate or adaptable and always supplement or replace certain parts with tailor-made materials to suit the specific needs of students. Essentially, social and cultural learning context should be taken into account.

### **3.5. ESP/ BE Teachers**

It is worth noting that generally, ESP teachers are primarily teachers of General English, i.e. language teachers (Strevens, 1988; Ellis & Johnson, 1994). When transferring from General English to ESP teaching, they might have encountered several difficulties. One is a difference of attitude difficulty, between literature and science in particular. Traditionally, English teachers are arts or humanities trained and they usually psychologically reject science (Strevens, 1988; Robinson, 1991).

Strevens (1988) mentioned that another difficulty lies in the gap between the learners' knowledge of the special subject and the teachers' unfamiliarity with it. For English teachers who are native speakers, their training is more likely to be in literature than in language. With regard to non-native speaking teachers of English, they may not have confidence in their language competence. In addition, language teachers fear that they may not be able to cope with students' area of specialism (Robinson, 1991). Hutchinson & Waters (1987) distinguished the difference in role between ESP teachers and General English teachers. Firstly, ESP teachers have to manage the needs analysis, syllabus design, materials writing, adaptation and evaluation, in addition to the normal jobs of a classroom teacher. Secondly, most ESP teachers originate from General English teaching and lack of training for a "specific/special purpose". Therefore, ESP teachers need to orient themselves to a new environment for which they are not well-prepared. Nevertheless, later, Hutchinson & Waters (1987) argued that ESP teachers do not need to learn specialist subject knowledge, but rather be interested in the subject matter.

Strevens (1988) therefore suggested three techniques for ESP teachers.

- Become familiar with ESP course materials.
- Become familiar with the language of the subject.
- Allow students to put you right.

Robinson (1991) also recommended the possible solutions.

- Developing professional competence, which involves specialising in a particular discipline, or undergoing further training.
- Carrying out "action research" in the classrooms, which can give the teacher a certain degree of control over his/her professional life.
- Research leading to publication.

Robinson (1991, p.96) suggested “one of the prime requisites would seem to be flexibility.” meaning flexibility to change from being GPE teachers to ESP teachers and flexibility to cope with different groups and different language levels of students.

Strevens (1988, p.3) emphasised,

*Becoming an effective teacher of ESP requires more experience, additional training, extra effort, a fresh commitment, compared with being a teacher of General English.*

With regard to Business English teachers, not exceptionally, some are general TEFL/TESL language teachers, while others are from a business background in terms of working in companies and have useful business knowledge such as international trading and how companies are organised and run. Some institutions prefer to employ such people because they think it is easier to train them in basic teaching skills than training English teachers about business. However, Ellis & Johnson (1994) clearly defined the role of Business English teachers and stressed that no matter what the background of Business English teacher is, the Business English teacher is primarily a language teacher. They argued that BE teachers do not need to be an expert in any particular business, because the learners already have specific content knowledge. Furthermore, though the students are pre-experienced, it is not the language teachers' responsibility to teach subject matter. Ellis & Johnson (1994, p.26) argued,

*Although it is of great value to be able to talk intelligently to learners about their work, it is of greater importance that the trainer should be seen as an expert in presenting and explaining the language and in diagnosing the learners' language problems.*

Afifi (1991) stressed that Business English teacher teaches English for Business rather than Business in English.

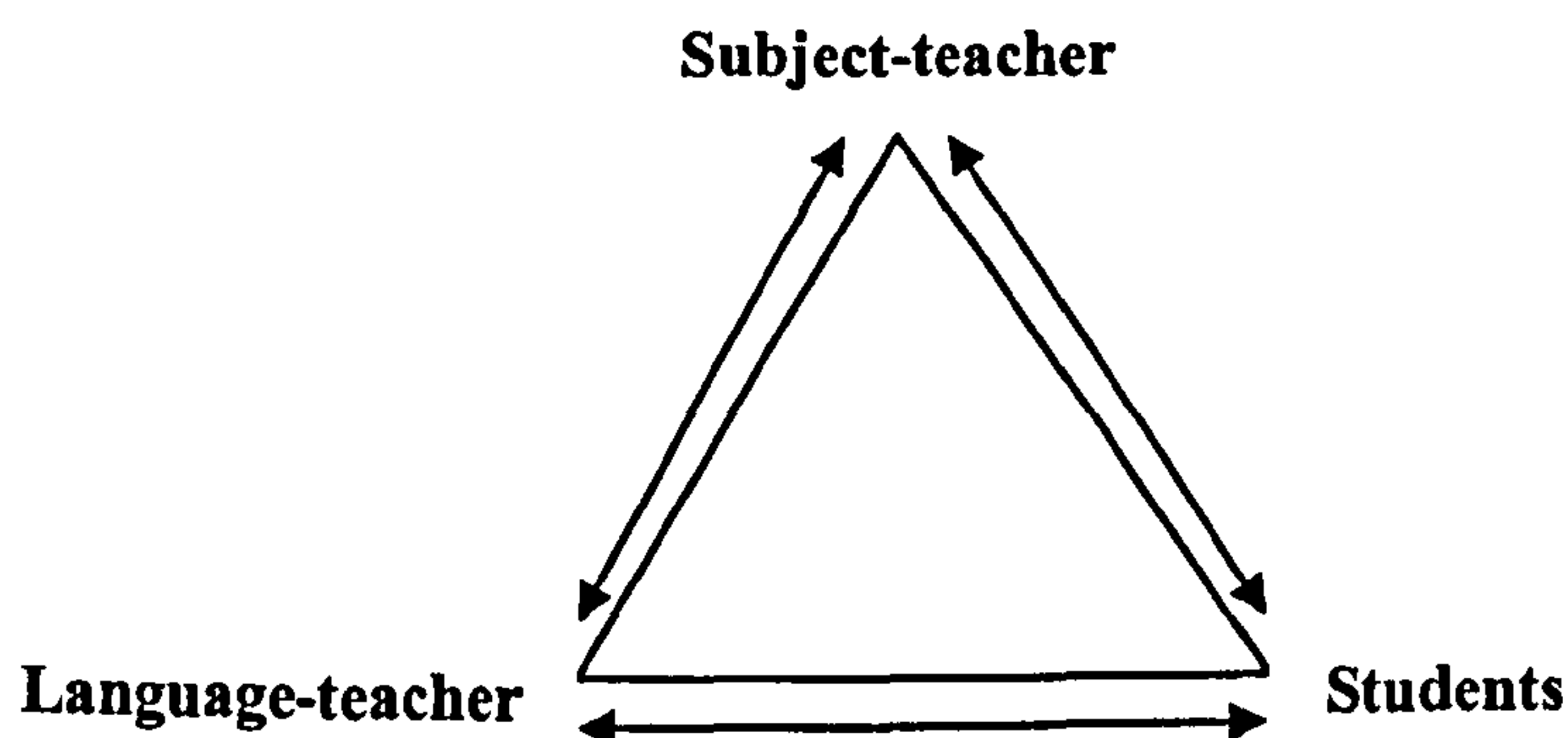
Moreover, de Beaugrande (2000) stressed that under the circumstances that the English Department and business faculties usually operate separately, English teachers may feel more comfortable staying on the “language side of the fence”, explaining the grammatical functions of the language rather than analysing some business concept. On the “business side of the fence”, the teachers may be indifferent about the language study, register and usage. He suggested that English departments and business faculties should therefore work together to discuss their priorities and negotiate their disparities and realise that their traditional separation is unnecessary when “the linguistic and discursive demands of rapidly changing global economy are becoming explosively more complex and diverse” (de Beaugrande, 2000, Section 2, ¶ 9).

Pertaining to the course named “Business English”; it has brought the ambiguity and led to the problem in course design. Tsai (1998) argued whether “Business English” should be defined as a subject (business) class or a language class? If it is regarded as a subject course, it should not be the language teachers’ responsibility because most of the teachers do not seem to be qualified in terms of educational or professional background. If it is seen as a language course, is it a course of General English or ESP? The results of her survey on the learners’ needs analysis indicated the learners’ major concern is their language proficiency and business knowledge has been placed second. Hung’s (1998a and 1998b) surveys of the English teachers of junior colleges and institutes of technology showed that they deemed knowledge and competence of English language skills to be the most important qualities English teachers should possess.



### 3.5.1. Team Teaching

As aforementioned, ESP teachers are struggling between language teaching and the knowledge of special subjects. A solution initially proposed by Johns and Dudley-Evans (1985) was team teaching, which involves the students, and the collaboration between language-teachers, subject-teacher and students (Figure 3.4).



**Figure 3.4: Schematic Triangle of Team Teaching (John & Dudley-Evans, 1985, p.138)**

They argued that overseas students' failure to keep up with their course or research was rarely attributable to the knowledge of the subject or the knowledge of the language alone.

*In the triangle of which the three angles are the student, the subject teacher and the language teacher, each needs a certain type of assistance and feedback from the other two.*

(Johns & Dudley-Evans, 1985, p.141)

There are several different types of team teaching, which have been reviewed by many writers and generally discussed in the context of tertiary-level ESP, particularly in EAP. By and large, team teaching is an integration of language and content in second and foreign language instruction. The language teachers work with content (subject) teachers to determine agreed language and content objective (Kuo, 1993).

This cooperation can take place at different levels of formality and involvement through establishing formal or informal contact with the specialist (subject) departments. Robinson (1991) considered there are two main types of team teaching.

- Two teachers together. The ESP teacher and the subject teacher are present in the classroom together. The subject teacher is in charge and the language teacher is there to make sure any grammatical problems will be given immediate attention.
- Subject-language integration. Only one teacher may be involved in teaching at a time, with language and content. Nevertheless, the material being taught has derived from some earlier collaboration between language teacher and subject teachers. Because of the teachers' heavy teaching load and some subject teachers' uncomfortable feelings about being observed by a language specialist, sometimes it is not possible to have two teachers in the same classroom.

In the case of Johns and Dudley-Evans' experiment, Dudley-Evans recorded live lectures in the subject departments and then prepared worksheets on these, which were checked by the subject teachers. The students worked on the lectures in the language laboratory. For writing, Dudley-Evans and the subject teachers jointly planned assignments, which Dudley-Evans then worked on with the students. The finished assignments were marked by both the language teacher and the subject teacher (Robinson, 1991).

Some teachers may be able to develop adequate knowledge of a subject and teach confidently from subject-specific texts. However, Kennedy & Bolitho (1984) emphasised that even the most dedicated ESP teacher will realise his/her knowledge of a subject has limits and may need to cooperate with the subject teacher. Then team teaching will be an ideal mode of teaching, and it has generally proven to be most effective in the ESP classroom. The specialist (technical or business) colleagues can

provide specific information and monitor the students to solve the problems. The English teacher can make sure each student has performed a certain level of communication skills (Huckin, 1988). As Kennedy & Bolitho (1984, p.138) put it,

*The language teacher may be able to integrate his materials with the methodology of the subject class, and the subject teacher may adopt some of the techniques used naturally by good language teachers e.g. the simplification of vocabulary and structure, and checking procedures.*

In addition, Robinson (1991) pointed out there are at least three benefits that the student, ESP teacher and subject specialist can mostly gain from team teaching.

- The student can see how well he/she has met the requirements of the department and to keep up the work.
- The language teacher can have first hand insight of the difficulties students encounter with their subject course.
- The subject teacher receives feedback on how well he/she has been communicating with his students.

Various modes of integration are possible, which could involve the language teacher taking some responsibility for teaching content or the subject teacher becoming involved with language work. After intensive collaboration, both language and subject teachers may feel that either of them could teach the course independently and “the traditional distinction between specialist teaching and language teaching was blurred” (Skehan, quoted in Robinson, 1991, p.90).

However, some comments have been made on the practical limitations of the cooperation between the subject teacher and the language teacher. Kennedy (1980, quoted in Afifi, 1991) argued that team teaching is costly in terms of time. Robinson

(1991) stressed that subject-language integration is very untidy in practice and the pay schedules do not allow two teachers in one classroom. Furthermore, Kuo (1993) argued that the availability of teaching materials for many content course offerings and the proper design and production of materials under time pressure are problematic. Most importantly, vital to the success of the programme is adequate financial and administrative support. It is worth noting that no literature reference to any report of the occurrence of team teaching activity and projects in Taiwan can be found.

### **3.5.2. Teacher Training**

Though ESP has been popular in the field of English learning and teaching, as in many areas of the world, ESP teacher education and training programmes are lacking. At least two problems have been encountered: the lack of teacher training programmes in many areas of the world and dissatisfaction with conventional theory-to-practice training models (Chen, 2000). Considering the first problem, Hutchinson & Waters (1987, p.162) stated that,

*Considering the scale of the ESP revolution it must be admitted that little effort has been made to retrain teachers or at least allay their fears.*

Kennedy & Bolitho (1984, p.vii) commented that with little or no preparation time, teachers have been “thrown in at the deep end”. A similar situation exists worldwide. Afifi (1991) reported that the majority of BE teachers in the Third World were inadequately trained and the English department teachers in South East Asia were generally trained in the literary tradition. Mountford (1988) added that most pre-service teacher training in Thailand is sadly deficient in developing professional skills. As Chen (2000) pointed out, Taiwan is one of the areas where ESP is

particularly needed to sustain the expanding international trade and technology exchanges with western English speaking world. She stated,

*although English for specific purposes (ESP) has been a popular catchphrase in the field of language learning and teaching, in light of the thin to non-existent provision of ESP teacher education, training programs and supervision in many areas of the world, the demand for ESP courses has gone largely unanswered.*

(Chen, 2000, Introduction section, ¶ 1)

As mentioned at the beginning, even if such training is available, it may suffer inevitable limitations. According to Robinson (1991), the first issue to consider is whether the training course should be general or specific, which refers to the “narrow-angle” and “wide-angle” courses. The former is suitable for in-service courses tied to a particular type of specialists, and the latter is appropriate for pre-service trainees from a variety of backgrounds and teaching situations. The second issue is whether a wide-angle course is different from a general EFL/ESL teachers’ training course. If possible, it is preferable that the ESP teacher should at least have the same training of knowledge and awareness of educational and pedagogical input as GPE teachers. Additionally, the use of needs analysis and specification of objectives in designing the training course are particularly important for non-native speaking trainees in relation to study skills and language needs. In addition, Ewer (quoted in Afifi, 1991) identified the difficulties that literary-oriented teachers of English (General English teachers) would face when transferring to ESP. These are: attitudinal, conceptual, linguistic, methodological and organisational. Mountford (1988) discussed the significance of teachers’ attitudes to languages and learning. Many English teachers still view English as a subject on the curriculum with its own

body of knowledge, i.e. grammar, which what has to be taught. Attitudes to subject specific language use are ambivalent. For example, Mountford (1988) explained, as far as the subject language can be popularly understood, teachers are not reluctant. However, when actual technical, scientific or educational discourses are presented to be taught, teachers tend to reject them as “not their business”.

Kennedy (1979, quoted in Afifi, 1991) suggested a need to varied ESP teacher training courses depending on the characteristics of the trainees. These characteristics are:

- Experience and training of teaching EFL. If the teacher already has such experience, he/she is assumed to have a basic knowledge and practices of teaching. With additional training in EFL, he/she will have a basic theory to build on.
- Experience of teaching ESP. With what EFL training has taught him/her, the teacher who has ESP teaching experience needs a more theoretical course with an element of instruction in syllabus planning and materials preparation.
- Native/non-native speaker of English. Non-native speakers are generally working at a disadvantage when dealing with scientific or technical English. However, there is the advantage of being a speaker of the learners' mother tongue. The teacher can exploit the use of the mother tongue in the teaching situation, such as using translation in explaining some lexical terms, and having questions asked and answered in the mother tongue. The latter has been considered to improve reading comprehension. In addition, the teacher may be more familiar with the learners' cultural background and their learning habits and problems.
- Knowledge of science/ technology. If the teachers already have a science background, they are generally sufficiently familiar with the content area and

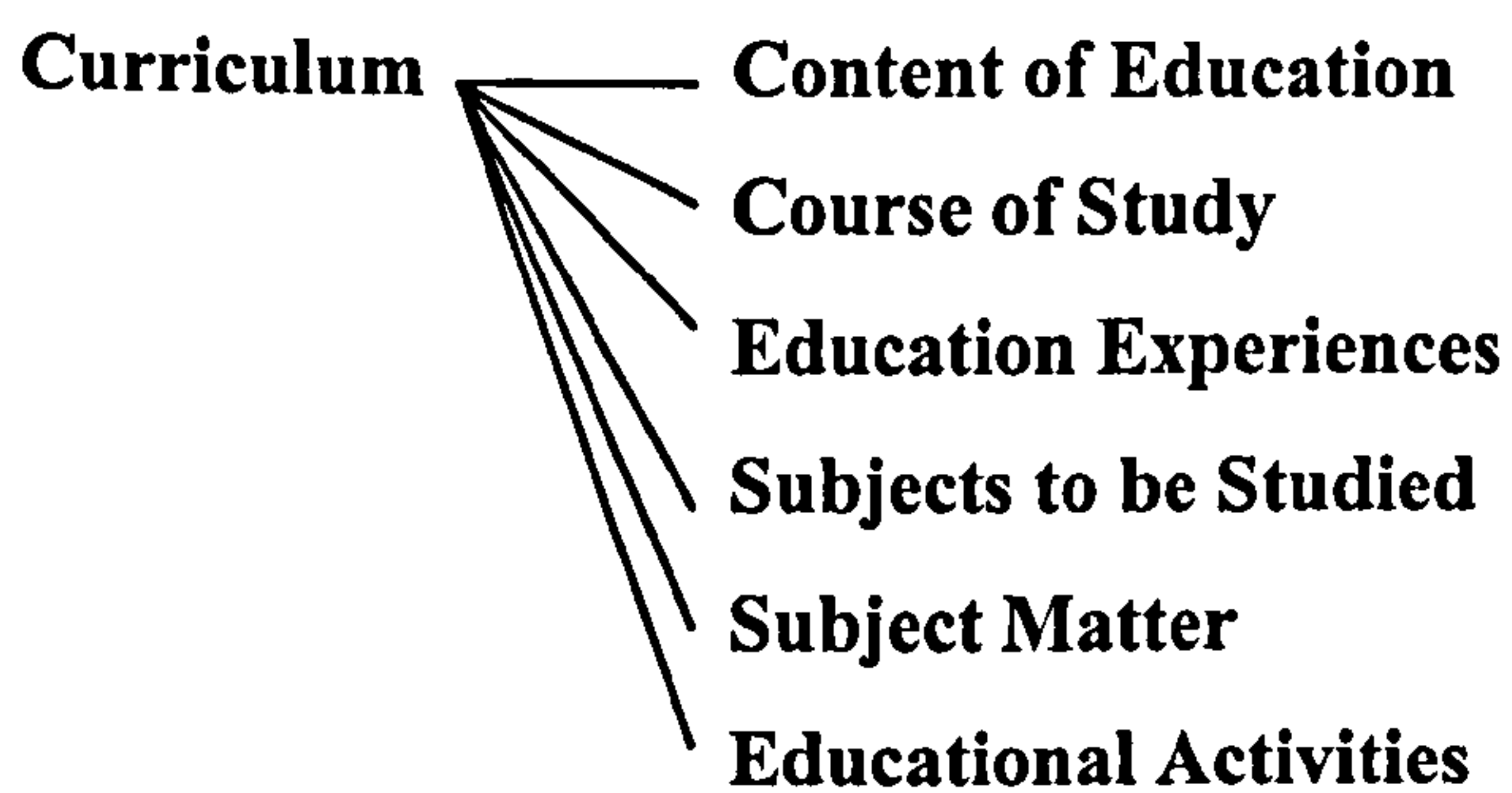
have more motivation and confidence to teach it. As far as the teachers with a literary background are concerned, the experience and knowledge of science can be obtained; the essential pre-requisite is that the teacher should have an initial interest in it.

Chen (2000) recommended changing from conventional ESP training to a self-training technique, since “it will not suffice for language teachers simply to sit around hoping for ESP training and supervisors to appear...” “Professional participation” has been emphasised, in which practice is incorporated into teacher training programmes. Chen (2000) went on arguing that the conventional theory-into-practice ESP training model seems inadequate without the context-specific principles of ESP curriculum development. Thus, she suggested, general English teachers can train themselves in a practice-into-theory direction by a process of professional reflection, problem-solving and decision-making. This rationale of the ESP professional self-training model corresponds to the philosophy of action research in which “theories are not validated independently and then applied to practice. They are validated through practice” (Elliott, 1991, quoted in Chen, 2000, Section 2, ¶1). This is also suggested by Robinson (1991) as mentioned previously (Section 3.5.1).

## **3.6. Curriculum Development**

### **3.6.1. What is the curriculum?**

It can be defined as “the course of study to be followed in becoming educated”, though, frequently, “course of study” is interpreted into “the subjects to be studied” (Taylor & Richards, 1985, p.3). They defined the curriculum as shown in Figure 3.5:



**Figure 3.5: Definition of Curriculum (Taylor & Richards, 1985, p.3)**

Nevertheless, no single definition is necessarily preferable to one or another. It depends on the context in which the reference is being made and the principles of consistency and accuracy in reflecting the intended content of education (Taylor & Richards, 1985). In addition, a curriculum is a framework of decision and assumptions, within which the teaching, especially in formal institutions, takes place (quoted in Albazzaz, 1994). Curriculum also involves the issues of policy and planning in the educational environment (Robinson, 1991). Dubin and Olshtain offered a more complete definition:

*A curriculum contains a broad description of general goals by indicating an overall educational-cultural philosophy which applies across subjects together with a theoretical orientation to language and language learning with respect to the subject matter at hand. A curriculum is often reflective of national and political trends as well.*

(quoted in Albazzaz, 1994, p.93)

Taylor and Richards (1985) also commented that there are changes in society, in its attitudes and values, and in its economic condition. These changes are mirrored in political changes. Furthermore, they mentioned that how people view the content of education is influenced by changes in economy and technology; whether it should be



more vocational and less academic, more basic core courses and fewer selective courses and so on. What is taught and what ought to be taught in educational institutions are subject to change. Hence, what purpose the curriculum should serve in a broad sense, in particular, in a department of an institution should be clear. Taylor and Richards (1985, p.5) stated that “curriculum objectives can be valuable aids in curriculum planning but only after the overall purposes of the curriculum are made explicit.” “The planning and creation of alternative curricula is what curriculum development is about.”

### 3.6.2. Objectives of Curriculum

*if an educational program is to be planned and if efforts for continued improvement are to be made, it is very necessary to have some conception of the goals that are being aimed at.*

(Tyler, 1949, p.3)

From Tyler’s (1949) point of view, decisions on the purposes of education should be based on studies of learners, studies of contemporary life and studies about objectives from subject specialists. These objectives become the criteria of content outline, selection of materials, teaching procedures and tests undertaken. He emphasised that all educational programmes are to accomplish basic educational purposes. Widdowson (1983) suggested that defining objectives in order to direct students to the achievement of aims is the central problem in education. Taylor and Richards (1985) noted that aims are what the curriculum serves and through objectives, aims may be achieved. Furthermore, Taylor and Richards (1985) defined curriculum objectives as the intended ends of studying subjects. Widdowson (1983) stressed that, in ESP, English for Specific Purposes, the purposes referred to are the

eventual practical use, applied to the language to achieve occupational and academic aims. In ESP, students are learning English as auxiliary to other professional or academic purposes. Accordingly, course design will have established its own appropriate objectives. Widdowson (1983) emphasised that learning ESP is a dependent activity, which only exists to serve those purposes that have been specified. It is how English as Specific Purposes (ESP) distinguishes from General Purpose English (GPE). He distinguished between the objectives of ESP and GPE as follows:

<b>ESP</b>	<b>Specification of objectives: equivalent to aims</b>	<b>= training: development of restricted competence</b>
<b>GPE</b>	<b>Specification of objectives: leads to aims</b>	<b>= education: development of general capacity</b>

**Figure 3.6: Objectives of ESP and GPE (Widdowson, 1983, p.7)**

Therefore, bearing the objectives of ESP in mind, the concept of training is based on what learners need for language. Accordingly, a course will be designed to meet that need and provide the learners with the restricted competence they need to meet their requirements. Kennedy and Bolitho (1984) suggested that a curriculum plan has to meet the needs of learners. Widdowson (1983, p.6) concluded that, generally conceived,

*ESP is essentially a training operation which seeks to provide learners with a restricted competence to enable them to cope with certain clearly defined tasks. These tasks constitute the specific purposes which the ESP course is designed to meet.*

### **3.7. Scrutiny of Published Sources Referring to the Problems of the DAFL-E/DAE in Junior Colleges and Institutes/ Universities of Technology in Taiwan**

Having examined related papers concerning the problems encountered in the DAFL-E/DAE, the writer concludes as follows.

#### **3.7.1. Objectives and Distinguishing Features of the DAFL-E/DAE**

The objectives of Technological & Vocational Education are not in accordance with the rapid changes and needs of society (Yiao, 1995). Most students wish to pursue higher education after graduation. Take senior vocational high school graduates as an example; 69.7 percent of those who have graduated after five years, still have a strong aspiration for further study (Yu, 1995). Furthermore, distinguishing features need to be emphasised. The goal of TVE is to cultivate basic, intermediate to advanced technical manpower. Applied science and technical development should be focused on, as distinct from the objectives of General Education (Hsiao, 1995; Shih, Su, & Lin, 1998). From 1995, in accordance with the new University Law, apart from the compulsory credits regulated by MOE, 40 percent of graduation credits can be offered flexibly featured with courses to be designed. Thus courses are allowed to design according to the needs of students and local industry by each junior college and institute/university of technology to develop a distinct status (Lin, 1996).

As mentioned earlier (Section 2.1), the Department of Applied Foreign Language-English (DAFL-E)/ Department of Applied English (DAE) was established to meet the increasingly high demand for English language due to the rapid economic development and intensive business activities in Taiwan. As a result, the curriculum has to be improved in accordance with the educational reforms with

respect to vocational education. Wu & Liu (2000, p.19) mentioned that the goal of the DAFL-E/DAE is that the graduate will be “a well-educated person with special knowledge and skills in foreign languages and in related areas” Liaw (2002, p.393) stated the mission of the DAFL-E/DAE as

*to equip students with a high level of competence in English language skills and adequate specialised knowledge and skills which are needed in the market.*

He emphasised that the applied English programme is market-oriented. Furthermore, with regard to the survey with students and graduates of the DAFL-E/DAE, two aims of the Department are expected: reinforcing the competence in English communication skills and based on which, equipping students with trading, diplomatic, educational and mass communication specialities (Shih, Su, & Lin, 1998). Hung (1998a; 1998b) also conducted a study regarding the perspectives of English teaching of TVE with English teachers of junior colleges and institutes of technology. The majority of teachers have shared similar views, namely, the enhancement of students' English communication skills with adequate competence in other related areas are the major concern and the practical application of language use skills needs to pay more attention. Additionally, teachers emphasised that the goal of the Department should be attainable. Liaw (2002) suggested that the Department is rather new, and that modifications of the educational goals are necessary. This goal of the DAFL-E/DAE is neither clearly defined nor well-implemented. The problems have been attributed to course design and teacher training, which will be elucidated later.

### **3.7.2. Course Design of the DAFL-E/DAE**

- Courses developed in different course levels (5-year/ 2-year junior college, 2-year/ 4-year institute/university of technology) cannot be consistently and coherently connected. Instead, the content of many courses is overlapping or repeated (S. H. Huang, 2000; Lin & Chu, 1999b; Shih, Su & Lin, 1998; Yang, 2000; Yiao, 1995).

Kang (1995) mentioned in particular that the 2-year institute of technology was established to provide continuity of education for the 5-year/ 2-year junior college graduates (Figure 1.2). Meanwhile, it is difficult in the course design for 2-year institute of technology to meet students' needs in view of the diverse background of the graduates from 5-year/ 2-year junior college. In Taiwan, there is the DAFL-E/DAE in senior vocational high schools, 5-year/ 2-year junior college, and 2-year/ 4-year institutes/universities of technology. However, the course design is incoherent, or rather, overlapping. Different course levels may exist side-by-side in one junior college or institute/university of technology and some students may stay in same institution moving from one course level to another, say, from 5-year or 2-year junior college to 2-year institute of technology. Nevertheless, sometimes the same courses are offered in different course levels, with the same teaching materials. The results from a survey of 2-year institute of technology students of the DAFL-E/DAE in one university, by Yang (2000), showed that students were not satisfied with curriculum planning because of its incoherence and discontinuation.

- Course design does not meet the needs of local industry and the manpower market (M. C. Huang, 2000; Lin & Chu, 1999a; Shih, Su, & Lin, 1998).

Shih et al. (1998) conducted a survey of commercial organisations, regarding their needs for graduates with English language proficiency. The results showed that basic

English language skills and professional English in specific areas are both highly in demand. The former are offered as the compulsory core courses in the DAFL-E/DAE, which includes English proficiency skills in listening, speaking, reading, writing. Nevertheless, M.C. Huang (2000) pointed out that the emphasis of course design in TVE is more on specific subjects than basic English. The students' performance in English language skills is not satisfactory. In the view of Shih et al. (1998) the reasons could be that basic training of students has been insufficient since junior high school, where the students started learning English as a foreign language. In addition, after students are admitted to the DAFL-E/DAE, the training to the related course design is neither practical nor efficient. The courses are too similar to those offered by general Foreign Languages & Literature Departments in General Universities. This will be discussed more in a later section. The researchers suggested that the improvement of teaching materials, teaching methods and teacher training is the key.

- Course design is too much like courses in the Department of Foreign Languages & Literature (DFLL) in General Universities, emphasising literature and linguistics. This is inappropriate to technological and vocational colleges/universities, which are supposed to have different aims from those of General Universities (Hung, 1998; Liaw, 2002; Shih, Su, & Lin, 1998; Tsai, 2000).

The Department of Applied Foreign Languages-English (DAFL-E/DAE) is for business purposes. Business education is “to educate individuals for and about business” (quoted in Hsieh, 2000, p.289). Clearly, the aim for TVE is to train students for work and to be employable. Accordingly, its teaching content and methods have to be pragmatic and meet social needs to differentiate it from General Education, which is broader in scope and aims to “enhance and develop the whole characters of pupils” (quoted in Yang, 2000, p.273).

- Course design is unable to present the specific features of the DAFL-E/DAE in each junior college and institute/ university of technology (Chen, 2001; Lin & Chu, 1999a, 1999b; Shih, Su, & Lin, 1998; Tsai, 2000).

As mentioned above, the courses offered in the DAFL-E/DAE are not very different from the DFLL. Therefore, it has not been possible to build up specific features of the DAFL-E/DAE in each college/university. According to a survey by Lin et al. (1999b), there were no distinctive differences in courses offered and specialisation focus in the DAFL-E/DAE among twelve colleges. Lin et al. (1999a) suggested that specialisation should be developed in each individual institution. This could then be a criterion for students in deciding which school to enrol in, choosing the one that suits their personal preferences, instead of relying on the ranking or reputation of each college/university. Thus, the development of the DAFL-E/DAE in each institution can cater for the different needs of the job market. Take the college located in the east of Taiwan where the writer worked, as an example. This area is famous for its tourism industry, and accordingly, the percentage of elective courses in tourism offered in the DAFL-E is higher than at other colleges/universities (Lin & Chu, 1999b). Furthermore, starting from October 2002, it has changed its name from Business College to Hospitality & Tourism College to emphasise its specialisation (THTC, 2000). Chen (2001) suggested that the DAFL-E/DAE in junior colleges and institutes/universities of technology should specialise in different areas as their titles show, such as University of Pharmacy & Science, Institute of Health Science of Technology, College of Nursing, College of Marine Technology and Commerce and Hospitality College. The courses can be designed with these specialisations. Consequently, departments can support each other so that resources are well-exploited.

### **3.7.3. ESP Teacher Training in Taiwan**

- There is a lack of qualified ESP instructors. Teachers usually have a lack of specialised knowledge and practical experience, but have mostly specialised in literature, linguistics and English teaching, and they know little about business and industry (Huang, 2000b; Li, 2000; Liaw, 2002; Shih, Su, & Lin, 1998; Tsai, 1998; Tsai, 2000).

Kuo (1996) commented that the teachers at junior colleges and institutes/universities of technology are trained in General Education. Owing to lack of technical educational background and practical experiences in business and industry, teachers are not aware of the features and the needs in TVE. Tseng (1996) and Lin (1996) were of the same opinions. Chen (2000) pointed out the main problem with the provision of ESP courses in Taiwanese universities is the lack of teachers with ESP background among General English teachers.

As mentioned above, most teachers in the DAFL-E/DAE have majored in Linguistics, Western Literature, English Teaching, Translation & Interpretation and Education. They struggle because of their insufficient subject (business) knowledge. At the same time, the curriculum planning of the DAFL-E/DAE is designed to be “multi-functional”, that is, interdisciplinary, crossing over the traditional fields, say, from Literature, Linguistics and English Teaching to Information Technology, Business Management, and Mass Communication. However, where can “interdisciplinary” teachers be found? Li (2000) suggested that part-time teachers with “multi-functional” background, and resource sharing between disciplines within one college/university may be one of the solutions. For example, teachers could be brought in from management or engineering departments to teach information, business management or technology-related courses and, if possible, using English



as target language to have learners exposed to the language as much as possible, which is crucial in language learning (Section 3.4.1).

In addition, teachers can be encouraged to undertake in-service training or learning by teaching and cooperating with business specialists. Obtaining a teaching certificate in various specialist subject areas is also strongly recommended (Huang, 2000b; Hung & Su, 2000; Lin, 1996; Tsai, 2000). Shih et al. (1998) suggested “interdisciplinary integration”, that is, each department offers basic subject introductory courses and the DAFL-E/DAE can provide basic and specific English courses in communication, business negotiation skills, translation/ interpretation, technical report writing skill, etc. Chen (2001) declared that literary-oriented teachers may have a fear of ESP or have difficulties in comprehension related to special subject-matters. Hung’s (1998a and 1998b) surveys on English teachers of junior colleges and institutes of technology indicated that overloaded teaching and administrative work has deterred teachers from attending training courses. Chen (2001) suggested that teachers who have practical experience but not a higher degree can be employed as “technical teachers”. In the report of Shih et al. (1998), it suggested that ESP teacher training should comprise,

- Reading materials in the relevant specialist area, visiting organisations, and viewing and discussing the related films.
- The features of ESP, including vocabulary, syntax and terminology.
- ESP teaching methods, including media application, teaching evaluations, and teaching materials.
- Seminars and in-service training.

#### **3.7.4. Teaching Materials of the DAFL-E/DAE**

Learners have different needs. Therefore, teaching materials cannot easily meet the needs of all learners (Shih, Su & Lin, 1998). As Kuo (1993, p.171) admitted that “EST teachers in Taiwan are confronted with decisions as they select or produce materials to fit a particular situation, a course, and specific learners.”

#### **3.7.5. Evaluation of Students’ English Proficiency**

- Most evaluation is focused on English grammar and there is insufficient emphasis on knowledge and English in practical use (Shih, Su & Lin, 1998).
- The English Proficiency Certificate is not a requirement for graduation (Hsieh, 2000; M. C. Huang, 2000; Hung & Su, 2000).

The learners’ language proficiency and specialised knowledge are equally important (Tsai, 2000). Lack of competence in English is the main problem for TVE students and it starts from senior vocational high school. The major issues are insufficient English teaching hours, and that students are ambitious for further study and do not pay attention to learning basic English skills, but focus on the examinations. Hence, students have low motivation and low achievement in English (Hung, 1998a, 1998b; Shih, Su & Lin, 1998). Many researchers (Hsieh, 2000; M. C. Huang, 2000; Hung & Su, 2000; Lin, 1996; Shih, Su & Lin, 1998) have pointed out the importance of introducing an English Proficiency Certificate, which, at present, is not a requirement for the students to graduate in the DAFL-E/DAE. They suggested encouraging students to take English Proficiency tests before they complete the study, or incorporating the English Proficiency Certificate as part of the requirements for earning the diploma or degree. A survey of graduates of the DAFL-E/DAE revealed that the graduates similarly think that obtaining English Proficiency

Certificate would ensure that students attain a certain level of English proficiency (Hung & Su, 2000).

Several English Proficiency tests set by various agencies are popularly employed in Taiwan, and a certificate is issued afterwards.

- The General English Proficiency Test (GEPT) sponsored by the Ministry of Education, Taiwan and since 2000 by the Language Training and Testing Centre (LTTC). It includes beginner, intermediate, intermediate-advanced and advanced levels and has been extensively adopted by schools/ institutions, public and private sectors to evaluate English proficiency levels of students, employees and as the standard of teaching/ learning evaluation, university admission and employment (GEPT, 2003).
- The Language Training and Testing Centre (LTTC) was established in 1951 to provide intensive foreign languages training courses and foreign language proficiency tests for government-sponsored personnel and the general public in Taiwan. In 1986, LTTC was registered with the Ministry of Education to meet the high social need for foreign languages (LTTC, 2003). LTTC is also regarded as one of the most trust-worthy testing institutions since it is under the supervision of several prestigious organisations.
- The Test of English for International Communication (TOEIC), which is an English proficiency test for people whose native language is not English. It tests how well people can communicate in English in the global workplace. It is held by a world wide certification-testing agency (TOEIC, 2003).
- Test of English as a Foreign Language (TOEFL) is administered by the Educational Testing Service (ETS), USA all over the world, to test English proficiency for people whose native language is not English (TOEFL, 2003).

### **3.7.6. Needs of the Industry**

Many research results showed that basic English language skills are in high demand at work places, followed by second foreign languages and professional specialised knowledge (Shih, Su & Lin, 1998). The professions needed the most by the industry are as follows in descending order of business, secretarial and marketing, in which the basic English language skills are considered essential (Wang & Shen, 1998). As Shih et al. (1998, p.67) put it,

*Suggested by industry, the course design of the DAFL-E/DAE should equip students with basic and professional English competence, and supplemented with second foreign languages and specific subject knowledge.*

According to the survey of Shih et al. (1998) in industry, the profession which most demands English proficiency is secretarial work. As to applicability of language skills to the job market, listening and speaking skills in business communication and negotiation are rated the highest.

### **3.7.7. Cooperation with the Industry**

- There are difficulties in implementation of students' internship and educational cooperation with commercial organisations (Shih, Su & Lin, 1998).

One of the features of Technological & Vocational Education is integration of theory and practice, which necessitates students' internship. However, the implementation is not successful, even though the importance of cooperation with industry has been emphasised by many researchers (Chen, 2001; Kuo, 1996; Lin, 1996; Liu, 1996; Hsieh, 2000; Huang, 2000b; Shih, 2000; Wang & Shen, 1998).

Chen (2001) suggested conducting a needs analysis of business industry to understand the needs of industry, in terms of job requirements in language proficiency, special knowledge and skills. This would help with course design and teacher training of the DAFL-E/DAE. Co-teaching or team-teaching is recommended as a means of cooperation with “technical instructors” from the commercial organisations. Kuo (1996) stated that simulation and on-the-job training can facilitate the implementation of TVE. Both systems require cooperation with industry. The Sandwich Plan in the UK, Cooperative Education in the US and Dual System in Germany are examples of the cooperation with the industries in training would-be technicians. This is a “win, win, win” strategy in terms of the benefit to teachers (in-service teacher training), students (job-hunting or practical training), and the industry/ institution (employee training) (Lin, 1996; Wang & Shen, 1998). S.H. Huang (2000) cited the practical examples from the US, such as school-to-work or education-business-partnership and service learning, which require students to make “site visits” or complete “work assignments”, helping small businesses in the neighbourhood with any English-related needs. The “Interdisciplinary Business and Foreign Language Programme” was also introduced. Moreover, Shih (2000) emphasised that cooperation with industry does not only entail sending students to practise in the workplace; intensive contact, working together with learning activities and evaluation are equally important.

### **3.8. Summary**

This chapter has presented a review of literature relevant to this study. The background of ESP was introduced through its origins, definition and the development of its branches. Needs analysis was discussed, with emphasis on its

importance and necessity for ESP programmes before courses are designed, to ensure they meet the needs of learners and commercial organisations in terms of the job market. The concept of Business English was explained, and the distinctive features of its learners and teaching materials were analysed, issues pertained to ESP teachers, with particular references with Business English teachers, team teaching and ESP teacher training were investigated. The curriculum was explained and purpose of curriculum development was emphasised. Last, but not the least, the literature referring to the problems of the DAFL-E/DAE in Technological and Vocational Colleges/ Institutes/ Universities of Technology in Taiwan was scrutinised. The literature on ESP (Kennedy & Bilotho, 1984; Robinson, 1991; Widdowson, 1983), Business English (de Beaugrande, 2000; Ellis & Johnson, 1994; Kuo, 1993), and previous Taiwanese research (Liaw, 2002; Lin & Chu, 1999a; 1999b; Shih; Su & Lin, 1998), which have significance for the research undertaken in this study will provide a basis for comparison with the findings of this study in Chapter 6.

## **CHAPTER FOUR**

### **RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY**

#### **4.1. Introduction**

In this chapter, the writer states the research questions to be investigated and discusses the methodology adopted in this study, which used a predominantly qualitative approach. The purposes of this research are:

1. To evaluate development of the DAFL-E/DAE in one junior college, two institutes of technology and one university of technology located in four regions, east, south, mid-west and north of Taiwan. The salient points are:
  - Implementation of the goal - to cultivate the middle-level of business English specialists
  - Course design
  - Teachers' professional development
  - Students' achievement in English proficiency
2. To investigate the practice of ESP, in particular with Business English within the DAFL-E/DAE of above-mentioned four selected institutions in terms of whether its purposes have served the needs of the students and industry.

In order to investigate the problems encountered, the writer decided to examine them from the perspectives of different participants, which included the students of DAFL-E/DAE, the Heads of Department, and the teachers who are teaching Business English, and by means of various methods. In discussing methodology, the rationale of qualitative and quantitative research and the instruments of research, e.g. interview and questionnaire are elucidated. How the participants were chosen and the pilot study conducted are stated. The methods of conducting summarising content

analysis and constant comparative analysis are highlighted. The techniques and procedures of data collection and analysis are described. Furthermore, the validity and reliability of this study and its limitations are also taken into account, followed by a summary of the chapter.

## **4.2. Research Design**

The research design of this study covers content analysis of course curriculum in the four selected institutions, with particular reference to the DAFL-E/DAE (Chapter 2), a literature review, including related papers regarding the development of ESP, and government documents on the issues of Technological & Vocational Education in Taiwan (Chapter 3). Furthermore, the writer collected data through a survey conducted with the tools of self-administered questionnaire and semi-structured interviews.

## **4.3. Research Questions**

These research questions will be investigated because of the concern arising out of the writer's teaching experience in Taiwan. Being the Head of DAFL-E, the writer has witnessed the problems occur and the development of the DAFL-E/DAE became her major concern. It was decided to look at the above concerns through the following research questions:

1. What are the objectives and distinguishing features of the DAFL-E/DAE?  
Are they attainable? Are they realistic?
2. How has employment policy been modified in the DAFL-E/DAE of four selected institutions?
3. Is the 5-year junior college programme going to be discontinued?



4. What are the Heads of Department and teachers' views towards ESP?
5. How has teachers' professional development been implemented in the DAFL-E/DAE? Have teachers been adequately trained to teach ESP, Business English in particular?
6. What are the roles of the ESP teacher?
7. What are students' attitudes and views towards the DAFL-E/DAE and their future employment?
8. How is English used as the target language?
9. How are teaching materials selected?  
Are they ready-made or learner-tailored?
10. Does course design of the DAFL-E/DAE have coherence between different course levels, in terms of the 5-year/2-year junior college and 2-year institute of technology programmes?
11. Do business-related English courses meet the learners' present and future needs?
12. Does course design of the DAFL-E/DAE serve the needs of industry?
13. Do the English proficiency levels of students meet the requirements of the labour market?
14. How does the DAFL-E/DAE of four selected institutions prepare students obtaining an English Proficiency Qualification?
15. What challenges are encountered with regard to cooperative education with local business agencies in terms of industrial placement?

#### **4.4. Rationale for Research Methods**

For conducting this study, the writer adopted quantitative and qualitative research methods. The former was a questionnaire with the students. The latter

consisted of interviews with the Heads and teachers of the Department, and an external expert, as well as summarising content analysis and constant comparative analysis approaches. Webb et al. explained that multiple operations or employing several methods at once could limit the biases of any one method. They noted that it is useful,

*for more than one research instrument to be used in the measurement of the main variables in a study, a strategy which was referred to as 'triangulation of measurement'.*

(quoted in Bryman, 1988, p.131)

Triangulation is used on the assumption that a single reality could be studied objectively by using the multiple methods of social research (Seale, 1999). Generally speaking, most researchers have viewed the idea of triangulation as “entailing a need to employ more than one method of investigation and hence more than one type of data,” or “the different ways of examining the same research problem” (Bryman, 1988, p.131). Its use in qualitative research was initiated by Denzin (Seale, 1999). He treated triangulation as an approach in which “multiple observers, theoretical perspectives, sources of data, and methodologies” are combined (Denzin, 1970, quoted in Bryman, 1988, p.131). The most widely applied, methodological triangulation, has ideally provided a “between-method” approach and is frequently cited as a rationale for mixing quantitative and qualitative methods in a study. Thus, it has implied the possibility of blending quantitative and quantitative research methods in one study.

Furthermore, Bryman (1988) presented the other ways in which quantitative and qualitative research methods can be combined. He pointed that these two forms of methods can facilitate each other. Qualitative research can act as a precursor to the

problems and the development of instruments for quantitative research, in a sense that “qualitative research may act as a source of hunches or hypotheses to be tested by quantitative research” (Bryman, 1988, p.134) or, to put it another way, the “soft” findings have to be confirmed by the “hard” data (Bryman, 1988). Conversely, the quantitative research may facilitate qualitative research as well. The combination of these two research methods can produce a general picture, most frequently, when the ethnographer carries out a survey to fill the gaps, which cannot be readily filled by participant observation or unstructured interview alone. Surprisingly, in many cases, the qualitative study is dominated by the quantitative methods of data collection. In order to generate a more complete picture, Bryman said,

*In each case, the researcher has judged the establishment of various patterns to be inaccessible through qualitative research and has made a technical decision to augment the investigation with quantitative methods in order to gain access to the areas and issues that cannot otherwise be reached so that a complete account could be provided.*

(Bryman, 1988, p.140)

#### **4.4.1. Quantitative Research**

Quantitative research is associated with a number of different approaches to data collection, such as social survey, in which the data are collected “on a cross-section of people at a single point in time in order to discover the ways and degrees to which variables relate to each other.” (Bryman, 1988, p.11) Quantitative data are numerical, providing information about the world in the form of numbers. The measurement turns data into numbers and therefore helps us to make comparisons (Punch, 1998). By and large, the quantifiable data generated by surveys and

experiments are employed to test theories or hypotheses. Quantitative research is underpinned by a natural science paradigm, which is taken to provide an epistemological account, as distinct from empirical research in social science, which must be evaluated before it can be treated as valid knowledge. The question may be raised how the quantitative research derived from the application of a natural science approach can be used to study society. Nonetheless, many practitioners accept the doctrine of positivism, on which the quantitative research is founded, that “the natural sciences provide a standard against which knowledge should be gauged and that there is no logical reason why its procedures should not be equally applicable to the study of society” (Bryman, 1988, p.13). Positivists believe that there is a reality out there to be studied, captured, and understood, but postpositivists argue that reality can never be fully comprehended, only approximated. Postpositivism depends on various methods to capture as much of reality as possible (Denzin & Lincoln, 1994). Some researchers conduct research projects to test against the observed objectively and the factual nature of the real world, when there is a superficial appearance of reality (Berkowitz & Donnerstein, 1982). The questionnaire is used as the technique in this study.

#### **4.4.2. Qualitative Research**

Many researchers have referred to the differences between quantitative and qualitative research, in both their underlying philosophical allegiances and approach to the investigation of social reality. Qualitative research is underpinned by several intellectual undercurrents to view its distinct epistemology. It has a much wider range of possible empirical materials than quantitative research and typically uses multiple data sources in a project. Qualitative data can be defined as empirical

about the world, not in the form of numbers, but in words. Many different types of materials could be covered, such as transcripts, recordings and notes, documents, etc. (Punch, 1998).

One of the characteristics of qualitative research is seeing through the eyes of people. The most fundamental characteristic of qualitative research is viewing an issue through the perspective of the people who are being studied. With this approach, researchers need to become familiar with those being studied and penetrate the meaning with which they operate. A long period of involvement such as participant observation employed with in-depth, unstructured interviewing and the comprehension of a specialised vernacular may be required. However, there is often the problem of knowing through whose eyes one is supposed to be seeing and it is not easy for researchers to “sustain the constant recourse to seeing through the eyes of their subjects” (Bryman, 1988, p.62). Moreover, they must be aware of the inability to recognise everything that is important to the subject. It is inevitable that the words we use to record data from the field will reflect, to some extent, our own concepts (Punch, 1998). Guba and Lincoln (1994) commented on qualitative inquiry that “the researcher is the instrument”. Accordingly, validity and reliability in qualitative methods depend to a great extent on the methodological skill, competence and integrity of the researchers doing fieldwork (Patton, 1990). Punch argued,

*Behind the apparent simplicity of qualitative data, there is good deal of complexity, requiring care and self-awareness from the researcher.*

(Punch, 1998, p.61)

## 4.5. Research Tools

### 4.5.1. Questionnaire

A questionnaire is a list of questions to be asked by the researcher. Questions may be of either closed form, in which the question permits only certain responses, as in the case of multiple-choice questions, or open form, in which the subject makes any response in his/her own words (Borg & Gall, 1983). In order to obtain the perspectives of students who are the main participants in the educational context, a closed-question questionnaire was considered a suitable tool for dealing with a large number of subjects. McNeill (1985, p.26) defined that the response format in questionnaire “may be a list of possible answers, of which at least one must be ticked.” Therefore, the researcher, in some way, has limited the possible responses. The advantage of this method is that the results can be presented in the form of statistics and tables and analysis carried out efficiently. The checklists following each question are employed that a number of possible answers are presented and the respondents are asked to check those that apply. The problem is that the researcher has imposed a limit on the possible answers that the respondent may give (McNeill, 1985).

Attitudes are often measured in educational research because of their possible predictive value. Attitude scales are frequently employed to measure the individual’s attitude towards a particular group. Oppenheim (1966) stated that,

*An attitude is a state of readiness, a tendency to act or react in a certain manner when confronted with certain stimuli.*

(Oppenheim, 1966, p. 105)

There are three components of attitude, according to Borg & Gall (1983),

There are three components of attitude, according to Borg & Gall (1983), which are an affective component that consists of individual's feelings about the attitude object; a cognitive component which is the individual's belief knowledge about the attitude object, and a behaviour component, which is the individual's predisposition to act toward the attitude object in a particular way. Comparing effectiveness of various types of attitude scales, the Likert scale is considered superior to all the other scale types (Borg & Gall, 1983). In a Likert-type scale, the individual checks one of five possible responses to each statement: strongly agree, agree, undecided (don't know), disagree, strongly disagree. Points can be assigned to the various responses and measures of central tendency, variability, correlation and the like can be calculated. Bernard (2000) explained that,

*Likert's method was to take a long list of possible scaling items for a concept and find the subsets that measured the various dimensions.*

(Bernard, 2000, p. 297)

However, attitude scales are direct self-report measures. Therefore, the primary disadvantage is that we can never be sure of the degree to which the subjects' responses reflect his/ her true attitudes (Borg & Gall, 1983).

The writer employed a Likert-type scale as part of the questions in the students' questionnaire (Appendix 1). The main purpose was to ascertain the attitudes of students towards the DAFL-E/DAE, in terms of its course design, facilities, help with industrial placement and to obtain English Proficiency Certificate, and their confidence in English proficiency for future employment. Due to the large sample size, the writer decided to conduct a general survey with questionnaire among 304 participants selected from the final year of each course level available.

#### **4.5.2. Interview**

The interview is, in a sense, an oral questionnaire. Instead of writing the responses, the participant or interviewee gives the needed information verbally in a face-to-face relationship. This research tool is often considered superior to other data-gathering devices. One reason is that people are usually more willing to talk than to write (Best, 1983). “Qualitative interviewing explores the shared meanings that people develop in work groups” (Rubin & Rubin, 1995, p.8). Interviewing provides the opportunity for the interviewer to explore the reasons for a person’s responses (Keats, 2000). In-depth interviewing aims at eliciting special features which need to be understood through conversation-like interaction. It tries to get inside another person’s world and is rather like “walk a mile in my head” (Patton, 1990, p.357). Depth means getting a thoughtful answer based on considered evidence and getting full consideration of a topic from different points of view. Qualitative interviewing tends to capture the richness and complexity of the subject matter and explain it in a comprehensible way. Nevertheless, the richness needs to be designed into the pattern of questions. “One of the goals of interview design is to ensure that the results are deep, detailed, vivid, and nuanced ” (Rubin & Rubin, 1995, p. 76).

There are many different types of interviews. Based on the degree of structure involved, interview can be classified as structured, semi-structured and unstructured.

- **Structured Interview.** The respondent is asked a series of pre-established questions with pre-set response categories. All respondents receive the same questions in same order, delivered in a standardised manner. There is little room for variation in response (Punch, 1998).



- **Semi-structured Interview.** The interviewer first asks a series of structured questions and then probes more deeply, using open-ended questions in order to obtain more complete information. It provides a desirable combination of objectivity and depth and permits gathering valuable data that could not be successfully obtained by any other approach. As Borg and Gall (1983, p.442) put it, the advantage of semi-structured interview is that it is

*Reasonably objective while still permitting a more thorough understanding of the respondents opinions and the reasons behind them.*

- **Unstructured Interview.** It is used as a way of understanding the complex behaviour of people. It is sometimes called an “ethnographic interview”. This approach is able to produce rich and valuable data through prolonged and intimate conversation. However, specific training to develop that skill is needed (Punch, 1998).

In order to obtain the insights of the interviewees, the writer employed in-depth interviewing, by means of semi-structured interviews with open-ended questions (Appendix 2, 3, 4) and prompting, probing techniques, because a semi-structured interview is considered generally the most appropriate for interview studies in education (Borg and Gall, 1983). The interview techniques that writer employed in this study will be described in more detail in Section 4.10.2.2 of this chapter.

## **4.6. Approaches of Analysis**

### **4.6.1. Summarising Content Analysis**

One of the essential features of content analysis is the use of categories.

Paisley once gave the following definition

*Content analysis is a phase of information-processing in which communication content is transformed, through objective and systematic application of categorisation rules, into data that can be summarised and compared.*

(quoted in Holsti, 1969, p.3)

Content analysis requires objectivity, system, and generality. Berelson said that;

*Content analysis is a research technique for the objective, systematic, and quantitative description of the manifest content of communication.*

(quoted in Holsti, 1969, p.3)

Contrary to other approaches, the goal of content analysis is to reduce the material by selecting more relevant issues for the research. Mayring has developed a procedure for a qualitative content analysis:

- Define the material.
- Select the interviews which are relevant for answering the research questions.
- Analyse the situation of data collection. (How, Who and Where)
- Characterise the material.
- Define the direction of the analysis for the selected texts.

(Flick, 1998)

One of the techniques of content analysis the writer employed is summarising content analysis, which means,

*the material is paraphrased, .....less relevant passages and paraphrases with the same meanings are skipped (first reduction) and similar paraphrases are bundled and summarised (second reduction).*

(Flick, 1998, p.193)

#### 4.6.2. Constant Comparative Analysis

Comparison underlies all systematic inquiry, in identifying abstract concepts, and in coding. However, in qualitative analysis, comparison is not integrated automatically, and therefore needs emphasising. At the first level of coding, by comparing different indicators in the data, the more abstract concepts behind the empirical data will be arrived at. The systematic and constant making of comparisons is therefore essential to conceptual development at all levels in the analysis of qualitative data. Strauss & Corbin (1998, p.79) declared that,

*Comparing incident to incident to classify data is self-explanatory. Each incident is compared to other incidents at the property or dimensional level for similarities and differences and is grouped or placed into a category.*

Glaser and Strauss, co-founders of grounded theory, regarded comparison important and described grounded theory analysis as the “constant comparative method” (Punch, 1998). Glaser & Strauss (1967) described the constant comparative method in four stages:

- Comparing incidents applicable to each category.
- Integrating categories and their properties.
- Delimiting the theory.
- Writing the theory.

This method of generating theory is a continuous process throughout the analysis. Each stage provides continuous development to its succeeding stage until the analysis is terminated (Glaser & Strauss, 1967).

The writer has merged summarising content analysis and constant comparative method to analyse interview data by

- categorising the interview questions and coming up with different themes;
- coding each incident in the interview data into as many categories as possible and using them as additional themes when analysing;
- summarising the responses to the interview questions by eliminating less relevant passages;
- comparing the responses to single interview questions, looking for the similarities and differences;
- finding patterns interwoven in categories and defining them;
- yielding the theory.

## **4.7. Validity and Reliability of the Study**

### **4.7.1. Validity**

Validity refers to the accuracy and trustworthiness of instruments, data, and findings in research (Bernard, 2000). As Best (1983, p153) put it,

*Validity is the quality of a data-gathering instrument or procedure that enable it to determine what it was designed to determine.*

In research, validity may be addressed in different forms. For example,

*in qualitative data validity can mean honesty, depth, richness and scope of the data achieved, the participants approached, the extent of triangulation and the disinterestedness of objectivity of the researcher.*

*In quantitative data, validity might be improved through careful sampling, appropriate instrumentation and appropriate statistical treatments of the data.*

(Cohen, Manion and Morrison, 2000, p.105)

Borg and Gall (1983) stated that there are several types of validity: content validity, concurrent validity, predictive validity and construct validity. One of them, content validity, was used in this study to assess the validity of the questionnaire, interview and curriculum.

*Content validity is the degree to which the sample of test items represents the content that the test is designed to measure. Unlike some types of validity, the degree of content validity is not expressed in numerical terms as a correlation coefficient. Instead, content validity is appraised by an objective comparison of the test items with curriculum content.*

(Borg & Gall, 1983, p. 276)

#### **4.7.1.1. Validity of the Interview**

When doing research, validity is concerned with how confident one can be that the content of the interview is actually doing what was intended and how closely the questioning is linked to the constructs which are studied (Keats, 2000). When the interview is based on a carefully designed structure to ensure that the significant information is elicited, validity then will be achieved to a greater degree (Best, 1983). Flick (1998) mentioned that one approach to checking the validity of the interviews is the possible guarantee of its authenticity during the interview. “Authenticity rather than reliability is often the issue in qualitative research”, said Silverman (1993, p.10). In addition, bearing this in mind, in order to judge the validity of the interviews, several considerations have to be taken into account:

- Whether the contents of what is said is correct;
- Whether what is said is socially appropriate in its relational aspect;

- Whether what is said is sincere in terms of the self-presentation of the speaker (Flick, 1998, p.226)

To gain validity, the interviewer has to ask him/herself whether the interviewees were given any cause to construct a specific, biased account of ones experiences consciously or unconsciously, which might cause them to express their views in a limited way.

#### **4.7.2. Reliability**

Reliability is the consistency that an instrument or procedure demonstrates over a period of time. It is essentially a synonym for consistency and replicability over time, instruments and groups of respondents. It is concerned with precision and accuracy (Best, 1983; Cohen, Manion, and Morrison, 2000). To be reliable, quantitative research must prove that if it were to be carried out on a similar group of respondents in a similar context, similar results would be found. However, with some degree of control and manipulation, it distorts the natural incidence of phenomena. Naturalistic studies are supposed to be unique, such that the study cannot be replicated. On the other hand, Cohen, Manion, and Morrison (2000, p.119) argued that this is not to say that qualitative research need not strive for reliability. In qualitative research reliability can be regarded as “a fit between what researchers record as data and what actually occurs in the natural setting that is being researched.” It is “a degree of accuracy and comprehensiveness of coverage” (Bogdan and Biklen, quoted in Cohen, Manion, and Morrison, 2000, p.19). Two researchers study a single setting may come up with very different findings but both sets of findings might be reliable. For instance, interview data might be given many different interpretations by the qualitative researchers. Nevertheless, those versions

of the same reality co-exist because reality is multi-layered (Cohen, Manion, and Morrison, 2000).

#### **4.7.2.1. Reliability of the Interview**

Because the interview is based on “a sustained relationship between informant and the researcher” (Burgess quoted in Silverman, 1993, p.95), it seems to give greater depth than other research techniques. In order to gain reliability in interviews, Silverman (1993) suggested that interviewers should ask each question precisely as it is worded and in the same order as it appears on the schedule. It is important that each respondent understands the questions in the same way and the answers can be coded without uncertainty. Silverman (2001, p. 230) declared that high reliability in interviews could be achieved by:

- Tape-recording face-to-face interviews.
- Carefully transcribing these tapes according to the needs of reliable analysis.
- Presenting long extracts of data in the research report- including the question that provoked any answer.

In order to study the current situation in the DAFL-E/DAE, the writer was of the opinion that gathering data from the main body of the Department, say, the students, teachers and the Heads of Department (HOD) would help to obtain a more complete picture. In addition, the perspectives of an external expert would provide the insights into the problems attributed to Technological & Vocational Education (TVE) in respect of the DAFL-E/DAE. Furthermore, to investigate ESP for business purposes, the viewpoints of teachers who are teaching Business English are essential, as are those of the Heads of Department, the key person who is in charge of policy-making and course design. Having been the Head of DAFL-E of for two years,

during 1997-99, at one college chosen as one of the research sites, the writer has experienced the weaknesses and strengths, the problems and the development, the vision and the limitations of the DAFL-E/DAE. In this study, the writer used different research methods to collect data, largely on methodological triangulation, attempting to draw a picture as a whole and eliminate biases. The questionnaire to the students helped to understand the attitudes of students towards the DAFL-E/DAE. The semi-structured interviews with open-ended questions to the HODs, the teachers who are teaching Business English in the DAFL-E/DAE, and the external expert gave more in-depth understanding of the problems and their expectation of the Department. Together with pilot studies, several research techniques have been utilised, such as face-to-face interview, recording (audio-taping), and transcribing data verbatim, in the effort to improve reliability (Keats, 2000; Silverman, 2001).

#### **4.8. Pilot Study**

Borg and Gall (1983) recommended that a preliminary trial of research measures and technique is essential to the development of a sound research plan. McNeill (1985, p.34) explained that such a preliminary trial,

*Tried out on a number of people who are similar to those who will be investigated in the actual research is called 'pilot study'.*

A pilot study is carried out with fewer subjects than will be employed in the main study. The purpose is to preliminarily test the hypotheses, which leads to testing more precise hypotheses in the main study. It often provides the researchers with ideas, approaches, and clues not anticipated prior to the pilot study. The pilot study was conducted by the writer herself. Borg and Gall (1983, p.443) reinforced that,



*The first try out should be done by the researcher since she/he will gain a feel for the interview procedure that cannot be gained if someone else does this work.*

#### **4.8.1. Procedures of Pilot Study**

Before the questionnaire was distributed, the writer conducted two pilot studies. One was in the UK with five students from Taiwan who were randomly chosen before the writer returned home to do the fieldwork, and the other was in Taiwan with five students of the DAFL-E/DAE chosen randomly from an institute of technology. The interview questions were tried out on one HOD and two teachers teaching Business English in the DAFL-E/DAE of institution mentioned above in Taiwan. The pilot study was to ensure that the items were clearly understood, in other word, to avoid ambiguity, and also to allow participants to suggest items, which concerned them, but had not been included in the questions.

##### **4.8.1.1. Pilot Study in UK**

###### ***Students' Questionnaire***

It was conducted in September, 2001. Some corrections made to the students' questionnaire based on the suggestions of respondents were as follows.

- Question 5: The reasons for choosing the vocational college/university.  
Suggested: the item "financial difficulty" could be one of the factors too, according to the situation in Taiwan.
- Question 6: The reasons for choosing the Department of Applied Foreign Languages-English.  
Suggested: the item "Because I didn't achieve a high enough score in the Joint

Entrance Examination of 5-year/ 2-year junior college and 2-year/ 4-year institute/university of technology to be able to choose other departments” was eliminated because it did not reflect the reality of the current situation, as usually, the DAFL-E/DAE has the highest required score in the above-mentioned exams.

The writer also re-worded some Chinese translations on students’ questionnaire, which might cause difficulties in comprehension because of ambiguity or misunderstanding of the syntax.

#### **4.8.1.2. Pilot Study in Taiwan**

##### ***Students’ Questionnaire***

The pilot study of students’ questionnaire was conducted on the 13<sup>th</sup> of November, 2001. Some corrections were made to the questionnaire after testing on five students in Taiwan, as follows:

- Question 5: The reasons for choosing the vocational college/university.

Suggestion: Since the tuition fees of 5-year or 2-year junior colleges are higher than those for general high school, the response of “financial difficulty” was eliminated.

- Question 7: What do you want to do after graduation?

Suggestion: Since the examination systems have been changed, the first choice was changed to “Continuing further study domestically” and contrasted with the second choice, “Studying abroad”.

- Question 11: After talking with the students who were in their final year and were going to join the work force, the writer realised they did not have much confidence in their English proficiency. Therefore, one another item was added, asking whether respondents believed that their English proficiency was sufficient

for the job market. It was also decided to raise this question in the interviews with the HODs and the teachers.

### *Interview Questions*

The interview questions were tried out on the same day as the questionnaire was conducted, which was the 13<sup>th</sup> of November, 2001, to check respondents' understanding of questions, and their reactions to the interviews. Borg and Gall (1983) emphasised that poorly phrased questions can antagonise respondents and greatly reduce the validity of data obtained. Some interview questions were re-worded, especially in Chinese translation, because they were vague or proved difficult for those doing the pilot study. Consequently, a few questions of HODs' interview (9) (11) (20), and teachers' interview (18) were reformed.

### **4.9. Selection of Participants**

The subjects of one college, two institutes of technology and one university of technology were chosen according to the locations of four regions in Taiwan to represent the various specialisations of local industries and the emphasis of business capacity of the institutions. They included one business college in which the writer worked. The Heads of DAFL-E/DAE were selected to obtain their views of the Department. At the request of the writer, two Business English teachers and final year students at each available course level were also selected by the HODs. There were two reasons for choosing final year students. One is that they took a Business English course, which is compulsory and offered in the last second year; secondly, since it is their final year, they will be more concerned about their future employment. In addition to the above-mentioned participants, an interview with an external expert with extensive experiences in TVE of Taiwan was conducted to gain

the insights from a different angle. His views would go beyond English Education in TVE and educational system as a whole.

#### 4.10. Techniques and Procedures of Data Collection & Analysis

##### 4.10.1. Questionnaire

##### 4.10.1.1. Techniques and Procedures of Data Collection

*A questionnaire may be administered in a face-to-face situation or to be completed by the respondent with any supervision or guidance.*

(McNeill, 1985, p. 23)

Survey Sites	Dates	Venues
Institution A	28-29 November, 2001	Classroom
Institution B	12-13 December, 2001	Office
Institution C	25-26 December, 2001	Language Lab
Institution D	3-4 January, 2002	Office
External Expert	13 March, 2002	Office

**Table 4.1: Survey Schedule (Interviews and Questionnaire)**

The questionnaires were distributed from November, 2001 to January, 2002 to the students in one college, two institutes of technology and one university of technology (Table 4.1). The teachers who were in charge of the classes were asked to distribute questionnaires to the students. However, a disadvantage of the questionnaire is the possibility of misinterpretation of the questions by the respondents (Ary & Jacobs & Razavieh, 1990). The questionnaire questions were written in both English and Chinese (Mandarin) (Appendix 1) to avoid ambiguity. Since the questionnaires were distributed simultaneously, it was not possible for the writer to be present at each classroom to explain questions in detail in every class. Therefore, before administering the questionnaires, the writer gave the class teachers

an introduction explaining the procedures and some key points to be aware of, such as that confidentiality was guaranteed, and that suggestions and comments were more than welcome and would be written in the space provided. McNeill (1985, p.40) stressed that,

*Face to face research can hope to achieve 70 or even 80 percent response, if those to whom the questionnaire is sent have already been carefully selected as representative of the population to be studied.*

The class teachers helped to collect the questionnaire immediately after the students finished answering questions in the classroom. Therefore, the response rate was highly satisfactory.

#### **4.10.1.2. Techniques and Procedures of Data Analysis**

The SPSS.9.0 for Windows was employed as follows, to calculate the frequencies/ percentages and mean scores in relation to the aggregate responses for the total samples. The questions of the questionnaire were grouped into three categories: Multiple Responses, Single Responses and Likert-type Scale.

- A. Multiple Responses (Q. 4, 5, 6): Frequencies/ percentages were calculated to seek the reasons of students' choices of attending technological and vocational higher institutions and the Department of Applied Foreign Foreign Languages.
- B. Single Responses (Q. 7, 8, 9, 10): Frequencies/ percentages were computed to understand students' attitudes towards future employment, awareness of frequency of the use of English and the difficulties in English learning.
- C. Likert-type Scale (Q.11): Frequencies and percentages were computed for each item to seek students' satisfaction levels towards the DAFL-E/DAE.

## **4.10.2. Interviews**

### **4.10.2.1. Procedures of Data Collection**

Interviews were carried out from November, 2001 to March, 2002 with the HODs, selected teachers of DAFL-E/DAE and an external expert (Table 4.1). The procedures were as follows:

- Before the interview, the writer obtained the approval for interviews from the HODs of each selected institution through telephone contacts. In the meanwhile, the whole sets of Students' Questionnaire, Interview Questions for the HODs and teachers were sent with the covering letters. Research materials were requested by the HODs before they would grant an interview. The HODs arranged the interviews with two teachers who taught business-related English in the DAFL-E/DAE of the four selected institutions. Appointments were made for the interviews at informants' offices, classrooms or language laboratories. Since each college, institute/university of technology is located in different regions of Taiwan, travelling all over the country was necessary. On average, it took one to two days at each institution to conduct the survey and interviews (Table 4.1).
- During the interviews, strict confidentiality and anonymity were emphasised. The purpose of the investigation was explained clearly. Permission for tape-recording was sought. Notes were also taken during interviews. The use of a tape recorder does not eliminate the need for taking notes, which can at least serve two purposes. Firstly, it can suggest new questions as the interview moves along. Secondly, taking notes about what is said will facilitate later analysis, including locating important quotations from the tape itself (Patton, 1990).

The interviews were conducted in a formal manner. In order to establish rapport and trust with interviewees, the writer started with conversational chatting on

topics of common interest. Best (1983) commented that the key to effective interviewing is the extent to which the interviewer can establish rapport. After the rapport or a friendly, secure relationship with interviewees is established, certain types of confidential information may be obtained that an individual might be reluctant to put in writing. In addition, Best (1983, p.166) said “Those of same ethnic background seem to be successful in establishing rapport”. Though the interviewees had a good knowledge of English, they felt more comfortable in speaking in their native language, Chinese (Mandarin) and English was also employed to explain some terminology.

Usually, one and a half hours was allocated for interviewing, as indicated on the covering letter, but, in most cases, the interviews lasted for more than two hours. While the writer aimed to cover all the questions, many new ideas also emerged from interaction and elaboration during the interviews. The informants were encouraged to reveal more opinions. In so doing, many leading questions cropped up. Some explanations and examples were given if some terminology, e.g. ESP, was unfamiliar to the respondents. The interviewees were aware that this research was, to some extent, related to their work, and that detailed information and suggestions would be appreciated.

Interviews with participants from Institution A were in an atmosphere, which was more familiar and relaxed than the others, since the writer taught there and was the Head of the Department. This enabled frank discussion of difficulties and it brought more insights towards the questions.

- After each interview, the writer transcribed the tape-recorded interview data verbatim, that is, in the exact words that people used to express their ideas. Drever (1995) addressed that one big advantage of transcription is that most

people regard a transcript as providing a “true” record of the original interview. Heritage (quoted in Silverman, 1993, p. 116) suggested that transcriptions of subjects are “treated as an appropriate substitute for the observation of actual behaviour.” Silverman (1993) commented that transcripts of audio-recordings provide an excellent record of “naturally occurring” interaction. When presenting the findings of this study in next chapter, some verbatim quotations are given after summarising the responses to the interview questions, because

*Verbatim quotations are extremely useful in presenting a credible report of the research.*

(Fetterman, 1989, p.22)

The same as questionnaire questions, the interview questions were written in both English and Chinese (Mandarin) languages (Appendices 2, 3, 4) to avoid ambiguity. The Chinese language is different from English in form and structure. Hence, some degree of inaccuracy, which might result from the translation must be conceded. The writer made more than one copy of transcripts and worked on the copies. The originals were placed in transparent plastic pockets and kept in a safe place. The transcripts were marked with different colours to organise, categorise and summarise the texts, aiming at finding answers to the research questions. When presenting the findings, the researcher read the transcripts over and over again to gain a general feeling of their content.

#### **4.10.2.2. Techniques of Data Collection & Analysis**

As a data-gathering technique, the interview has unique advantages and can be most effective where human motivation revealed in reasons for actions, feelings, and attitudes is concerned (Best, 1983). The interview questions prepared for the Heads of Department, the teachers who were teaching Business English and the external



expert were semi-structured, open-ended guided questions. Therefore, the respondents were free to answer with limited guidance and in most cases, were encouraged to answer by the use of additional questions improvised by the writer. Accordingly, the techniques of prompting and probing were employed extensively during the interviews, as follows.

- As described at Section 4.5.2, semi-structured interviews were designed to have a number of interview questions prepared in advance as an interview guide. Borg and Gall (1983, p.441) stated that the interview guide “is a list of questions that are to be asked during interview. The questions are usually asked exactly as they appear on the guide.” It is also sufficiently open so that interviewer could ask subsequent questions, which could not be planned in advance, and therefore, need to be largely improvised by interviewer (Wengraf, 2001).
- Open-ended questions were used to allow the respondent complete freedom to reply and the basic purpose was to minimise the influence of the interviewer by asking the same questions of each respondent (Keats, 2000; Patton, 1990). Under these circumstances, questions could therefore be more wide-ranging and open-ended (McNeill, 1985). As Denzin (quoted in Silverman, 1993, p.95) noted that open-ended interviews allow respondents to use their “unique ways of defining the world” and to “raise important issues not contained in the schedule.” In order to gather an “authentic” understanding of people’s experiences, it is believed that open-ended questions are the most effective way towards this end (Silverman, 1993).
- Prompts. If the interviewee seemed not to understand the question, or gave some answers and seemed ready to offer more, a specific prompt for that question was offered by repeating the question in other words and possibly more fully without

suggesting any answers (Drever, 1995). The writer employed this technique to distinguish what was important (what people mentioned without prompting), and what was less important (what people mentioned when prompted) to the interviewees, and what they could not answer even after prompting.

- Probing. Questions which were not understood or which respondents were reluctant to answer were rephrased, giving encouragement. This type of follow-up from the original question is called probing. Probing can be used to search for the reasons behind the previous answer, or to resolve inconsistencies. Additional information can be obtained by probing the initial responses. “This gives a richness to the data, allowing many individual differences in opinions and reasoning to be uncovered” (Keats, 2000, p.20). Probing was employed by the writer to investigate in more depth the reasons behind superficial phenomena. In order to obtain richness of the data, the insights of the interviewees and therefore sometimes to explain the questions and encourage the informants, who seemed reluctant to answer, many questions were followed-up.

In this way, an interview guide approach was combined with a standardised open-ended approach. As Patton (1990, p. 287) put it,

*A number of basic questions may be worded precisely in a predetermined fashion, while permitting the interviewer more flexibility in probing and more decision-making flexibility in determining when it is appropriate to explore certain subjects in greater depth.*

Through these interview techniques, the writer tried to stimulate the interviewees to greater insights into their own experiences, whereby some significant unanticipated areas in the original plan of investigation might be explored.

When analysing interviews, Patton (1990) suggested the first decision to be made was whether to begin with case analysis or cross-case analysis. He also suggested if a standardised open-ended interview is used, it is suitable to do cross-case analysis. In this study, therefore, the writer chose cross-case analysis, which means “grouping together answers from different people to common questions or analysing different perspectives on central issues” (Patton, 1990, p. 376). With an interview guide approach, answers from different people can be grouped by topics from the guide, but the relevant data will not be found in the same place in each interview. With cross-case analysis strategy, interview data were analysed by means of summarising content analysis and constant comparative analysis. As soon as the raw interview data were collected, transcribed and copied, the writer read through it several times, trying to find the themes, then synthesise and categorise it. The steps were as described at Section 4.6.2.

### **4.10.3. Research Approaches Rejected**

Though other research techniques have been explored and their strengths and weaknesses considered, they were rejected in this study for the following reasons.

#### **4.10.3.1. Case Study**

Yin (1994) indicated that a case study is an empirical inquiry to examine a contemporary phenomenon with its real-life. The purpose of case study is to gather comprehensive, systematic, and in-depth information about each case of interest (Patton, 1990). It is believed that case studies are useful in studying human affairs because they are “down-to-earth and attention holding” (Stake, 2000, p.19). Nisbet and Watt (1984, quoted in Cohen, Manion, and Morrison, 2000, p.184) stated the strengths and weaknesses of case study.

### ***Strengths:***

- The results are more easily understood by a wide audience as they are written in everyday, non-professional language.
- They speak for themselves.
- They catch unique features that may otherwise be lost in larger scale data, such as surveys.
- They are strong on reality.
- They provide insights into other, similar situations and cases, by this means, assisting interpretation of other similar cases.

### ***Weaknesses:***

- The results may not be generalisable except where other readers/researchers see their application.
- They are not easily open to cross-checking, hence they may be selective, biased, personal and subjective.

In this study, the cases the writer chose, one college, two institutes of technology, and one university of technology were not comparable, since they were not at the same educational levels. Hence, this research technique was rejected in this study.

#### **4.10.3.2. Observation**

Observational data afford the researcher the opportunity to gather “live” data from “live” situations (Cohen, Manion, and Morrison, 2000). There are several advantages of observation as pointed by Patton (1990, p. 203):

- The evaluator is better able to understand the context.
- Firsthand experience with a programme allows an evaluator to be open, discovery oriented, and inductive in approach.

- The evaluator can see things that may otherwise be unconsciously missed among participants and staff.
- The evaluator can learn about things participants and staff may be unwilling to talk about in an interview.
- Observations permit the evaluator to move beyond the selective perceptions of others.
- Observations permit the evaluator to access personal knowledge.

Since human perception is highly selective, what people “see” is highly dependent on their interests, biases, and backgrounds. Patton (1990) argued that research and experimentation on selective perception documents the inadequacies of ordinary human observation. Doubt is cast on the validity and reliability of observation as a major method of scientific inquiry.

Classroom teachers and students would also be uncomfortable with if the writer was present as an observer in the classroom. Therefore, this method was not adopted.

#### **4.10.3.3. Group Interviewing/ Focus Group**

Group interviewing is a general term for situations where the researcher works with several people simultaneously, rather than just one. The role of the researcher in group interviewing is more that of a moderator or facilitator, and less as an interviewer. The researcher facilitates, moderates, monitors, and records group interaction. The group interaction is directed by questions and topics supplied by the researcher. This means particular skills are required of the group interviewer (Punch, 1998). As Cohen, Manion, and Morrison (2000, p.287) put it, the advantages and disadvantages of group interviewing can be illustrated as follows:

### *Advantages:*

- Potential for discussions to develop.
- Group interviews might be useful for gaining an insight into what might be pursued in subsequent individual interviews.
- Practical and organisational issues: Group interviews are often quicker than individual interviews and hence timesaving and involve minimal disruption.
- Bringing people together with varied opinions.

Focus Groups are a form of group interview. They rely on the interaction within the group who discuss a topic supplied by the researcher. The participants interact with each other rather than with the interviewer, such that the views of participants can emerge. Its contrived nature is both its strength and weakness.

### *Strengths and Weaknesses:*

- It is an unnatural setting, yet it is very focused on a particular issue and, in so doing, will yield insights that might not otherwise have been available in a straightforward interview.
- It is economical on time, producing a large amount of data in a short period of time, but tends to produce less data than interviews with the same number of individuals on a one-to-one basis.

(Cohen, Manion, and Morrison, 2000)

The writer considered it was not necessary to conduct group interviews, since thirteen individual interviews were carried out. Moreover, other research techniques such as log keeping and videoing were not utilised. The former was owing to study abroad which has made it impossible and the latter was on account of interviewees having found it disrupted and uncomfortable.

#### **4.11. Summary**

In this chapter, the rationales for both quantitative and qualitative research methods, in particular with questionnaire, interview, summarising content analysis and constant comparative analysis was illuminated. The validity and reliability of the study were elucidated. How subjects were selected and the details of how the pilot studies were conducted were reported. Techniques and procedures for data analysis of the questionnaire and data collection of interviews were highlighted. The findings of this research will be presented in the next chapter.

## **CHAPTER FIVE**

### **FINDINGS OF THE RESEARCH**

In this chapter, the findings of the research data will be presented in this order: results from the Students' Questionnaires, Interviews with the Heads of DAFL-E/DAE (HOD), Interviews with the Business English Teachers of DAFL-E/DAE and Interview with the External Expert. The survey of each college, institute /university of technology was conducted at the time of the visits to the Heads and Teachers of the DAFL-E/DAE, during or after the interviews.

#### **5.1. Students' Questionnaire**

This questionnaire attempted to identify students' views and attitudes towards the DAFL-E/DAE, in terms of their opinions about the facilities and courses offered in the DAFL-E/DAE, in addition, students' awareness of their English learning and need for training in ESP, business-related English in particular, for future employment.

The questionnaire distributed to the students consisted of closed items of three types: Multiple Responses, Single Responses and a Likert-type Scale. Space was also provided at the end of the questionnaire to give the respondents the opportunity to make their suggestions and comments. The research questions (Section 4.3) covered in Students' Questionnaire were as follows:

- Research question 6 is covered in Students' Questionnaire question 11 (e) (f).
- Research question 7 is covered in Students' Questionnaire questions 2, 3, 5, 6, 7, 8, 11 (a) (b) (c) (h) (i).
- Research question 8 is covered in Students' Questionnaire question 11(d).



- Research question 9 is covered in Students' Questionnaire question 11 (g).
- Research question 10 is covered in Students' Questionnaire question 11 (l).
- Research question 11 is covered in Students' Questionnaire question 11 (j) (k).
- Research question 12 is covered in Students' Questionnaire question 4.
- Research question 13 is covered in Students' Questionnaire questions 9, 10, 11 (o).
- Research question 14 is covered in Students' Questionnaire question 11 (n).
- Research question 15 is covered in Students' Questionnaire question 11 (m).

Student samples were drawn from three course levels in the four selected institutions. The course levels include the 5-year junior college, 2-year junior college and 2-year institute of technology. The students were chosen only from the final year of each course level available, i.e. the 5<sup>th</sup> year of the 5-year junior college programme, the 2<sup>nd</sup> year of the 2-year junior college programme, which is equivalent to the 5<sup>th</sup> year of the 5-year junior college programme, and the 2<sup>nd</sup> year of the 2-year institute of technology programme (Figure 1.2). The 4-year institute of technology programme was not included because there were no final year students available.

The following table shows the distribution of the students of the three course levels by age, sex and number in the four institutions.

**Table 5.1: Students' Personal Information**

Course Levels		5-year Jr. college	2-year Jr. college	2-year institute of technology
Average Ages		20	20	23
Sex	Male	11	15	15
	Female	187	32	44
No. of Students	Institution A	45	47	0
	Institution B	39	0	44
	Institution C	32	0	15
	Institution D	82	0	0
	Total	198	47	59
	Percent	65.1	15.5	19.4

Table 5.1 reveals that average ages of the students ranged from 20 to 23. Female students outnumbered males and the largest proportion of students was from the 5-year junior college programmes and the smallest were from the 2-year junior college programmes. This is because all four selected institutions offered a 5-year junior college programme, but only one institution additionally offered a 2-year junior college programme.

#### ***A. Multiple Responses (Q.4, Q.5, Q.6)***

Multiple Response questions were allowed for more than one answer, so that the percentages of responses were reflected as accurately as possible of students' experience. Tables 5.2-5.4 reveal the second foreign languages students took and the reasons why they chose technological & vocational higher institutions and the Department of Applied Foreign Languages-English.

**Table 5.2: The second foreign languages students have taken (Q.4)**

<b>Second Foreign Languages</b>	<b>Frequency</b>	<b>% of Responses</b>
Japanese	295	95.8
Spanish	1	0.3
German	9	2.9
French	2	0.6
Others	1	0.3

From the percentages of responses shown in Table 5.2, 95.8 percent of students took Japanese as their second foreign language. However, it was noted from the curriculum of each institution that Japanese is the only second foreign language course that is offered, except in Institution B, which offered German as well. Therefore, it is quite possible that Japanese accounted for such a high percentage of students' choice as their second foreign language, due to limitation in their options.

**Table 5.3: Reasons for students studying in junior college, institute/university of technology (Q.5)**

<b>Reasons</b>	<b>Frequency</b>	<b>% of Responses</b>
Own interest	189	39.1
Family's wish	60	12.4
Friends & teachers' advises	42	8.7
No pass the Joint Entrance Exams.	100	20.7
Obtain more business knowledge and training	78	16.1
Others	14	2.9

From Table 5.3, among the reasons why students chose junior college, institute/university of technology, the main reason (39.1 percent) was students' own interest. However, 20.7 percent gave the reason of not passing the Joint Entrance Examinations.

**Table 5.4: Reasons for students studying in the Department of Applied Foreign Languages-English (DAFL-E/DAE) (Q.6)**

Reasons	Frequency	% of Responses
Own interest	186	29.5
Family's wish	61	9.7
Friends & teachers' advice	49	7.8
Enhance English proficiency	163	25.8
Obtain better job	149	23.6
Others	23	3.6

Table 5.4 shows that the largest proportion of students indicated the reason why they chose to study in the DAFL-E/DAE was their personal interest (29.5 percent). The other main reasons were that students thought it would help to enhance their English proficiency (25.8 percent) and help them obtain a better job (23.6 percent).

***B. Single Responses (Q.7, Q.8, Q.9, Q.10)***

Tables 5.5-5.6 (Q.7, 8) reflect students' intention of future employment. Tables 5.7-5.8 (Q.9, 10) show students' perceptions of how often English will be used in the future jobs and their difficulties in the area of English learning at present.

**Table 5.5: What do you want to do after graduation? (Q.7)**

Course levels	5-year Jr. college		2-year Jr. college		2-year institute of technology		Average	
Variables	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
Further study domestically	143	72.2	19	40.4	9	15.3	57	42.6
Studying abroad	26	13.1	15	31.9	8	13.6	16.3	19.5
Finding a job	27	13.6	13	27.7	42	71.2	27.3	37.5
Significance	.000		.551		.000		.000	

From Table 5.5, we realise that most 5-year and 2-year junior college students wanted to continue studying after graduation. However, for the 2-year institute of technology students, finding a job was most important. It is worth noting that for 2-year junior college students, there is no statistically significant difference in the numbers expressing each of the three preferences.

**Table 5.6: Where do you want to work after graduation? (Q.8)**

Course levels	5-year Jr. college		2-year Jr. college		2-year institute of technology		Average	
Variables	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
Public sectors	59	29.8	18	38.3	18	30.5	31.6	32.8
Private business companies	76	38.4	9	19.1	21	35.6	35.3	31.0
Public schools	16	8.1	2	4.3	5	8.5	7.6	6.9
Private schools/ Language institutes	24	12.1	11	23.4	10	16.9	15.0	17.4
Self-employed	16	8.1	5	10.6	3	5.1	8.0	7.9
Others	6	3.0	2	4.3	1	1.7	3.0	3.0
Significance	.000		.000		.000		.000	

Table 5.6 shows that students of 5-year junior college and 2-year institute of technology predominantly wanted to work at private business companies (38.4 and 35.6 percent respectively), followed by working at public sectors (29.8 and 30.5 percent respectively). In contrast, 38.3 percent of 2-year junior college students expressed a preference to work in the public sectors, and 23.4 percent at private schools/ language institutes.

**Table 5.7: How often do you expect to use English at work after graduation?  
(Q.9)**

Course Levels	5-year Jr. college		2-year Jr. college		2-year institute of technology		Average	
	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
Often	163	82.3	33	70.2	47	79.7	81	77.4
Sometimes	32	16.2	11	23.4	12	20.3	18.3	19.9
Seldom	3	1.5	2	4.3	0	0	1.6	1.9
Significance	.000		.000		.000		.000	

Table 5.7 shows that 82.3 percent of 5-year, 70.2 percent of 2-year junior college students and 79.7 percent of 2-year institute of technology students expected to use English often at work. Only 1.5, 4.3 and 0 percent of the three course levels of students were of the opinion that English would seldom be used.

**Table 5.8: What is the area in which you have encountered most difficulties in learning English? (Q.10)**

Course Levels	5-year Jr. college		2-year Jr. college		2-year institute of technology		Average	
	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
Listening	87	43.9	26	55.3	22	37.3	45	45.5
Speaking	61	30.8	8	17.0	21	35.6	30	27.8
Reading	10	5.1	5	10.6	2	3.4	5.6	6.3
Writing	38	19.2	8	17.0	13	22.0	19.6	19.4
Significance	.000		.000		.000		.000	

Table 5.8 shows that 5-year/ 2-year junior college and 2-year institute of technology students considered listening skills to be the most difficult in learning English, with 43.9, 55.3 and 37.3 percent respectively, followed in descending order by speaking, writing and reading.

### ***C. Likert-type Scale (Q.11)***

The findings for every single item of Q.11 (Tables 5.9-5.23), relating to the common concerns with the DAFL-E/DAE will be presented individually to reveal the students' attitudes and views in this respect.

The interpretation of the rating scale is as follows.

5 = Strongly Agree

4 = Agree

3 = Do Not Know

2 = Disagree

1 = Strongly Disagree

Students were asked in Items a, b, c, d of Q.11 whether the elective courses, business-related and remedial English courses offered in the DAFL-E/DAE and English used in the classes are adequate.

**Table 5.9: The elective courses offered in the DAFL-E/DAE are adequate**

*(Item a, Q.11).*

Rating Scores	Frequency	Percent
5	11	3.6
4	58	19.1
3	21	6.9
2	161	53
1	53	17.4
Total	304	100

**Table 5.10: The business courses offered in the DAFL-E/DAE are adequate**

*(Item b, Q.11)*

Rating Scores	Frequency	Percent
5	7	2.3
4	98	32.2
3	47	15.5
2	127	41.8
1	25	8.2
Total	304	100

**Table 5.11: The remedial English courses are adequate *(Item c, Q.11).***

Rating Scores	Frequency	Percent
5	8	2.6
4	90	29.6
3	51	16.8
2	118	38.8
1	36	11.8
0	1	0.3
Total	304	100

**Table 5.12: English used in the classes as the target language is adequate**

*(Item d, Q.11).*

Rating Scores	Frequency	Percent
5	10	3.3
4	83	27.3
3	41	13.5
2	129	42.4
1	39	12.8
0	2	0.7
Total	304	100



Tables 5.9-5.11 indicate that the vast majority of the students did not agree that elective, business and remedial English courses offered in the Department were adequate with 70.4 percent (53 disagree/ 17.4 strongly disagree), 50 percent (41.8 disagree/8.2 strong disagree) and 50.6 percent (38.8 disagree/ 11.3 strongly disagree) respectively. In addition, students perceived English used as the target language in the classroom is inadequate, as more than 55 percent answered “Disagree” (42.4) and “Strongly Disagree” (12.8) to this item (Table 5.12).

In the following two questions (Items e, f, Q.11), students were asked their opinions concerning who should be more qualified to teach business-related English.

**Table 5.13: Business-related English courses should be taught by English teachers with adequate knowledge of business (Item e, Q.11).**

Rating Scores	Frequency	Percent
5	116	38.2
4	125	41.1
3	20	6.6
2	33	10.9
1	10	3.3
Total	304	100

**Table 5.14: Business-related English courses should be taught by Business teachers with adequate command of English (Item f, Q.11).**

Rating Scores	Frequency	Percent
5	117	38.5
4	126	41.4
3	21	6.9
2	32	10.5
1	8	2.6
Total	304	100

Tables 5.13 and 5.14 indicate that with almost equal percentages, 79.3 (41.1 agree/ 38.2 strongly agree) and 80 percent (41.4 agree/ 38.5 strongly agree), students

deemed that either business-related English courses should be taught by English teachers with adequate knowledge of business or by business teachers with adequate command of English. Students showed no preferences on this matter.

Students were asked in Items g, h, i, Q.11, to reveal their levels of satisfaction regarding teaching materials and language laboratory facilities and class size. The results are shown in the following tables:

**Table 5.15: The English teaching materials are satisfactory (Item g, Q. 11).**

Rating Scores	Frequency	Percent
5	9	3.0
4	80	26.3
3	69	22.7
2	117	38.5
1	29	9.5
Total	304	100

It is shown in Table 5.15 that only 29.3 percent (26.3 agree/ 3 strongly agree) of students were satisfied with the English teaching materials provided by the DAFL-E/DAE.

**Table 5.16: The facilities of the language laboratory are satisfactory (Item h, Q.11).**

Rating Scores	Frequency	Percent
5	27	8.9
4	111	36.5
3	30	9.9
2	66	21.7
1	70	23.0
Total	304	100

**Table 5.17: The class size is satisfactory (Item i, Q.11).**

Rating Scores	Frequency	Percent
5	22	7.2
4	122	40.1
3	39	12.8
2	90	29.6
1	30	9.9
0	1	0.3
Total	304	100

Table 5.16 indicates that students gave positive and negative responses to the question if the facilities of language laboratories are satisfactory at almost equal percentages, 45.4 (36.5 agree/ 8.9 strongly agree) and 44.7 percent (21.7 disagree/ 23 strongly disagree) respectively. This could be resulting in language labs equipped variously in each institution. In addition, Table 5.17 shows that 47.3 percent of students were satisfied with class size.

The following two questions (Items j, k, Q.11) were asked to find out whether the students thought the courses offered by the DAFL-E/DAE meet their needs and will be helpful to their future employment. The results are shown in Tables 5.18 and 5.19.

**Table 5.18: The business-related English courses offered in the DAFL-E/DAE meet my needs (Item j, Q.11).**

Rating Scores	Frequency	Percent
5	5	1.6
4	73	24.0
3	64	21.1
2	133	43.8
1	25	8.2
0	4	1.3
Total	304	100

**Table 5.19: The courses offered in the DAFL-E/DAE are helpful to my future employment (Item k, Q.11).**

Rating Scores	Frequency	Percent
5	16	4.9
4	127	19.7
3	86	28.3
2	60	41.8
1	15	5.3
Total	304	100

Pertaining to the courses, business-related English courses in particular, provided by the Department, concerned with students' personal needs and the help with future employment, 52 percent (43.8 disagree/ 8.2 strongly disagree) and 47 percent (41.8 disagree/ 5.3 strongly disagree) of students expressed negative views (Tables 5.18 and 5.19).

Item l, Q.11 aimed to assess students' view towards coherence of course design between different course levels and the result is shown in the following table:

**Table 5.20: The course design of the DAFL-E/DAE is coherent between different course levels (*Item l, Q.11*).**

Rating Scores	Frequency	Percent
5	5	1.6
4	86	28.3
3	72	23.7
2	111	36.5
1	30	9.9
Total	304	100

Table 5.20 shows that 46.4 percent (36.5 disagree/ 9.9 strongly disagree) of students did not think that the course design between different course levels (5-year/ 2-year junior college and 2-year institute of technology) is coherent.

Students were asked in Items m, n of Q.11 about their satisfaction with industrial placement and the help to obtain an English Proficiency Certificate provided by the Department. The results are revealed in Tables 5.21 and 5.22.

**Table 5.21: Students' industrial placement and educational cooperation with local business agencies arranged by the DAFL-E/DAE are satisfactory (*Item m, Q.11*).**

Rating Scores	Frequency	Percent
5	11	3.6
4	57	18.8
3	88	28.9
2	85	28.0
1	63	20.7
Total	304	100

Table 5.21 shows 28.9 percent of students neither agreed nor disagreed that the placement programme and the liaison links with local business agencies arranged by the DAFL-E/DAE are satisfactory, while in total a further 48.7 percent (28 disagree/ 20.7 strongly disagree) were dissatisfactory. This reflects the fact that few or no such programmes are available.

**Table 5.22: The help provided by the DAFL-E/DAE to obtain English Proficiency Certificate is satisfactory (Item n, Q.11).**

Rating Scores	Frequency	Percent
5	19	6.3
4	79	26.0
3	78	25.7
2	88	28.9
1	40	13.2
Total	304	100

Table 5.22 indicates that 42 percent (28.9 disagree/ 13.2 strongly disagree) of students were not satisfied with the help from their Departments in terms of obtaining the English Proficiency Certificate, while 32 percent (16 agree/ 6.3 strongly agree) were. However, 25.7 percent of students expressed no clear view on this matter.

In the last question (Item o, Q.11), students were asked how confident they were concerning their English proficiency meets the requirement of the labour market. The result is shown as following table:

**Table 5.23: I believe my English Proficiency meets the requirements of the labour market (Item o, Q.11).**

Rating Scores	Frequency	Percent
5	6	2.0
4	33	10.9
3	76	25.0
2	118	38.8
1	70	23.0
0	1	0.3
Total	304	100

Table 5.23 indicates that only 13 percent of students expressed confidence in their English proficiency.

From Tables 5.9 to 5.23, it can be concluded that students expressed poor satisfaction levels about English courses provided or designed by the DAFL-E/DAE and thought that these did not meet their needs and would not help with future employment.

### **5.1.1. Students' Suggestions and Comments**

Some students added suggestions and comments in the space provided at the end of the questionnaire. In summary, their complaints and expectations of courses and teachers were as follows.

#### ***Courses***

- More courses in business and English teaching need to be provided.
- Courses are not coherent.
- The curriculum has been repeated.
- The same textbooks are used repeatedly in different course levels of study.
- Courses should be more practical.
- Classes should be divided into business and language specialised groups.

#### ***Teachers***

- Teachers are expected to be more professional in specialised subjects.
- There is a need for more native English speaking teachers.
- More use of target language in class is needed.

In addition, students emphasised that the placement, cooperation with industry and the help with obtaining English Proficiency Qualification were not adequate. It is worth noting also that the equality and quality of TVE and GE were questioned.

### **5.2. Interviews with the Heads of DAFL-E/ DAE**

The interviews with the Heads of DAFL-E/DAE (HOD) were intended to investigate the objectives, distinguishing features and policies of the Department, ESP teacher training, particularly in Business-related English, teaching materials, coherence of course design, and whether these courses meet the needs of the students

and industry; furthermore, how Department implemented student' English Proficiency Certificate system and industrial placement.

The interviews contained 23 questions and started with the HODs' educational and professional background, subjects of specialisation and the number of years of work experience, including teaching, current position as the Head of DAFL/DAE and working in private business sectors. Responses to these 23 interview questions are summarised into 14 categories (Tables 5.26- 5.40) by themes and interviewees are coded, e.g. H1, H2, H3, H4. Cross analysis is presented in the next chapter. Research questions (Section 4.3) covered by the questions of HODs' Interviews were as follows:

- Research question 1 is covered in HODs' interview question (1).
- Research question 2 is covered in HODs' interview question (3).
- Research question 3 is covered in HODs' interview question (5).
- Research question 4 is covered in HOD's interview questions (6) (7) (8) (15).
- Research question 5 is covered in HODs' interview question (4).
- Research question 6 is covered in HODs' interview question (2).
- Research question 9 is covered in HODs' interview questions (13) (14).
- Research question 10 is covered in HODs' interview question (9).
- Research question 11 is covered in HODs' interview questions (10) (12).
- Research question 12 is covered in HODs' interview question (11).
- Research question 13 is covered in HODs' interview questions (19) (20).
- Research question 14 is covered in HODs' interview questions (16) (17).
- Research question 15 is covered in HODs' interview question (18).

Tables 5.24 and 5.25 show the distribution of the HODs' qualifications, positions, specialist subjects, and number of years of work experience.

**Table 5.24: HODs' Educational Background and Specialist Subjects**

HODs' Codes	BA	MA	Doctorate Degree	Positions	Specialist Subjects
H1	German	Linguistics	—	Lecturer	English Writing, English Grammar
H2	English Literature	TESL	Applied Linguistics	Professor	Applied Linguistics, Language Testing, Research Methods
H3	Secondary Education	TESL	—	Associate Professor	English Reading, English Grammar, English Vocabulary & Reading
H4	English Literature	Western Literature	American Studies	Associate Professor	English Writing, Business Correspondence

Table 5.24 shows that all the HODs had at least a Master's degree, and two of the four held a doctoral degree. The positions ranged from Lecturer to Professor. Their majors were either in Teaching English as a Foreign/ Second Language (TEFL/TESL) or in Linguistics and Western Literature.

**Table 5.25: HODs' Work Experience**

HODs' Codes	Heads of DAFL-E/DAE	Full-time Teaching	Private Business Sectors
H1	3 months	4 years	0
H2	1.5 years	30 years	0
H3	1.5 years	14 years	0
H4	3 years	15 years	0



From Table 5.25, it can be concluded that the interviewees had been at their position as the Head of DAFL-E/DAE from as little as 3 months to 3 years. As to their teaching experience, it ranged from 4 to 30 years. It is worth noting that none of the HODs had work experience in business sectors.

Q.1 aimed to investigate the objectives and distinguishing features of the DAFL-E/DAE. The responses of HODs are shown in the following table:

**Table 5.26: What are the objectives and distinguishing features of the DAFL-E/DAE? (Q.1)**

<b>Objectives and Distinguishing Features of the DAFL-E/DAE</b>	<b>HODs' Codes</b>
1. To cooperate with local business resources in terms of manpower and financial support to promote the distinguishing features of the DAFL-E/DAE.	H1
2. To equip students with intermediate English proficiency level.	H1, H3, H4
3. To equip students with intermediate to advanced English proficiency levels.	H2
4. To train students to be English teachers.	H2
5. English and Japanese course credits are equally taken.	H3
6. To distinguish from the traditional English Literature Department.	H4
7. To gain mastery in four English language skills; listening, speaking, reading and writing.	H4
8. To specialise in business-related English courses.	H4
9. To furnish students training with languages, business and computer knowledge to meet the needs of industry.	H4
<b>Difficulties</b>	
10. The objectives of the DAFL-E/DAE are not attainable, owing to students' diverse English proficiency levels.	H1, H2, H4
11. The goal of the DAFL-E/DAE does not meet the needs of students', which is to continue further study.	H1, H3
12. The objectives of the DAFL-E/DAE are not practical.	H1, H2, H3

It is noted that among the four institutions in which the writer did the survey, Institution B is the only one at par with the level of a university. Item 3, Table 5.26 shows that Institution B has as one of its goals, to equip students with advanced English proficiency. The different educational levels of the institutions, in terms of college, institute of technology and university of technology, are associated with different objectives of the DAFL-E/DAE, with respect to English proficiency levels.

Table 5.27 provides basic data on the course levels (system), number of students and breakdown of staff for each of the institutions surveyed.

**Table 5.27: Number of Students and Teachers of the DAFL-E/DAE (Q.2)**

*Institution A*

Course Levels	5-year Jr. college	2-year Jr. college		
<b>Total Number of Students</b>	658			
<b>Total Number of Teachers</b>	21 (full-time)			
<b>Full-time Teachers' Qualifications and their Number</b>	Doctorate	Doctorate Candidate	Master	Bachelor
	0	2	19	0
<b>Full-time Teachers' Positions and their Number</b>	Professor	Associate Prof.	Assistant Prof.	Lecturer
	0	0	0	21

*Institution B*

Course Levels	5-year Jr. college	2-year institute of technology	4-year university of technology	Graduate Institution
<b>Total Number of Students</b>	1,098			
<b>Total Number of Teachers</b>	37 (29 full-time; incl. 6 native English speaking teachers, 8 part-time)			
<b>Full-time Teachers' Qualifications and their Number</b>	Doctorate	Doctorate Candidate	Master	Bachelor
	9	11	9	0
<b>Full-time Teachers' Positions and their Number</b>	Professor	Associate Prof.	Assistant Prof.	Lecturer
	2	1	6	20

*Institution C*

Course Levels	5-year Jr. college		2-year institute of technology	
<b>Total Number of Students</b>	696 (incl. English and Japanese Departments)			
<b>Total Number of Teachers</b>	58 (37 full-time, 21 part-time; incl. 17 native English speaking teachers)			
<b>Full-time Teachers' Qualifications and their Number</b>	Doctorate	Doctorate Candidate	Master	Bachelor
	5	0	27	5
<b>Full-time Teachers' Positions and their Number</b>	Professor	Associate Prof.	Assistant Prof.	Lecturer
	1	2	6	29

*Institution D*

Course Levels	5-year Jr. college		2-year institute of technology	
<b>Total Number of Students</b>	678			
<b>Total Number of Teachers</b>	18 (full-time; incl. 3 native English speaking teachers)			
<b>Full-time Teachers' Qualifications and their Number</b>	Doctorate	Doctorate Candidate	Master	Bachelor
	3	1	12	2
<b>Full-time Teachers' Positions and their Number</b>	Professor	Associate Prof.	Assistant Prof.	Lecturer
	0	4	0	14

**Source: Interviews with the Heads of DAFL-E/DAE in 2001 and Websites of Institutions, 2003.**

As already mentioned, Institution B was the only one at university level and consisted of three course levels and a graduate school. It is noted that 17 native English speaking teachers in the DAFL-E/DAE of Institution C were all employed on part-time basis. The only Professor in the DAFL-E/DAE of Institution C was about to retire.

Table 5.28 reflects the range of options adopted by institutions to satisfy the teacher qualification policy and their professional development, as well as the main challenges faced in this respect.

**Table 5.28: How do you prepare teachers for college upgrade in terms of employment policy and teachers' professional development?  
(Q.3, 4)**

<b>Teachers' Preparation for College Upgrade, in terms of Employment Policy and Teachers' Professional Development</b>	<b>HODs' Codes</b>
1. To employ teachers who have earned a doctoral degree or are doctorate candidates.	H1, H2, H3, H4
2. To employ ex-retired assistant professors who have a doctoral degree.	H1, H2
3. To encourage teachers doing research and presenting papers to be promoted at least to the position of an assistant professor.	H1, H2, H3, H4
4. To encourage teachers have further study to obtain a doctoral degree.	H1, H2, H3, H4
5. Reward teachers, who take research cases from National Science Council, design teaching materials and attend short-term training courses.	H4
6. To employ those who do not have a doctorate but with abundant business experience with adequate English proficiency as part-time teachers.	H2
<b>Difficulties</b>	
7. Teachers are under pressure to increase their qualifications but often complain.	H2
8. Either Ministry of Education or institutional authority provides limited channels for teacher training.	H3
9. Teachers have to prepare themselves for professional development.	H1
10. Teachers are not keen on professional development.	H1, H2

Table 5.28 indicates that the main concerns for college upgrade are to employ entry teachers who have a doctoral degree and to encourage employed teachers to pursue study for one, or to present research papers in order to be eligible for promotion. Regarding Item 2, H1 pointed out,

*Since we need the teachers with a doctoral degree, we can recruit those who have a doctorate and have taken early retirement from national universities. They can benefit from both government pension and the teaching at private institutions, and they cater for our needs.*

Q.5 attempted to investigate the policy regarding discontinuation of the 5-year junior college programme. The HODs' responses are shown in the following table:

**Table 5.29: Is the 5-year junior college programme going to be discontinued?**

*(Q.5)*

<b>Discontinuation Policy of the 5-year Jr. College Programme</b>	<b>HODs' Codes</b>
1. The location of school is the problem, which makes students' recruitment difficult.	H1
2. It is a trend.	H1, H4
3. To elevate our institution to graduate level is our policy. Thus, maintaining institutional system with undergraduate and graduate levels (2-year/4-year institute/ university of technology) is adequate.	H2
4. Not intended to do so immediately.	H3
5. Considering of teachers' employment, the classes of 5-year and 2-year junior college programmes will be declined gradually but will not be completely discontinued.	H4

Table 5.29 reflects a range of considerations that were taken into account. H1 and H2 totally agreed with the discontinuation policy. However, H3 and H4 had different opinions. Items 1 and 2 show that H1 accepted the discontinuation policy of the 5-year junior college programme due to the practical situation of insufficient students and the prevailing trend. She stated,

*We have planned to stop admitting new students to the 5-year junior college programmes in 2003 and will increase the number of classes to the 2-year junior college programme. However, we could not even recruit enough students this year (2001). I think it is a trend. In accordance with government policy, most colleges want to be upgraded to institutes/ universities of technology. Thus, they can have more 2-year and 4-year undergraduate programmes with more flexibility and autonomy in designing courses.*

Item 3 shows that H2 also agreed with the discontinuation policy of the 5-year junior college programme. However, he admitted that,

*With regard to the development of society, middle-class workforce generation, which is the goal of all the 5-year junior college programmes, needs to be evaluated with due consideration before discontinuation.*

*Some colleges would like to continue the 5-year programme, which can make more profits, especially for private colleges. I agree with what an officer of Ministry of Education said, 'Let the free market decide it!'*

H3 considered that there were practical problems. Though the total number of classes would stay the same by transferring the 5-year junior college programme to 2-year/ 4-year institute of technology programme, if there was no problem with recruiting students, all the classes of the whole college have to be considered. H3 said:

*We only have one class in the English and Japanese divisions individually at each grade. If we reduce the number of classes, we would have to combine English and Japanese programmes together. The uniqueness of the earlier programme will be lost.*

H4 took teachers' employment into account. He said:

*The class numbers of the 5-year junior college programme will be decreased gradually and replaced by the 4-year and 2-year institute of technology undergraduate programmes. By that time, we will require more teachers with a doctoral degree. According to the regulations of MOE, to be a university of technology, which is our ultimate goal, we need 40 percent of teachers who have a doctoral degree. What do we do about the teachers who don't have it?*

The Heads were asked (in Q.6, 7, 8) to indicate their awareness of ESP and whether its purpose was served by the course design of the DAFL-E/DAE. The responses are as follows:

**Table 5.30: To what extent do you understand ESP and are the purposes of ESP served? (Q. 6, 7, 8)**

<b>Understanding of ESP and if Its Purpose Has Been Served</b>	<b>HODs' Codes</b>
1. Understand a little bit about ESP. The English courses offered have not served ESP purposes.	H1
2. Our course design is directed to further study for the students and Teaching English for Children to provide English teachers training for local area of eastern Taiwan.	H1
3. It is related to the levels and distinguishing features of institution. From which, institution can develop its own ESP, such as English for business, nursing, pharmacy, medicine purposes, etc.	H2
4. Our course design is directed to our own ESP.	H2
5. Our course design has served ESP purposes.	H3
6. To serve ESP purposes, the distinguishing features have been presented in our elective courses.	H4

Except H1, the HODs believed that their purposes of ESP had been served.

Regarding Items 3 and 4, H2 further explained that,

*Each college/university should develop its own ESP, such as nursing, medical, or pharmacy. Different departments can support each other. Take our university as an example, we serve the purpose of business and engineering, therefore, we offer courses such as English for science and technology.*

In Item 6, H4 pointed out that,

*To serve ESP purposes, our distinguishing features are presented in elective courses. Nevertheless, not too many elective courses can be offered. If the number of students in each class is not enough, the cost will be the problem.*

Q.9 attempted to examine the problem of course coherence between different course levels, which were the connected programmes (Figure 1.2). The HODs' responses are shown in the table below:

**Table 5.31: Does course design have coherence between different course levels (5year/ 2-year junior college, and 2-year institute of technology)? (Q.9)**

<b>Courses Coherence between Different Course Levels</b>	<b>HODs' Codes</b>
1. The 5-year/ 2-year junior college programmes we have are the parallel systems. Therefore, there is no connection problem.	H1
2. The teaching materials we select for the 5-year junior college and 2-year institute of technology students have sometimes been repeated or overlapped unknowingly.	H2
3. Language courses are considered coherent with step-by-step learning process.	H3
4. We have advanced courses of the 2-year institute of technology programmes to connect with the 5-year junior college courses.	H4

The problems of repetition and overlap of teaching materials at different course



The problems of repetition and overlap of teaching materials at different course levels were matters of concern. Regarding Item 2, H2 further explained that,

*Sometimes the teaching materials teachers select for 2-year institute of technology students are easier than for 5-year junior college. It is ridiculous. Therefore, in future, all selected textbooks will have to be sent to the Head of the Department to review if they overlap.*

In Item 5, H4 commented that,

*For example, there is a course subject named English Grammar in the 5-year junior college programme and it is followed by the courses of Advanced English Grammar, Writing and Rhetoric offered in the 2-year institute of technology programme. The subjects will be distinguished in different course levels not only by titles, but by the content which will be deeper and more comprehensive.*

Q.10, 11 and 12 aimed to investigate whether analysis of the students' needs analysis was carried out and whether the courses, business-related English courses in particular, meet the needs of the students and industry. The responses are given in Tables 5.32 and 5.33.

**Table 5.32: Does the DAFL-E/DAE carry out students' needs analysis and do the English courses, Business-related English courses in particular, meet learners' needs? (Q.10, 12)**

Students' Needs Analysis	HODs' Codes
1. Students' needs analysis is carried out by questionnaire.	H1, H4
2. No students' needs analysis has been carried out.	H2, H3

**Table 5.32. (continued)**

<b>Courses Meet Learners' Needs</b>	<b>HODs' Codes</b>
3. Students' needs analysis is helpful with planning elective courses. However, we are not sure if these courses have met students' needs due to insufficient contacts with the graduates.	H1
4. Course objectives have been followed, which are 70 percent of languages, 20 percent of business and 10 percent of Information Technology. In general, I think the courses have served students' needs.	H2
5. The results of students' need analysis shows on some survey indicate 42.2 percent of students want to be office workers, followed by 22.7 percent of which like to be English teachers. I think our courses have met their needs.	H4

Table 5.32 indicates that needs analysis was carried out in two of the four institutions surveyed. Regarding Item 2, H3 commented that,

*The Ministry of Education has fixed course credits to be offered by regulations, in the 5-year junior college programme in particular. After we have 2-year/ 4-year institute of technology undergraduate programmes, there will be more flexibility in offering courses. That is why every college wants to be upgraded to university level to have more autonomy to decide what courses to offer.*

**Table 5.33: Does course design, elective courses in particular, meet the needs of local industries? (Q.11)**

<b>Course Design Meet the Needs of Local Industry</b>	<b>HODs' Codes</b>
1. No evaluation has been carried out and insufficient contacts with local industry.	H1
2. Have general idea that the needs of local industries are in tourism and marble stone.	H1

**Table 5.33. (continued)**

<b>Course Design Meet the Needs of Local Industry</b>	<b>HODs' Codes</b>
3. There are neither obvious needs of local industries, nor prominent features of the DAFL-E/DAE, which should be developed by the features of locality, for instance, commerce and industry of south, mid-central and north of Taiwan.	H2
4. To combine technology, languages and teaching to develop our distinguishing features.	H2
5. Our school is an institute of commerce and has served the needs of local industries, which are mainly in commerce.	H3
6. The IT courses we provide will serve the future needs of the local Science-based Industrial Park in the future.	H3
7. In the north of Taiwan, our Institute is the only one that has a 4-year programme of the DAFL-E/DAE to serve the needs of local industry.	H4
8. The local industry mainly is in commerce. Our institute is a commerce institute with lengthy history, appropriate location, and 10,000 students. Its relevance to the local industry differentiates from engineering technology institutes.	H4

Table 5.33 shows that HA and HB did not consider their courses meet the needs of local industries, while the other two considered that local needs were served.

Q.13 and 14 concerned teaching materials and aimed to examine what kinds of materials were used, how they were selected and any difficulties that were encountered. The HODs' views are shown as follows:

**Table 5.34: Do you have difficulties in selecting teaching materials? Are they ready-made or learner-tailored? (Q.13, 14)**

<b>Difficulties in Selecting Teaching Materials; Ready-made or Learner-Tailored</b>	<b>HODs' Codes</b>
1. Most of teaching materials are ready-made.	H1, H2, H3, H4
2. Tend to select easier materials in content to meet students' need.	H1, H2

**Table 5.34 (continued)**

<b>Difficulties in Selecting Teaching Materials; Ready-made or Learner-Tailored</b>	<b>HODs' Codes</b>
3. There is more choice in General English and less in ESP.	H1
4. There are no problems in selecting textbooks. It is very flexible.	H1, H2, H3, H4
5. Teachers decide whether to use ready-made or learner-tailored teaching materials.	H2, H3
6. When selecting the textbooks for connected courses in different course levels, such as the 5-year junior college to 2-year institute of technology programmes, the department should be in charge to integrate to avoid overlapping.	H2, H3, H4
7. Be aware of copyright, in particular, with the computer software.	H2
8. Some computer software is too expensive to afford.	H2
9. Most textbooks are imported, mainly from U.S. and U.K.	H4

Table 5.34 shows that all four institutions preferred to use ready-made textbooks and teaching materials and left all the decisions on selection to the teachers.

Q.15 aimed to assess the HODs' focuses whether on General English or Business English. Their responses are shown in the following table:

**Table 5.35: As far as English is concerned, do you focus on General English or Business English? Why? (Q.15)**

<b>Focus on General English or Business English</b>	<b>HODs' Codes</b>
1. More focus on General English because of the subjects taught at present.	H1, H4
2. Sometimes Business English is focused because of the subject taught but it's not what I specialised in.	H2
3. General English should be the basis, then it will be easier to focus on Business English or other ESP.	H3

Table 5.35 shows that all four HODs emphasised General English. It was related to the subjects they specialised in, and to their educational and work experience (Tables 5.24 and 5.25). Regarding Item 3, H3 explained that,

*Take the subject of Business English Writing as an example. As long as the business jargon is introduced, memorised and fitted into the sentences, the way of expression in business writing is similar to general English writing.*

Q.16 and 17 concerned how the students' English proficiency levels were evaluated and the certificate system was implemented. The HODs responded as below:

**Table 5.36: Apart from regular tests, how does the DAFL-E/DAE evaluate students' English competence and implement English Proficiency Certificate System? (Q.16, 17)**

<b>Evaluate Students' English Competence and Implement English Proficiency Certificate System</b>	<b>HODs' Codes</b>
1. Not yet able to make English Proficiency Test compulsory.	H1, H2, H3, H4
2. No specific tests are held by the DAFL-E/DAE to evaluate students' English proficiency, but students are encouraged to take GEPT held by LTTC.	H1, H3, H4
3. Used to test students' English proficiency with TOEIC.	H1
4. There is the requirement that students have to pass TOEFL at a score of at least 550 to graduate. However, there are alternatives.	H2, H4
5. No minimum requirement of TOEFL scores has been set, but they are offered extra credits if they gain a high score.	H3

Table 5.36 indicates that none of the institutions surveyed had made an English Proficiency Test compulsory and three of the four did not use specific tests to evaluate students' English proficiency levels. Some colleges, especially the public-funded ones, do not make English Proficiency Tests compulsory because it is not

mandated by law. H3 stated that,

*We can encourage students to take any English Proficiency Test, but can not force them. The Ministry of Education has also sent us a letter to remind us not to include English Proficiency Tests as part of the requirements for completion of degrees.*

Pertaining to Item 4, H2 explained what their alternatives were,

*Though there is a requirement for students of passing TOEFL 550 to graduate, we have alternatives to help those who are not able to pass. One is passing a mock English Proficiency Test held by the DAFL-E/DAE. The other is offering an accredited course, 'Evaluation of English Proficiency' to help students pass English Proficiency Tests, such as GEPT or TOFLE held by LTTC. The course is offered one year ahead of graduation. Thus, if students fail, they have another year and a chance to re-take it.*

Institution D's alternatives were,

*At the 3<sup>rd</sup> year of 5-year junior college programme, there is a one-year prerequisite course for English Proficiency Test. At the 4<sup>th</sup> year, we offer a one-credit course 'English Proficiency Testing Preparation' and encourage students to attend GEPT held by LTTC. To prevent students from getting easy by taking courses instead of tests, at the 5<sup>th</sup> year, we offer a six-credited remedial course for those who failed at any English Proficiency Tests. (H4)*

In Item 5, H3 explained that,

*In order to encourage students, we do not set up a minimum required TOEFL score; instead, we offer extra pointed by proportion, for example, 3 points added for 500, 5 points for a 550 TOEFL score, etc.*

From the interviews, the writer discovered that each institution encouraged students to take English Proficiency Tests, such as GEPT, TOEIC or TOEFL, which are explained in Chapter 3 (Section 3.7.5), and regarded them as an English Proficiency Certificate. However, since the above-mentioned tests were not compulsory, the English Proficiency Certificate system was not implemented properly.

According to H2 and H4, the English Proficiency Certificate system, if it could be properly implemented, should be applied not only to the DAFL-E/DAE but to the entire institution. One of the reasons was to promote students' English proficiency. The other, according to H3, was to provide more English classes for English teachers in the DAFL-E/DAE, since the 5-year junior college programme is going to be abolished. H4 considered that,

*If the 5-year junior college programme of entire institution is going to be discontinued, the DAFL-E/DAE will not be the only one to be affected. The number of English classes (General English courses) of the whole institution, which are mainly supported by English teachers from the DAFL-E/DAE, will be decreased. If teachers do not have enough hours to teach, the DAFL-E/DAE will face a major problem.*

The HODs were asked (in Q.18) what challenges were encountered in students' industrial placement and cooperation with local commercial organisations. Their responses are shown in Table 5.37 below:

**Table 5.37: What challenges have you encountered, regarding to the cooperation with local business agencies in terms of industrial placement? (Q.18)**

<b>Challenges of Cooperation with Local Business Agencies in terms of Industrial Placement</b>	<b>HODs' Codes</b>
1. It is difficult to arrange for students to have work placement at local industry during summer holidays.	H1
2. Industrial placement is not mandatory and credited to the courses.	H1, H4
3. In the future, we will have the course of 'Teaching English for Children' and will arrange students to practise at local kindergartens or language centres.	H1, H2
4. For engineering related departments it is easy to find factories to have students' work placement, but for business or secretarial departments, we find it difficult.	H4
5. Students arrange work placement for themselves with very limited opportunities.	H2
6. Students can practise at trading companies, but usually they prefer to attend study- tour to English speaking countries or English summer camps.	H2
7. The 5-year junior college students prepare for examinations for further study, such as the 2-year institute of technology programme or transfer to general university. No one is interested in industrial placement.	H3
8. The 2-year institute of technology students are busy with projects in the final year. It is difficult to arrange industrial placement in such a short programme.	H3
9. Lack of support from institutional authority.	H3, H4

Several difficulties in arranging cooperation with the industry were revealed in Table 5.37, such as no mandatory requirement of students' work placement, time allocation, job opportunities, students' lack of interest and lack of support received by the Department from the institutional authority. Concerning Item 1, H1 said that,



*We tried to arrange for students to have industrial placement at local business companies during summer holidays, but most students are from other cities. They all like to go home for the vacation.*

Regarding Item 9, H4 indicated that,

*Pertaining to cooperation with local industries, it should be arranged by school authority, instead of each department individually. A single department cannot shoulder such a workload. As the Head of Department, I cannot take care of so many things.*

The HODs were asked (in Q.19) to indicate their recognition in students' English skills in listening, speaking, reading and writing and their learning difficulties. The responses were as follows:

**Table 5.38: What language skills in terms of listening, speaking, reading and writing in English do students master the best or have the most difficulties with? Why? (Q.19)**

<b>Language Skills Students Master The Best</b>	<b>HODs' Codes</b>
Listening	H1, H3
Speaking	None
Reading	H1, H2, H3, H4
Writing	H2, H4
<b>Language Skills with which Students Have Most Difficulties</b>	
Listening	H2, H4
Speaking	H1, H2, H3, H4
Reading	None
Writing	H1, H3

**Table 5.38. (continued)**

Comments	HODs' Codes
1. Listening and reading are passive skills and therefore easier. Relatively, speaking and writing are productive and more difficult.	H1
2. In the absence of an English environment, it is difficult to learn the English language fully.	H1
3. Students lack confidence and they are not used to thinking in English.	H1
4. Large class size and insufficient facilities, such as language labs.	H1
5. Located in the remote East of Taiwan, it receives radio signal with difficulty.	H1
6. Our students' English performances in listening, speaking, reading and writing are not much different.	H2
7. Partially owing to cultural consideration, students do not like to speak out.	H3, H4
8. Something to do with our teaching methods, which are more passive.	H4

Table 5.38 shows that HODs' opinions were diverse. Nevertheless, they all agreed that students could best master the reading skills, and had most difficulty with English speaking. Regarding Item 5, H1 explained,

*Our college is located at eastern Taiwan which is cut off by mountains. Therefore, listening to English broadcasting, which is considered one of the efficient ways of learning English, becomes difficult.*

Pertaining to Item 6, H2 explained that,

*Maybe because we have more foreign teachers, and offer many English speaking courses, students' English performances of listening, speaking, reading and writing are not very different.*

The HODs were asked in Q.20 to what extent they felt whether the students' English proficiency meets the requirements of the labour market. They responded as follows:

**Table 5.39: Do you think English proficiency levels of students meet the requirements of the labour market? Why? (Q.20)**

English Proficiency Levels of Students Meet the Requirements of the Labour Market	HODs' Codes
1. Not sure of it.	H1
2. Students themselves do not think their English proficiency meets the requirement of the labour market.	H1
3. The goal of the Department has to be very clear, understanding what students' levels are and offer the courses they need.	H1
4. Compared with general universities, students' English proficiency is not adequate.	H2
5. Our university has been upgraded from a college. Therefore, carrying some baggage is inevitable.	H2
6. It is not clear because most 5-year junior college students are keen on further study and we do not have 2-year institute of technology graduates yet.	H3
7. It is all right. There are fair feedback from graduates in the field of secretarial and tourism. With regard to the field of English teacher, we need more evaluations.	H4

Table 5.39 shows that three of the four HODs had no confidence in students' English proficiency levels.

Q.21 and 22 attempted to investigate the challenges encountered in the DAFL-E/DAE. The result of HODs' responses is shown as follows:

**Table 5.40: What are the most significant challenges you have encountered in the DAFL-E/DAE? (Q.21, 22)**

<b>Challenges Encountered in the DAFL-E/DAE</b>	<b>HODs' Codes</b>
1. There are no clear directions in curriculum plan.	H1
2. Facilities need to be improved.	H1
3. In cooperation with local industries, such as tourism, to develop the features of the DAFL-E/DAE.	H1
4. Students' competitive ability in the job market needs to be improved.	H2, H4
5. Insufficient support from school authority in teaching and management.	H3
6. It is not easy to find teachers with both a doctoral degree and business experience.	H4
7. It is not easy to find native English speaking teachers. The support from the institutional authority in this aspect is inadequate.	H4
8. The poor management of facilities.	H4
9. The ideal of education of the DAFL-E/DAE is closer to whole education with international perspectives.	H2
10. Different from the general foreign languages department, the DAFL-E/DAE combines English with business and information technology.	H2

Table 5.40 reveals that the most significant challenges, which were encountered in the DAFL-E/DAE, concerned objectives and distinctive features, educational cooperation, institutional authority support, and the teachers' qualification to satisfy employment policy. Regarding Item 3, H1 considered that,

*If neither featuring our department nor upgrading our college succeeds in attracting more students, we will face a critical dilemma. Especially, the location at the east of Taiwan is considered one of our major disadvantages due to the distance and inconvenience of transportation.*

Pertaining to Item 4, H2 commented that,

*Due to economic inflation, the labour market is quite down. This is the problem encountered not only in the DAFL-E/DAE but all departments.*

*Therefore, to enhance students' competitive ability is important.*

### **5.3. Interviews with the Business English Teachers of DAFL-E/DAE**

These interview questions with Business English teachers attempted to investigate whether teacher training is adequate, particularly in ESP, to identify the teachers' views and attitudes towards their roles, their conception of General English and Business English and their opinions of students' performance and difficulties in English learning.

The interviews consisted of 19 questions and were summarised into 13 categories (Tables 5.43- 5.55), which are presented in tables with themes to be cross analysed in the next chapter. Interviewees were coded as TA1, TA2, TB1, TB2, TC1, TC2, TD1, TD2. In this section, the writer starts by introducing teachers' educational and professional background, their subject specialisms and years of teaching and work experience. The research questions (Section 4.3) covered in the Teachers' Interview questions were as follows:

- Research question 2 is covered in Teacher's Interview question (1).
- Research question 4 is covered in Teacher's Interview questions (2) (7).
- Research question 5 is covered in Teachers' Interview questions (1) (3) (4).
- Research question 6 is covered in Teachers' Interview questions (5) (10) (11) (12) (13) (14).
- Research question 8 is covered in Teacher's Interview question (9).
- Research question 9 is covered in Teacher's Interview questions (15) (16) (17).

- Research question 11 is covered in Teacher's Interview questions (6) (19).
- Research question 13 is covered in Teacher's Interview questions (8) (18).

The following tables (5.41 and 5.42) show the distribution of the teachers by educational background, work experience, position and specialist subject:

**Table 5.41: Teachers' Educational Background and Specialist Subjects**

Teachers' Codes	Associate Degree	BA	MA	Doctorate Degree	Positions	Specialist Subjects
TA1	Business	Foreign Languages & Literature	Foreign Languages	—	Lecturer	Business English, Journalism English, English Grammar & Writing, English Listening & Speaking
TA2	—	Foreign Languages & Literature	TESL	—	Lecturer	Business English, English Reading, English Grammar & Writing
TB1	—	Western Literature	TESL	—	Lecturer	Business English Writing, Business Communication, Practice of International Trading, English Conversation
TB2	—	English Literature	English Literature	Doctorate candidate, part-time study in English Literature	Lecturer	Finance English, Business Basics, English for Business Contract, Translations
TC1	—	German	—	—	Lecturer	Business English, Practice of International Trading
TC2	—	Western Literature	—	—	Professor	Business English, Freshmen General English
TD1	—	Foreign Languages & Literature	Management of Information System	Doctorate candidate, part-time study in Management	Lecturer	Business English, Business Design, Business Management & Modernisation
TD2	—	Foreign Languages & Literature	Western Literature	—	Lecturer	Business English, Finance English, English Conversation

Table 5.41 indicates that the teachers possessed at least a Master's degree and two were currently pursuing a Doctoral degree. It is noted that TC2 was the only Professor among the interviewees who was promoted as a result of presenting research papers and books, although he had only a Bachelor degree.

**Table 5.42: Teachers' Work Experience**

Teachers' Codes	Full-time Teaching	Private Business Sector
TA1	2 years	0
TA2	3 years	5 years
TB1	3 years	4-5 years
TB2	5 years	5 years
TC1	17 years	3-5 years
TC2	30 years	1 year
TD1	9 years	3-5 years
TD2	20 years	5 years

Table 5.42 reflects that the teachers' teaching experience ranged from two years to thirty years. Except TA1, all teachers had one to five years work experience at business sector. It is noted that, according to the teachers' interviews, business experience was the major concern when they were employed to teach Business English.

Q.1 intended to identify how the teachers were preparing themselves for college upgrade and the difficulties they encountered. The responses were as follows:

**Table 5.43: How do you prepare yourself for college upgrade? (Q.1)**

Preparation for College Upgrade	Teachers' Codes
1. Attend training courses/ conferences.	TD1, TD2
2. Present papers to have promotion.	TA1, TD2
3. Study for a doctorate.	TA1, TA2, TB2, TD1, TD2

**Table 5.43. (continued)**

<b>Preparation for College Upgrade</b>	<b>Teachers' Codes</b>
4. Reinforce personal specification by obtaining Certifications.	TA1
5. Keep up business knowledge with business companies.	TB1, TB2
6. Obtaining business knowledge by self-learning.	TC1, TC2
<b>Difficulties</b>	
7. Do not have enough time for teacher training. Besides teaching, busy with administrative work.	TA1, TA2
8. Too much students' homework to be graded.	TA1
9. Do not have enough channels for professional training.	TA1, TB1, TC1
10. Located in remote eastern Taiwan, it is not easy to attend conferences.	TA1, TA2
11. Many conferences are for "business teachers", which means the teachers from Departments of Business Administration or Finance Management.	TA2, TB1

Table 5.43 shows the teachers' greatest concern was to study for a doctoral degree to prepare for college upgrade. The limited opportunities for professional training were also of concern to them. Regarding Item 3, TB1 pointed out that,

*I am not sure if gaining a doctoral degree would help me with teaching, Business English in particular. For teachers who teach Business English, business work experience is more important than an academic degree.*

Q.2, 3, and 4 aimed to examine the teachers' awareness about ESP and whether they have received adequate ESP training, more particularly in Business English.

The teachers responded as follows:



**Table 5.44: To what extent do you understand ESP and have you attended any General English or ESP training courses or conferences? Are they helpful? (Q.2, 3, 4)**

<b>Understanding of ESP</b>	<b>Teachers' Codes</b>
1. Do not know much about ESP.	TA1, TC1, TC2, TD1, TD2
2. ESP means different subjects with different purposes of English learning.	TA2
3. ESP is using English to engage with business activities.	TB1
4. ESP needs to be clearly defined; otherwise, it can be anything.	TB2
<b>Attending Training Courses/Conferences of GE or ESP</b>	
5. No ESP training courses/ conferences are available.	TA1, TA2, TB1, TB2, TC1, TC2, TD1, TD2
6. Attend GE training courses/ conferences in TESOL or multi-media and consider they are helpful.	TA1, TA2, TD2
<b>Difficulties</b>	
7. Seldom attend conferences due to heavy administrative work.	TA1
8. Most of the conferences focus on General English, Teaching English for Children, instead of business.	TA1, TB1, TC2
9. With insufficient financial support, it would be more difficult for institutions to provide teacher training courses or attending conferences.	TC1, TC2

Table 5.44 shows that five of the eight teachers were not familiar with either the term or the content of ESP and, notably, all teachers declared that no ESP training courses or conferences were available.

TB1 pointed out that,

*ESP has been neglected.*

TB2 said,

*I have a strong relationship with business industries to keep up information to help with my Business English teaching, instead of from academic training.*

Teachers were asked in Q.5 to reveal their opinions regarding who is better qualified to teach business-related English courses- an English teachers or Business teachers. Their opinions were given in the following table:

**Table 5.45: Should business-relate English courses be taught by English teachers with adequate knowledge of business or Business teachers with adequate command of English? (Q.5)**

<b>Business-related Courses Should be Taught by English Teachers with Adequate Knowledge of Business or by Business Teachers with Adequate Command of English</b>	<b>Teachers' Codes</b>
1. Business-related courses should be taught by English teachers.	TA1, TC2, TD1, TD2
2. Business-related courses should be taught by Business teachers.	TA2, TB2
3. It depends on the content of courses.	TB1, TC1
<b>Suggestions</b>	
4. Mutual support between English and Business Departments.	TB2
5. Have training courses for teachers with both English and Business capabilities.	TC1

Table 5.45 shows that half of the eight teachers were in favour of business-related English courses being taught by English teachers with adequate knowledge of business. The reasons they gave were as follows:

*Mainly, we are teaching English. The Business teachers will not have as good command of English as English teachers.*

(TD1)

*Though some business teachers studied in the U.S. or U.K, without proper English language training, they cannot even write correct sentences. How can they teach students Business English, which is focused on writing?*

(TD2)

Two teachers believed that business-related English courses should be taught by Business teachers with adequate command of English.

*If you ask the teachers like me who majored in English language or literature to learn business knowledge in some specific areas, I would say,*

*'Give me a break!'*

(TB2)

Another two teachers thought it depends on the contents of courses.

*If it is the course of 'Business English Conversation', English teachers can handle that without any problems. However, a course like 'Business Negotiation', would be easier for the teachers with adequate business knowledge and experience. Once there was a native English speaking teacher without a business background who taught Business English and complained, 'No more Business English, please!'* (TB1)

*Take the subject of 'Business English Writing' as an example, it would need teachers who majored in English, with better English writing skill. As to the subject of "E-Commerce", it would be better to have teachers with adequate business background.*

(TC1)

Q.6 attempted to understand teachers' views on whether business-related English courses meet the students' needs. The responses are revealed in the following table.

**Table 5.46: Do business-related English courses and teaching materials meet the learners' present and future needs? Why? (Q.6)**

If Business-related English Courses and Teaching Materials Meet Learners' Needs	Teachers' Codes
1. Yes, however, some are focused on four skills of English languages, instead of introduction of format of business letters.	TA1, TA2, TD1
2. Some positive feedback from graduates, saying that business-related courses are not only useful at work but for examinations or further study.	TD2
3. No. Most of students, 5-year junior college students in particular, who intend to go on to further study, are not motivated because the course of Business English, which emphasises writing, is not included in the exam subjects.	TB1
4. Most graduates are teaching English for children. It does not meet the goal of the DAFL-E/DAE. Therefore, I do not think business-related English courses have met the needs of students.	TB1
5. Being an English teacher is one of the needs of students, but it is not offered by the DAFL-E/DAE.	TB2
6. Some courses, such as "Business Negotiation" are what students need, but there are no such teachers available.	TC1
7. There are not enough hours for Business English.	TC2

Table 5.46 indicates that four of the eight teachers agreed that business English courses and teaching materials have met the learners' present and future needs, but another four did not agree. Regarding Item 4, TB1 pointed out,

*Usually at the first class of the semester, I carry out a survey asking students 'What do you want to do after graduation?' Surprisingly, most of them intend to be English teachers. However, we don't offer any courses for training to be English teachers.*

Concerning Item 5, TB2 declared that,

*It is hard to operate with big classes. However, medium or small sized classes cost more money. That is the reason why English teaching courses are not offered in the DAFL-E/DAE.*

The teachers were asked in Q.7 about their personal emphasises on General English or business-related English. Their responses were as follows:

**Table 5.47: As far as English is concerned, do you focus on General English or business-related English? Why? (Q.7)**

<b>Focus on General English or Business-related English</b>	<b>Teachers' Codes</b>
1. Focus on General English and have business knowledge as supplement.	TA1, TD1, TD2
2. Emphasise English expression and having English language sense. Consider business knowledge as only background knowledge.	TB2
3. As business college students, they are supposed already to have business knowledge to some extent. Therefore, English should be the focus.	TC2

**Table 5.47. (continued)**

<b>Focus on General English or Business-related English</b>	<b>Teachers' Codes</b>
4. Focus on business English, but grammar errors are also corrected.	TA2
5. Primarily focus on content, such as the format of business letter and business sense, then the language they use.	TB1
6. Both general English and business English should be equally emphasised.	TC1

Table 5.47 shows that five of the eight teachers considered that General English should be more focused on. Two teachers thought business content should be emphasised. One regarded both as equally important.

Q.8 attempted to examine how the teachers perceived the students' English performance in four language skills, i.e. listening, speaking, reading and writing. The teachers responded as follows:

**Table 5.48: What language skills in terms of listening, speaking, reading and writing in English do students master the best or have the most difficulties with? (Q.8)**

<b>Language Skills Students Master the Best</b>	<b>Teachers' Codes</b>
Listening	TC2
Speaking	TD2
Reading	TA1, TB2, TC1, TC2, TD2
Writing	TC1
Not Sure	TB1

**Table 5.48 (continued)**

<b>Language Skills Students Have Most Difficulties</b>	<b>Teachers' Codes</b>
Listening	TC1, TD2
Speaking	TA2, TC1
Reading	TD1
Writing	TA1, TB2, TC2, TD1, TD2
<b>Comments</b>	
1. Students are afraid of speaking in English.	TA1
2. Students are not used to thinking in English.	TB2
3. Lack of English environment, with difficulties of using English as target language in the classroom.	TA2
4. Students are too lazy to read English and it has affected with their writing ability. However, as to listening, via mass media, like TV and internet, students can get easy access to improve their English.	TB2

Table 5.48 shows that five teachers considered that reading is the skill students best mastered, while writing skills were most difficult, in the view of an equal number of the teachers. Regarding Item 1, TA1 stated that,

*Students are able to read, but afraid of speaking in English. Compared with speaking, writing is even worse.*

As to Item 2, TB2 said that,

*It is English writing, but students are not used to thinking in English. They think in Chinese and transfer into English. They are translating, not writing. What they write is Chinese English.*

Pertaining to Business English, TD1 compared students with different course levels and said,

*The 2-year institute technology students who have better learning responses and understanding are better than 5-year junior college ones in studying Business English.*

Q.9-11 (Tables 5.49-5.50) dealt with the frequency of the use of English, the language laboratory and educational technology aids. The teachers' responses are summarised as follows:

**Table 5.49: How often do you use English as target language in class? (Q.9)**

Use English as Target Language in the Class	Teachers' Codes
1. Have tried to speak English in class all the time and used to set up every Wednesdays as "English Day", but it didn't work well.	TA1
2. Try to use English and Chinese simultaneously but students cannot get used to it.	TA2
3. It depends on students' levels of English proficiency. When explaining terminology, I tend to use Chinese.	TB1
4. Try to use English as target language in class but students seemed lost. Then I use Chinese to explain some background knowledge, students can understand easily.	TB2
5. There are difficulties to use English as target language in class. The same problems are encountered not only in vocational colleges/universities but also in general universities.	TC1
6. The more English is employed, the more confused the students are.	TC2
7. If I use English in class, students are under a lot of pressure.	TD1
8. It is almost impossible to use English all the time.	TD2



From Table 5.49, all teachers considered it was impossible to use English as the target language in class continuously because of students' inadequate English proficiency and they suggested the need to use the mother tongue - Chinese (Mandarin)- to explain terminology and background knowledge, to help students to understand content easily.

*When I speak English in the classroom, the students fall asleep. I require them to use 'English only in class', but in group discussion, students tend to speak in Chinese again. I don't know what to do!! It must be something to do with the whole environment.*

(TA2)

*If I ask students to use English to discuss some topics, students are afraid of speaking English. It takes a lot of time to encourage them to speak in English. Thus, it delays the schedule of the course.*

(TD2)

With regard to the difficulties facing the teachers, TD1 said,

*I feel distant from students when speaking English in class all the time.*

**Table 5.50: How often do you use language laboratory and educational technology aids? What are they? (Q.10, 11)**

Language Laboratory	Teachers' Codes
1. Do not use language lab due to insufficient facilities.	TA1, TA2
2. Do not use language lab, depending on the subjects I teach.	TC2, TD1, TD2
3. Seldom use language lab depending on the schedule arranged by Department.	TB1
4. Seldom use language lab. Probably once a week or only take one seventh of teaching hours.	TB2, TC1

**Table 5.50. (continued)**

<b>Educational Technology Aids</b>	<b>Teachers' Codes</b>
5. CD player	TA1
6. TV/VCR	TA1, TA2, TB1, TC1
7. OHP	TB2, TC1, TD2
8. Computer	TB2
9. Seldom use educational aids.	TC2, TD1

Table 5.50 shows that five of the eight teachers did not use language laboratories. This was because they were teaching Business English, in which writing was considerably emphasised. Item 6 reveals that TV/VCR was the most popular teaching aid. TC2 explained why she seldom used education aids,

*I seldom use educational aids due to the complicated check-out regulations made by the Department.*

Q.12 –14 (Tables 5.51- 5.52) concerned teaching activities, such as evaluation of student's learning, involvement with course design of DAFL-E/DAE and business activities in business-related English courses. The teachers' responses are shown in the following tables:

**Table 5.51: How do you evaluate students' learning achievement? (Q.12)**

<b>Tests in Learning</b>	<b>Teachers' Codes</b>
<b>Written Test</b>	
1. Test Journalism English and Business English by written tests.	TA1, TA2, TB1, TB2
2. Writing short essays to answer questions.	TC2
3. Ask students to write business letters.	TC1, TC2, TD1

**Table 5.51. (continued)**

<b>Tests in Learning</b>	<b>Teachers' Codes</b>
<b>Oral Test</b>	TA2, TB1
<b>Listening Comprehension</b>	TA1, TB2, TD2
<b>Quizzes</b>	TA1, TB1, TD1
<b>Assignments</b>	TC1, TC2, TD1, TD2
4. Depending on the subjects.	TB1, TC1

In addition to quizzes and assignments, Table 5.51 shows that written tests were the most common method employed to evaluate students' learning achievement.

Listening comprehension was also employed, but teachers commented that,

*I used to use listening comprehension on the subject of Journalism English but got a very bad result. Students felt very frustrated and lost their confidence.*

(TA1)

*I tried listening comprehension test but gave it up afterwards because with insufficient business background knowledge, students could not understand business terminology.*

(TB2)

One teacher complained that,

*I keep giving students a lot of writing assignments and I have to mark them constantly which are a hard job. Therefore, most teachers do not like teaching writing. However, Business English is so much involved with writing activity. I have to ask students to write as much as they can. (TC1)*

**Table 5.52: Which course design of the DAFL-E/DAE have you been involved with and do you arrange business activities with business-related English courses? (Q.13, 14)**

<b>Involvement with Course Design</b>	<b>Teachers' Codes</b>
1. Yes, I have been involved with course design of the DAFL-E/DAE.	TD2
2. Not involved with courses design of the DAFL-E/DAE but with our own teaching subjects.	TA1, TA2, TB1, TB2, TC1, TC2, TD1
3. Regarding four language skills courses (listening, speaking, reading, writing), teachers are divided into four groups to be in charge of course design.	TB2
4. As to elective courses, teachers discuss at a meeting.	TC1
5. There is a Curriculum Planning Committee, which is in charge of course design of the DAFL-E/DAE.	TD1
<b>Arrangement of Business Activities</b>	
6. No arrangement of business activities due to lack of business connections.	TA1, TA2
7. Difficulties with arranging students' work placement or visiting business sectors.	TB1
8. Difficulties in working with Technological & Cooperative Education Centre of institution.	TC1
9. To visit business sectors, students can only see the business activities without understanding the all procedures.	TC1
10. With time limit, it will delay the schedule of courses.	TC2, TD2
11. Yes, through personal connections, I arranged for students to visit Security Investment Advisory Company and Bank.	TB2
12. Yes, we used to visit the American Institution in Taipei.	TC2
13. It depends on subjects. We visited Distribution Centre when teaching the subject Business Management & Modernisation, but no visits have been arranged for Business English.	TD2

Table 5.52 indicates that seven out of eight teachers were not involved with course design for the DAFL-E/DAE, although they were for their own teaching subjects. Item 1 revealed that TD2 was the only teacher who was involved in course design for the DAFL-E/DAE, because she was assigned to establish the Department and be the HOD.

Owing to various difficulties, only three of the eight teachers arranged business activities for business-related courses. In Item 6, TA1 explained that,

*I have just graduated from university, and lack experience of working in business sectors. Therefore, without sufficient business connections, it is really hard to arrange business activities for students.*

Q.15-17 (Table 5.53) were concerned with teaching materials in the use of English textbooks, ready-made or learner-tailored, the participation in selection and the difficulties encountered. The teachers' responses are given in the following table:

**Table 5.53: Do you use English textbooks and participate in selection? Do you have difficulties in selecting teaching materials? Are they ready-made or learner-tailored? (Q.15, 16, 17)**

English Textbooks	Teachers' Codes
1. Most textbooks are written in English language.	TA1, TA2, TB1
2. With respect to the course of International Trading which business terminology is involved, I tend to use English textbooks for the 2-year institute of technology programme students, but use Chinese edition for the 5-year junior college students, to make it easier to explain business terms.	TD1, TD2

**Table 5.53. (continued)**

<b>Ready-made or Learner-tailored</b>	
3. Textbooks are ready-made.	TA1, TA2, TB1
4. Use learner-tailored teaching materials.	TB2, TC2
5. We use some ready-made textbooks and some learner-tailored handouts.	TB1, TC1, TD1, TD2
<b>Participation in Textbooks Selection</b>	
6. Yes, teachers can decide what textbooks to use. The institutional authority will not object to it.	TA1, TA2, TB1, TB2, TC1, TC2, TD1, TD2
<b>Difficulties</b>	<b>Teachers' Codes</b>
7. It is all right in various selections.	TA1, TA2
8. The imported textbooks, such as "International Trading" and "Business English" are not suitable for our students.	TB1, TC1, TD2
9. Neither the imported textbooks are too easy, nor the ones edited by our own writers, which are mostly translated.	TC2
10. It is hard to find textbooks for the subjects I teach, like "English for Business Contracts". For the subjects, "Finance English" and "Business English", I prefer to retrieve teaching materials from the internet.	TB2

Table 5.53 reflects that most English textbooks were used and were ready-made. In addition, the teachers intended to use learner-tailored handouts. In selecting teaching materials, the institutional authority left decisions to the teachers. Regarding Item 10, TB2 indicated that,

*I have to seek help from the previous company I worked with or e-mail to my friends who work in business sectors to enquire their opinions about whether the materials I found are up-to-date.*

The teachers were asked in Q.18 to reveal their opinions that whether the students' English proficiency meets the requirements of the labour market. The teachers responded as below:

**Table 5.54: Do you think English proficiency levels of students meet the requirements of the labour market? Please explain. (Q.18)**

English Proficiency Levels of Students Meet the Requirements of the Labour Market	Teachers' Codes
1. No, the students' English proficiency level is not adequate.	TA1, TA2
2. Pertaining to teaching English for children, their English capability is sufficient. However, as to work in business sectors, it is not adequate.	TB1
3. It depends on what kind of jobs they are engaged in. For an assistant dealing with general office work, students' English proficiency level is adequate.	TC1, TC2
4. Without sufficient graduates and most of them going to further study, it is still too early to judge.	TB2, TD1
5. Some graduates have good feedback and consider themselves to have met the requirements of the labour market.	TD2
<b>Comments</b>	
6. Selections of teaching materials among different course levels are not appropriate.	TA1
7. Students have low motivation for learning.	TA1
8. Too many credits mandated by MOE as compulsory core courses.	TA2
9. Business-related courses are difficult to arrange within the 2-year junior college programme and the last two years of the 5-year junior college programme.	TA2
10. Most students intend to be English teachers after graduation, instead of working in business sectors, which is not consistent with the goal of the DAFL-E/DAE.	TB1, TB2

Table 5.54 shows that four of the eight teachers considered students' English proficiency level to be adequate to teach English to children and for general office jobs. Two teachers thought students intended to continue studying, therefore, there was no evidence as to whether such capability is adequate. However, a quarter of teachers had no confidence in students' English performance. Regarding Items 8 and 9, TA2 commented that,

*In the 2-year junior college programme, students' backgrounds are diverse. In the first year, they have to take common courses, such as Chinese, economics, etc. Business-related courses can only be arranged in the second year, or the last two years of 5-year junior college programme, which is insufficient and too heavy for students.*

Pertaining to Item 10, TB2 suggested that,

*The goal of the DAFL-E/DAE is to train students to work in the business sector. However, the job market is limited and it is not what students are interested in. Facing this trend, programmes should be modified such as including courses on English teaching, to accommodate with the reality.*

The teachers were asked in Q.19 to give their suggestions and comments.

The responses were as follows:

**Table 5.55: Suggestions and Comments (Q.19)**

Suggestions and Comments	Teachers' Codes
1. To be clear with the goals of the DAFL-E/DAE.	TA1
2. The students' backgrounds of 2-year junior college programme are diverse. Suggestion to divide students into two groups: continuing study and joining work force.	TA1



**Table 5.55. (continued)**

Suggestions and Comments	Teachers' Codes
3. Purchasing more teaching videos related to business activities, such as 'Business Negotiation' or 'Business Meetings'.	TA2
4. Courses offered do not meet the goals of the DAFL-E/DAE or the needs of students.	TB1
5. More teachers with specialisations without a doctoral degree should be employed and apply for positions as "Technical Lecturers".	TB2
6. Too much emphasis on research. Teachers spend too much time on research and teaching has been neglected.	TB2
7. Adding more business courses, such as 'Business Negotiation', 'E-commerce' to adapt to the transformation from college level to institute/ university of technology levels.	TC1
8. Business English is a major course of the DAFL-E/DAE. It is therefore essential to have teachers with at least good command in English writing and sufficient business knowledge.	TC2
9. The most difficulty for me is the pressure of being promoted.	TD1
10. The limited channels for professional training.	TD2

Table 5.55 shows that the teachers made suggestions and comments on many points, which concern the goals of the DAFL-E/DAE, the students' needs, ESP teacher training, and teacher's qualifications to satisfy the employment policy. Regarding Item 2, TA1 explained that,

*Some students are from general senior high schools, who are considered to have better English proficiency; some are from senior vocational high schools, who are not necessarily English majors. If students could be divided into two groups when they were first admitted, depending on their future goals, such as joining the workforce immediately after graduation, teaching English in particular, or going on with studying, it would benefit both students and teachers.*

#### **5.4. Interview with External Expert**

The interview with an external expert aimed to obtain his insights based on his extensive experience in TVE education in Taiwan, on the common concerns, i.e. distinctive features of technological and vocational institutions, policy for college upgrade, teacher training, discontinuation of the 5-year junior college programmes, coherence of course design, needs analysis, implementation of the certification system, and last but not the least, cooperation with the industry.

The interview included 14 questions, which were categorised and summarised. The research questions (Section 4.3) covered in the external expert's interview were as follows:

- Research question 1 is covered in External Expert's Interview question (1).
- Research question 2 is covered in External Expert's Interview questions (2)(3)(13).
- Research question 3 is covered in External Expert's Interview question (5).
- Research question 4 is covered in External Expert's Interview question (6).
- Research question 5 is covered in External Expert's Interview question (4).

- Research question 10 is covered in External Expert's Interview question (6).
- Research question 11 is covered in External Expert's Interview questions (7) (9).
- Research question 12 is covered in External Expert's Interview question (8).
- Research question 13 is covered in External Expert's Interview question (12).
- Research question 14 is covered in External Expert's Interview question (10).
- Research question 15 is covered in External Expert's Interview question (11).

### ***Development of Distinguishing Features based on the Needs of Local Industry***

#### ***(Q.1)***

Several problems have been encountered by the colleges/ universities in developing their distinguishing features.

- Teachers have insufficient practical experience.
- Local industries lack interest in educational cooperation with colleges/universities.
- The educational authority does not point in the right direction.

The external expert mentioned that distinctive features of Departments of Applied Foreign Languages located in different regions are, due to the lack of distinctive local features, not easy to develop.

#### ***Employment Policy (Q.2, 3)***

Every institution is preparing for its upgrade and the employment policy is changing accordingly. The external expert pointed out that,

- In order to be upgraded to institute/university of technology level, there have to be 40 percent of teachers who are titled as assistant professors or above.

- The employment policy of institutions tends to hire those who are assistant professors or have a doctorate; at the same time, to encourage lecturers to be promoted as assistant professors by submitting research papers or via further study to obtain a doctoral degree.

However, he also emphasised,

*If it is possible, we should more focus on teachers' specialisms and practical experience, instead of titles and degrees. The employment policy of technological and vocational colleges/ universities also has to be differentiated from general universities. The former is practice oriented and the latter is research oriented.*

#### ***Teacher Professional Training (Q.4)***

There are several challenges to teacher professional training and advanced study, as on-job training in particular.

- If studying domestically with government sponsorship, there are limited vacancies.
- If studying abroad, the funding and time are restricted. In addition, as regulated, only 5 percent of total applicants within each institution are sponsored.

He suggested:

- Providing more channels for teacher training.
- Dividing technological and vocational colleges/ universities into research or teaching/ practice purposes.

#### ***Discontinuation of the 5-year Junior College Programmes (Q.5)***

The external expert considered the reasons for discontinuing the 5-year junior college programmes are,

- The technology level of the 5-year junior college programmes is inadequate for social needs.
- The tuition fee of the 4-year university of technology programme is approximately 3 times more than the 5-year junior college programmes.
- The colleges will fail in competition and the 5-year junior college students will have limited choices if there are no 2-year/ 4-year institute/ university of technology courses within the same colleges. He explained,

*To comply with Taiwan's economic development, technological levels have to be upgraded, the same as colleges. 4-year university training is better than 5-year and 2-year junior college training.*

Nevertheless, there is a dilemma. By setting up 2-year/ 4-year institute of technology undergraduate programmes, the 5-year junior college programmes will be discontinued. He therefore suggested,

*At this turning point, each college should maintain the current situation; a 5-year junior college programme is necessary. The technological levels do not need to be elevated all at once. If we promote all junior colleges to institutes or universities of technology without any special features to differentiate them from general universities, their competitive ability will be minimised.*

#### ***Course Coherence between Different Course Levels in terms of the 5-year/ 2-year Junior College and 2-year Institute of Technology Programmes (Q.6)***

The external expert indicated that more than 30 research cases have been studied by MOE, regarding course coherence, from the course levels of vocational senior high schools, 5-year/ 2-year junior colleges to institutes/ universities of technology, which offer undergraduate programmes. Unfortunately, coherence in

course design has not been fully achieved. He suggested,

- The courses of the first year of 2-year institute of technology programmes can repeat those in the final year of 5-year /2-year junior college programmes but deepened and made more extensive.
- Courses should be able to connect with specialisations and humanities, theory and practice, integrated with theoretical and practical subjects.

### *Needs Analysis and Needs for Students and Local Industries (Q.7, 8, 9)*

The external expert explained that when a new college/ university or department was established, usually a market survey or questionnaire would be conducted.

He suggested,

*Each institution should have a long-run curriculum committee, in which business experienced members should be included. Students' background and specialties should be considered.*

Regarding whether the distinguishing features of colleges/ universities meet the needs of students and local industries, he commented,

*Ideally, the features of each institution are supposed to serve the needs of students and local industry. Nevertheless, the graduates do not necessarily stay where they have studied. Taiwan is a small country without evident local features. Besides, recruitment of students is on a national basis. In other words, it is hard for colleges/universities to serve the needs of local industry.*

He suggested including the needs of the locality and the opinions of local business leaders when designing curricula.

### ***Implementation of Certification System (Q.10)***

The external expert admitted that implementation of a certification system has faced several challenges and suggested that,

- The policy makers should be responsible for guiding the certification system.
- Implemented by legal regulations, obtaining certain levels of certificates should be made mandatory as part of the requirements for students' graduation.
- Work placement in industry should be undertaken during the summer or winter vacation.
- Students should be encouraged to take a General English Proficiency Test (GEPT) to obtain a certificate.

### ***Cooperation with Local Business Agencies (Q.11)***

There are several difficulties in cooperation with local business agencies. The external expert explained that,

- The industrial placement is not incorporated in the compulsory courses.
- Business agencies have little interest in cooperation with educational institutions because extra work is involved in the supervision of students on placement, and no such culture has been formed.
- Some business agencies provide irrelevant practice opportunities. Thus, students become cheap labour.

## ***Basic Competency of the Students Meet the Requirements of the Labour Market***

***(Q.12)***

The external expert defined the basic competencies graduates should possess.

- Professional skills
- Professional perceptions
- Competency in dealing with basic affairs
- Competency in learning

He pointed out that basic competencies of graduates may not meet the requirements of the labour market because

- the jobs they do may not completely relate to what they have learned from colleges/ universities.
- there is a lack of linkage between education and practical training.

He suggested reinforcing students' basic competencies in

- inter-personal skills
- EQ. (Emotion Quotient)
- cooperation
- professional ethics.

## ***Challenges and Suggestions of Taiwan Technological & Vocational Education***

***(Q.13, 14)***

- Senior vocational high schools will decline and junior colleges without upgrade and specialisations to attract students may face the danger of closure.



- Institutes/ universities of technology are not clearly distinct from general universities, which undermine their competitiveness in the labour market.
- Transforming junior colleges into institutes/ universities of technology to meet the needs of industries is important.

The external expert suggested that,

*Distinctive features from institutes/ universities of technology and general universities should be differentiated. The former emphasise product development, cooperation with the industry, innovation and management and the latter should focus on research and problem solving.*

## **5.5. Summary**

This chapter has presented the findings of the fieldwork, which was carried out by means of questionnaire and interviews. The next chapter will analyse the available data and make comparisons with previous research.

## **CHAPTER SIX**

### **ANALYSIS OF THE FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION**

In this chapter, the writer briefly recapitulates some relevant points from the review of literature and analyses the findings according to the collected data prescribed in previous chapters. The findings of students' questionnaire and interviews with the Heads of Department (HOD), teachers and an external expert are compared and cross-analysed in the light of government documents, institution curriculum documents, and, last but not the least, with previous research. Several themes are mapped out to answer the research questions stated in Chapter 4 (Section 4.3). The cross-references refer to chapter, table and figure numbers cited previously.

#### **6.1. Objectives and Distinguishing Features of the DAFL-E/DAE**

Tyler (1949) pointed out the purpose of education is to study about objectives from subject specialists and these objectives become the criteria of content, materials, teaching and tests. Through objectives, aims what the curriculum serves may be achieved (Section 3.6.2). The objectives are set variously by the Department of Applied Foreign Languages-English (DAFL-E)/ Department of Applied English (DAE). By and large, it is to equip students with intermediate to advanced English proficiency levels to serve the labour market. Some objectives concern training students to be English teachers or to have sufficient language, business and computer knowledge (Section 2.3) (Table 5.26). According to the researchers and their surveys, firstly, reinforcing students' competence in English communication skills is particularly emphasised. Secondly, there is a need to prepare students with adequate knowledge and competent skills on the basis of English competence (Liaw, 2002;

Shih, Su & Lin, 1998, Section 3.7.1). However, several problems were emerged from the data collected. Apart from parents' aspirations for children's education and a better economic situation, more investment in education has been made, in terms of pursuing higher education (Section 1.4.4). Furthermore, most of the students, especially the 5-year and 2-year junior college students (85.3 and 72.3 percent individually), would like to continue their study either domestically or abroad after graduation (Table 5.5). However, the goals of the Department and the course design are based on the assumption that students will join the labour market immediately after graduation. One teacher stated that,

*Most of the students are keen on further study domestically or going abroad. However, to be honest, this is not the goal of a Business College. Conversely, all the course designs are to prepare students for job market immediately leaving institution.*

(TC2)

Similar information was stated in the Final Report of the Commission on Educational Reforms (CER) (Section 1.4.3). That is, the objectives of the DAFL-E/DAE are neither attainable nor realistic, as distinguishing features of the Department. TA1 said that more clear goals should be set and suggested dividing students into groups by their future needs, such as for further study, for work or more specifically, for English teaching (Table 5.55).

In the Final Report of the CER, it was declared that distinguishing features should be emphasised while developing higher education institutions (Section 1.4.2). However, the course design is similar to those English Departments in general universities where literature and linguistics courses are the major, without distinctive specifications serving the different needs of the job market (Section 3.7.2). The

external expert warned that without upgrade and special features, junior colleges may not attract students and will face the danger of closing down. Furthermore, if universities of technology do not have clear distinctions from general universities, they will not be able to compete in the market (Section 5.4, Q.13). H4 shared the same view and declared that,

*The Applied English Department is meant to be practice-oriented. In our Department, literature courses are not emphasised, though they are considered important to culture understanding. Compared with general English Departments where literature courses account for approximately seventy percent of total courses, there are only ten percent of those offered in our Department.*

Some institutions would like to cooperate with local business resources to develop their distinguishing features (Table 5.26). However, the industry lacks interest in educational cooperation. As to developing distinctive Departmental features in accordance with local specialisations, it is not easy either, due to the lack of clearly observable distinctive features in each locality. This was noted by the external expert (Section 5.4, Q.1).

## **6.2. Employment Policy in Accordance with College Upgrade**

In view of the social and economical transformation in Taiwan, the ratio of senior high schools and vocational high schools has adjusted to 5:5, i.e. equal in number. The capacity of senior/vocational /military high school graduates was more than junior high school graduates, according to the statistics in School Year 1994 (SY 1994). Thus, the problem of insufficient students for senior high schools and junior

colleges is critical. Furthermore, there are limited pathways for the graduates of senior vocational high schools and junior colleges. In 1984, there were only six 2-year/ 4-year institutes of technology for 5-year/ 2-year junior college and senior vocational high school graduates, versus 52 general universities which are for senior high institution graduates. Accordingly, 90 percent of junior college graduates would like to take the examination to transfer to general universities. Evidently, Technological & Vocational Education (TVE) is not given the status it deserves. Upgrading 5-year/ 2-year junior colleges to 2-year/ 4-year institutes/universities of technology will be the solution. As suggested by the CER (1996), upgrade of junior college has become the educational policy and the trend (Section 1.4.4). In SY2000, 16 junior colleges were upgraded to institutes/ universities of technology (ROC, 2003). Hence, every junior college is endeavouring to prepare for upgrading and modifying its employment policy.

Accordingly, employing those who have earned a Doctoral degree or are Doctorate candidates has become a key aim. By the regulation of Ministry of Education (MOE), for an institution to be upgraded to institute/university of technology level, 40 percent of teachers are required to have either a Doctoral degree or be titled as an assistant professor or above (Table 5.29)(Section 5.4, Q. 2, 3). According to the current higher education employment policy, teaching at college level requires at least a Master's degree. Thus, at the same time, teachers are encouraged to pursue a Doctoral degree, or to be promoted to an assistant professor by presenting papers examined by the Committees on Academic Review and Evaluation, MOE. The interviews with teachers revealed that five out of the eight were considering studying for a Doctoral degree to prepare themselves for college upgrade. Two are currently candidates of a Doctorate (Table 5.41). Undoubtedly,

teachers are under a lot of pressure and complain about it (Table 5.55). Though five of the eight teachers were preparing themselves to pursue a Doctoral degree, they did not wholly agree with this employment policy (Table 5.28 and 5.43). The Business English teachers said,

*To hire a Business English teacher should emphasise his/her business experiences, instead of Doctoral background.*

(TB1)

*If we require teachers to have a Doctoral degree in the Technological & Vocational Education system, how can we be distinguished from the General Education system?*

(TB2)

The H2 and external expert supported this view. They both commented that teachers' specialisations and practical experience should be highlighted (Table 5.28) (Section 5.4, Q.2, 3). From Hung's (1998a) survey, teachers shared the same view. One of the HODs pointed out the difficulty in hiring teachers with both a Doctoral degree and specialist knowledge (Table 5.40). One teacher suggested that teachers with specialist knowledge without a Doctoral degree could be employed as "technical instructors" (Table 5.55). Shih et al. (1998) stressed that having a Doctoral degree is not necessary; instead, personnel with specialist knowledge and professional experience in industry or the public sectors should be employed on a part-time basis.

### **6.3. Discontinuation of the 5-year Junior College Programmes and Implications**

The junior college system of post-secondary education has been committed to TVE in Taiwan since 1963, starting with a 3-year junior college programme and

followed by the 5-year junior college programme. The former has been discontinued and stopped enrolling freshmen in 1996. The 5-year junior college encompasses the first three years of senior/vocational high school and last two years of post-secondary institution (Figure 1.2). Junior college has had a stabilising influence on Taiwanese education and economics. Boyd & Lee (1993, p.57) identified this “junior college phenomenon” “a direct response to the need to create a skilled and trained labour force”. Nonetheless, its importance has been diminishing (Section 1.3.2).

With most junior colleges moving up to institutes/ universities of technology level, discontinuing the 5-year junior college programmes appear to be the prevailing trend though some challenges have occurred and several considerations need to be taken into account. Table 5.29 shows that in consequence of insufficiency of students, partially due to disadvantage of locality, the 5-year junior college programmes had to be discontinued before the dates planned. Institution A had experienced this. Besides, if too many course levels, e.g. the 5-year/ 2-year junior college, 2-year/ 4-year institute/ university of technology, are included in one institution, managerial problems will be raised. H2 stressed that,

*At a university level, it should only offer undergraduate and graduate programmes with a research orientation. Consequently, an institution should not offer too many course levels, which may give rise to management difficulties.*

With the aspiration for promotion, which yields higher degrees and the higher social positions, the importance of the middle-class labour force is neglected. The H2 admitted that discontinuation of the 5-year junior college programmes should be carefully evaluated, as this used to be the main source of manpower.

In addition, availability of work for teachers should be taken into account. Eliminating the 5-year junior college programmes would reduce the number of classes. Thus, there will not be enough teaching hours for teachers. Their employment will therefore be seriously affected. H3 claimed that,

*The 5-year junior college programme is diminishing every year. Do you know how many English classes there are from Year one to Year five? As soon as the classes have been cutting down, what are the teachers going to do?*

The same concern was expressed by H4 regarding the demand for more highly qualified teachers if the institution was being elevated to university level. However, as far as language learning is concerned, the 5-year junior college programme, started as early as that at senior high school, is better than the 2-year institute of technology, which is only a 2-year undergraduate programme. H3 said that,

*From the view of foreign language learning, if I had a choice, I would prefer the 5-year junior college programme, which provides student with a longer, more complete and consistent study.*

S.H. Huang (2000) advocated that the 5-year college programmes should be sustained, and in addition, continued with a 2-year institute of technology programmes in the DAFL-E/DAE. This “seven-year consecutive programme” would provide students with coherent, continued English language training. Moreover, she considered that the methodology of English language learning and teaching in the 5-year junior college programmes is more appropriate to that in general junior /senior high schools, which are more examination-oriented.

The external expert considered that the technology level of the 5-year junior



college programmes is inadequate for rapid growth of Taiwan's economic development. Upgrading junior colleges to institute or university levels is vital. Paradoxically, he also agreed that keeping the 5-year junior college programmes is necessary (Section 5.4, Q.5). Hence, there is a dilemma. It was suggested by the CER (1996), that incorporating junior college programmes in institute/university of technology could form a flexible educational system (Section 1.4.5). The external expert emphasised that elevating the technology levels of junior colleges to meet the needs for society does not have to be completed all at once, but should be a step-by-step process (Section 5.4, Q.5).

#### **6.4. HODs and Teachers' Views towards ESP**

##### **6.4.1. HODs and Teachers' Educational Background and EFL/ESL Teaching**

###### **Experience**

The majority of HODs and teachers in the DAFL-E/DAE held postgraduate degrees in relevant disciplines, such as Foreign Languages & Literature, Linguistics and Teaching English as Foreign Language (TEFL)/ Teaching English as Second Language (TESL), which were mainly humanities based (Tables 5.24 and 5.41). As to their ESL teaching experience, it included two years to thirty years, but no previous ESP teaching experience was found. Furthermore, seven of the eight teachers had worked in private business sectors for one to five years, but none of the HODs had such experience. It is worth mentioning that the teaching subjects in which HODs and teachers specialised were General English and ESP, business-related English in particular (Tables 5.25 and 5.42).

#### **6.4.2. HODs and Teachers' Views toward ESP**

From the interviews with Heads of the DAFL-E/DAE, ESP was not well-known to some of them and the definition or perception of ESP was confusing. Not surprisingly, teachers who were teaching business-related English, five of the eight did not recognise either the term or the content of ESP. One teacher commented that ESP needs to be clearly defined (Tables 5.30 and 5.44). Nevertheless, the purposes of ESP were considered to be served and the course design was said to be directed properly, depending on how individuals interpreted "specific purposes", say, English teaching, or business (Table 5.30). To serve ESP purposes, the focus was on elective courses (Tables 2.3, 2.4 and 2.5). H2 and Chen (2001) suggested that each college/university should develop ESP according to its own features, such as medicine, pharmacy, business, etc., which sometimes are reflected in the names of institutions (Table 5.30) (Chen, 2001, Section 3.7.2).

As far as English is concerned, the HODs considered General English to be the main focus, rather than Business English. This is due mainly to the subjects they teach, mostly General English. One of the HODs emphasised that General English should be the basis, then Business English will be easier to focus on. A similar view was expressed by teachers. Five of the eight teachers argued that General English should be concentrated on and supplemented with business knowledge (Tables 5.35 and 5.47). From Hung's (1998a and 1998b, Section 3.5) surveys, the majority of English teachers in junior colleges and institutes of technology supported this view. This was also confirmed by Tsai (1998, Section 3.5), whose learners' needs analysis and survey indicated that the learners concern language proficiency level more than business knowledge.

## **6.5. Teachers' Professional Development**

Limited channels have been provided by either MOE or institutional authorities for teachers' professional development. Teachers have to find their own ways to prepare themselves for professional development. The HODs, teachers and external expert reflected a similar view (Tables 5.28 and 5.43) (Section 5.4, Q.4). In addition, apart from the average teaching load, which is eleven to twelve hours per week, teachers are asked to share administrative work. Thus, overwork and insufficient financial support have deterred teachers from attending training courses (Table 5.44). Similar information can be found in Hung's (1998a; 1998b, Section 3.7.3) surveys on English teachers of junior colleges and institutes of technology. This might explain why teachers are not keen on professional development (Table 5.28).

Because ESP teachers did not have sufficient business background and teacher training, qualified teachers to teach ESP are lacking (Shih, Su & Lin, 1998, Section 3.7.3). All teachers indicated that there are no in-service ESP training courses available, especially for business purposes. Three of the eight teachers had attended General English training courses, which provided TEFL/TESL training, or sometimes, multi-media or Teaching English for Children (Table 5.44). In other words, teachers are inadequately trained to teach ESP. TB1 said,

*ESP has been neglected.*

## **6.6. The Role of the ESP Teacher**

### **6.6.1. Subject Teacher vs. English Language Teacher**

There is a key issue regarding the roles of ESP teacher, namely, who is better

qualified to teach ESP, or in this study, BE? Should business-related English courses be taught by English teachers with adequate business knowledge or by Business teachers with adequate command of English? From the interviews with business English teachers, four of the eight considered it should be taught by English teachers.

TA1 said,

*Since the Department is named as Applied Foreign Languages, language should be more emphasised and business knowledge can be self-taught and regarded as supplement to the subjects.*

Nevertheless, two teachers believed that business teachers were more qualified for teaching Business English (Table 5.45). In some cases, it is considered to be easier to train a teacher with basic teaching skills than training English teachers about business (Ellis & Johnson, 1994, Section 3.5). In the students' view, no preference was shown regarding this matter (Tables 5.13 and 5.14).

It is hard to define teachers from the DAFL-E/DAE who are teaching Business English as business teachers or English teachers, depending on the content of courses (Table 5.45). Teachers addressed the difficulties when attending academic conferences pertaining to business subjects. TA2 said,

*I would like to attend academic conferences pertaining to business subjects. However, I am not qualified because I am from the Applied Foreign Languages Department, where teachers are regarded as language teachers.*

As Ellis & Johnson (1994, p.26, Section 3.5) put it,

*The Business English trainer is primarily a language teacher. He or she does not need to be an expert in any particular business.*

Afifi (1991, p.244, Section 3.5) stated,

*In the case of BE, he teaches English for Business rather than Business in English, and a BE class is, by definition, a language class.*

Widdowson (1983, Section 3.6.2) stressed that the learning of ESP is a dependent activity, which represents the learners' aspirations, and therefore ESP pedagogy must be dependent on ELT too. That is what ESP distinguishes from General Purpose English (GPE). As aforementioned, most ESP teachers are mainly language teachers, who are mostly trained in literature (Section 6.4.1). Additionally, those who are non-native speaking teachers of English might not have adequate confidence in their language competence. Hence, some Business English teachers feel more comfortable staying at the "language" side of the fence, rather than "business" side. De Beaugrande (2000, Section 3.5) addressed that this separation is not necessary and is unaffordable at a time when the rapidly changing global economy is becoming complex and diverse. He suggested that English departments and business faculties could come together to discuss their priorities and disparities. However, the BE teacher should at least have a working knowledge of business. Teachers who used to work for business sectors tend to be employed to teach business-related subjects. One of the BE teachers (TB1) said that,

*If I only had a Master's degree in TESL but without a business background to be able to teach business-related English subjects, I don't think I would have got this job.*

In sum, the writer argues that for teaching business-related courses, an English teacher with commensurate knowledge of business is better qualified than a business teacher with satisfactory command of English.

### 6.6.2. Team Teaching

As mentioned in the literature review, there are different types of team teaching. It is viewed as the solution to the teaching problem of language teachers who lack knowledge of specific subjects and several benefits can be gained by students, ESP teachers and subject specialists (Kennedy & Bolitho, 1984; Robinson, 1991, Section 3.5.1). Nonetheless, from the interviews with HODs and teachers, there was no occurrence of any team teaching activity available. Instead, collaboration took place between departments, rather than teachers. It was in a form of subject-language integration, i.e. business-related English courses are provided by the DAFL-E/DAE, which welcomes students from other departments taking the courses to reinforce their English competence, in addition to their subject knowledge. The students of the DAFL-E/DAE are also encouraged to take related courses offered in other departments, for instance, Tourism English in the Tourism Department, if no similar course is available in the DAFL-E/DAE. However, in practice, most business-related English courses are elective ones, which means they are only offered if sufficient numbers of students wish to take them. H4 suggested,

*The DAFL-E/DAE is an interdisciplinary department. We need teachers who are competent with English proficiency and business knowledge. However, in practice, that is difficult. Inviting teachers from Business or IT Departments who have adequate command of English to teacher related subjects may be the option.*

However, there are limitations in any forms of team teaching. Financial and administrative supports are the primary concerns (Kuo, 1993; Robinson, 1991, Section 3.5.1).

### **6.6.3. Native vs. Non-native English Speaking Teacher**

As far as foreign language teaching is concerned, the HODs and teachers agreed on the need for native English speakers to help students, in particular with English speaking courses and forming an English learning environment. However, several problems were mentioned concerning native English speaking teachers, i.e. professionalism, cultural difference in dealing with teaching, the interaction with students and the appropriateness of teaching writing classes. Generally speaking, there is a disadvantage when non-native speaking teachers are dealing with English language texts using scientific or other terminology, compared with the advantage of being able to speak the learners' mother tongue, which can be exploited in translating lexical terms, asking and answering questions. However, non-native English speaking teachers have more understanding of the students' culture background and learning problems (Section 3.5.2).

There are 6, 17 who teach part-time and 3 native English speaking teachers at Institution B, C and D respectively, but none of those at Institution A (Table 5.27). H1 explained,

*It is hard to attract native English speakers to come to our Institution because the location is distant. Besides, because student numbers have declined, partially owing to the 5-year programme being eliminated, we have no intention to employ new teachers, including native English speaking teachers.*

It is worth mentioning that 17 native speakers of English at Institution C were employed as part-time teachers. H3 declared,

*The institution policy tends to employ teachers who own a Doctoral degree with a full-time job offered, but this policy does not include part-time teachers. Hiring native English speaking teachers on part-time basis is an alternative, because they can help students by utilising their native language and the educational degree is not the major concern.*

Three of the four institutions selected in this study were privately funded (Table 2.2). Financial budget was their first concern. However, when making the institution policy, the needs of students in terms of learning and teaching should be taken into account. How to balance among students' interests, professional performance and the financial budget of institutions is the challenge.

#### **6.6.4. Language Laboratory and Educational Technology Aids**

Regarding the frequency of using language laboratories, the findings indicated that five of the eight teachers did not use them very often. The other three teachers reported that language labs are seldom used. One said that she only spent one seventh of her teaching hours in the language labs. This is largely because the subjects they are teaching are business-related courses, in which more writing activity is involved. Some attributed to their lack of use of the language lab to the insufficiency of facilities and the difficulties of arranging laboratory sessions which were not well-organised (Table 5.50).



With regard to educational technology aids used in the classroom, TV/VCR was the most frequently used teaching aids, followed by OHP, CD player and computer. Two of the eight teachers showed no interest in using educational aids, owing to the tedious procedures of checking out the equipment (Table 5.50). Administrative support and efficiency, which can facilitate a friendly teaching and learning environment, are suggested.

#### **6.6.5. Students' Learning Achievement Evaluation**

At the college level, students are given mid-term and final-term examinations each semester. However, different types of on-going evaluation are undertaken throughout the semester, e.g. quizzes, oral / written reports, assignments and term papers. According to the findings of interviews with BE teachers, written tests and assignments were the preferred methods of evaluation, followed by quizzes, listening comprehension and oral test. Written tests can be in various forms, i.e. writing business letters, or writing a short essay to answer questions. Teachers commented that students have difficulty in comprehension in listening to the news (Journalism English) and business jargon (Business English) because of insufficient background knowledge. One teacher indicated that Business English is largely involved with writing activity like other English writing subjects, which creates a heavy marking load. Teachers therefore are less interested in teaching such subjects (Table 5.51). Subject knowledge should be emphasised to improve students' listening comprehension. Reducing class size with flexible teaching hours of writing courses should be arranged to alleviate the teachers' working load.

### **6.6.6. Involvement of Course Design and Incorporation of Business Activities in Business-related Courses**

Seven out of the eight teachers did not take part in course design for the DAFL-E/DAE. The only one involved was the Head of the Department when it was first established. Instead, in Institution D, a Curriculum Planning Committee was in charge of course design of the DAFL-E/DAE on a long-term basis. Nevertheless, teachers have to be responsible for designing courses in their own teaching subjects. There are several forms of discussions held to meet teachers' individual needs in terms of course design. Teachers who teach General English, which is a core component of common courses and involves all four basic language skills, are divided into four groups to design the courses, i.e. listening, speaking, reading and writing. In addition, elective course design is discussed as a group (Table 5.52).

In respect of incorporating business activities in business-related courses, only three of the eight teachers used to arrange such activities, e.g. visiting private business sectors, including trading companies, security investment advisory companies, banks, etc. Teachers revealed several difficulties (Table 5.52).

- Lack of personal business connections.
- Inadequate administrative support.
- Some teachers consider business activities are time-consuming and ineffective.

A long-run, on-going curriculum planning committee is needed in each DAFL-E/DAE to be in charge of course design for the Department to avoid repetition or incoherence of the courses. With inadequate administrative support, teachers are reluctant to arrange such business activities or field trips. These activities should be the responsibility of the institution-level administration. There are Technological & Cooperative Education Centres in Institution B, C and D which are in charge of

external connections, such as students' work placement, visiting business sectors and cooperation with the industry. However, teachers found it is difficult to work with (Table 5.52). Communication and cooperation between department and institutional authorities in administration should be more smooth and intensive.

## **6.7. Students' Attitudes and Views towards the DAFL-E/DAE and Future**

### **Employment**

#### **6.7.1. Students' Background**

The students of this study were selected from the final year of each course level, i.e. the 5-year junior college, 2-year junior college and 2-year institute of technology. Students' average ages were 20-23 years. They had finished secondary schools and were now continuing their studies in English. As the adult learners, they tended to be more aware of the purpose of studying English (Kennedy & Bolitho, 1984, Section 3.4.1). They had experience of learning English for at least seven years at the time this study was conducted.

The reasons students were studying at junior colleges or institute/university of technology were mainly to their own interests (39.1 percent), while 20.7 percent of students did so because of failure at the Joint Entrance Examinations to general universities. 16.1 percent of students believed that studying at TVE would give them more business knowledge and training (Table 5.3). Furthermore, 29.5 percent of students were studying in the DAFL-E/DAE for their own interests, followed by 25.8 percent who were doing so to improve their English proficiency and 23.6 percent to obtain better jobs (Table 5.4).

### 6.7.2. Students' Attitudes towards the DAFL-E/DAE

There were only 29.3 percent of students were satisfied with the English teaching materials provided by the Department (Table 5.15), while 47.3 percent of students were satisfied with class size (Table 5.17). With almost equal number of percentage (45.4 and 44.7), students showed either satisfaction or dissatisfaction with facilities of language labs (Table 5.16). This could be because language labs are equipped variously in each institution. Moreover, students did not deem the courses offered in the DAFL-E/DAE adequate, in terms of elective courses, business courses and remedial English courses. It is significant that more than 70 percent of students considered elective courses to be deficient, followed by business courses (50 percent) and remedial English courses (50.6 percent) (Tables 5.9, 5.10 and 5.11). The reasons were as follows.

- Elective Courses

Certain elective credits are mandatory. For instance, 25 elective credits of total 220 of graduation credits are required for the 5-year junior college students, and 42 of 77 for 2-year institute of technology students. The choices of elective courses appear very limited in the 5-year junior college programme in particular. This was responded to by the Head of Department. H4 explained that,

*We can not afford to offer too many elective courses. If there are not enough students taking each elective course, the course has to be cancelled.*

*Usually there is a minimum student number of ten.*

As mentioned at Section 2.4.1.1 and 2.4.2, the elective courses offered are relatively determined by teachers' availability and the number of students. The cost of offering courses is the major concern. This particularly severely affects privately funded institutions.

- **Business Courses**

Business subjects that are offered in four selected institutions are International Trade, Marketing, Secretarial, Business Management, Business Negotiation, etc. On average, they account for only 9.09 percent of total 220 credits in the 5-year junior college and 18.18 percent of 70 credits in the 2-year institute of technology programme (Tables 2.4 and 2.5). 50 percent of students considered business courses to be inadequate (Table 5.10). However, taking the 5-year junior college programme as an example, the business courses offered were ranked second highest among eight categories, and in the 2-year institute of technology programme, they were ranked in fourth position out of nine in total (Tables 2.4 and 2.5). Therefore, yet, more than 34 percent of students considered that business courses offered in the DAFL-E/DAE are adequate to some extent (Table 5.10).

- **Remedial courses**

Generally, students at TVE are regarded as academically inferior. Not only senior vocational high school students, but also junior college graduates have aspirations to be admitted or transferring to general universities (Section 1.4.3). In other words, in addition to having insufficient pathways to continue their study, relative to TVE, students considered that General Education is the mainstream. 20.7 percent of students indicated that entering the TVE was their second choice, because of being unable to go to general senior high schools or universities, as reflected on Table 5.3. Moreover, Hung (1998a; 1998b, Section 3.7.5) mentioned many researchers have concluded that English incompetence is the main problem for TVE students. In his surveys, teachers agreed that students have low motivation and low achievement in English. Students are admitted into the DAFL-E/DAE with diverse backgrounds, in terms of English proficiency levels and the academic subjects in which they

specialised. Consequently, remedial English courses are needed.

Remedial courses are excluded from regular programme in the DAFL-E/DAE. They are only available at Institution B and C and provided after school hours. 50.6 percent of students thought such courses are not adequate to some extent (Table 5.11). Students who have difficulties with their studies are helped with English computer software for self-learning, or individual guidance by teachers or senior students. Moreover, courses are designed with step-by-step learning to gradually improve students' English proficiency level. However, there are difficulties. H4 indicated,

*Remedial teaching is the extra work. Without institutional support, it is hard to implement it.*

### **6.7.3. Students' Views to Future Employment**

As mentioned earlier, the great majority of students, 85.3 and 72.3 percent of the 5-year and 2-year junior college respectively, intended to continue studying domestically or abroad, while 71.2 percent of the 2-year institute of technology students would like to find a job after graduation. This is because the 2-year institute of technology is a completion of an undergraduate programme and offered with a bachelor degree. In that case, students are considered as sufficiently equipped and well-prepared to be employable (Table 5.5).

All the students showed an interest in working in the public sector as office workers and placed this as either their first or second choice (Table 5.6). Conventionally, public service jobs are considered secure, especially at a time when unemployment rate is on the increase nationally. The 5-year junior college students would like to work in private business companies and the public sector with 38.4 and

28.9 percent respectively. The 2-year institute of technology students showed similar interests but in the reverse order; 35.6 percent were interested in the private and 30.5 percent in the public sector. However, for 2-year junior college students, 38.3 percent wanted to work in the public sector but 23.4 percent showed an interest in English teaching, which was placed second (Table 5.6).

### **6.8. Target Language Used in Class and English Learning Environment**

Some researchers believed that the amount of exposure to the target language is critical in language learning. Adequate exposure to the target language leads to greater success in learning the language. In particular, for those who have insufficient competence in language, exposure to the target language will enhance their knowledge of the language and enrich their linguistic competence (Albazzaz, 1994, Section 3.4.1). In the interviews, all teachers commented on the difficulties in using English in class all the time, including students' lack of motivation, difficulty understanding lexical terms and teachers' professionalism. Seven of the eight teachers complained that students are not willing to speak English in the classroom and 42.4 percent of students admitted that use of the target language in the classroom is inadequate (Tables 5.49 and 5.12). A similar view emerged in Hung's (1998a, Section 3.4.1) surveys. Teachers felt frustrated at not providing adequate English learning environment for students.

Second language learners are recommended to be exposed to "whole instances of language use" (Albazza, 1994, p.109, Section 3.4.1). Heads of Department reported continued efforts to construct a whole English learning environment inside and outside the classroom, through activities such as English House, English Day

and “Lunch-break” English Conversation Class, English Summer/Winter Camps, and Study-tours to English speaking countries.

Conventionally, inasmuch as English is taught by the Grammar-Translation method in schools, i.e. largely focusing on vocabulary and grammar, students in Taiwan may be able to make correct sentences but have difficulty in communicating in English orally. That is why students are afraid of speaking up in English. Teachers feel frustrated while encouraging students to speak English in the classroom. Sometimes teachers are reluctant to do so also (Table 5.49). Teachers are encouraged to use the mother tongue (Mandarin) to explain terminology and background knowledge of subject, but it should not be overused. First of all, teachers’ language competence and confidence in speaking English have to be improved. In spite of the obstacles they may encounter, as above-mentioned, in immersion into a whole language learning environment, teachers are strongly encouraged to use the target language in class as much as they can, so that the students also will do so.

## **6.9. Selections of Teaching Materials**

All teachers agreed that they select textbooks for the subjects they are engaged in. The range of choice is sufficient, but more in GEP than in ESP, Business-related English in particular. As Kennedy & Bolitho (1984) and Robinson (1991) pointed out, most Business English books are written for younger learners and have little differences from General English (Section 3.4.2). Both ready-made and tailor-made teaching materials have advantages and disadvantages. Ready-made materials do not apply to all learners, but for particular situations and learners. The consumers are meant to be unknown readers and therefore appropriateness for local situation is not



considered. Nevertheless, their predictability, credibility and cost-effectiveness are strengths. As Kuo (1993, Section 3.4.2) suggested, ESP teachers can use ready-made textbooks which are adaptable and supplement them with tailor-made materials to accommodate the specific needs of students. From the interviews with Heads and teachers of the DAFL-E/DAE, HODs considered that most teaching materials they use are ready-made. Four of the eight teachers tended to use ready-made textbooks and supplement them with learner-tailored handouts (Table 5.53 and 5.34). With regard to business-related textbooks, the issue of cultural incompatibility emerged. TB1 commented,

*Take 'Business English' as an example, not many selections are suitable for our students. Most of them are imported from U.S. or U.K., which emphasise in local trading and very different from international trading in Taiwan. As to our own editions, there are detailed introductions of Taiwan's trading business.*

This may explain the reason why only 29.3 percent of students were satisfied with English teaching materials provided (Table 5.15). Similar information is provided by researchers. Kuo (1993, Section 3.4.2 and 3.7.4) argued that some materials available in Taiwan are written for ESL situations and lack localised content and teachers struggle with selecting or producing materials to fit a particular situation. Robinson (1991, Section 3.4.2) suggested that cultural aspects of business communication need to be taken into consideration.

## **6.10. Coherence of Course Design among Course Levels of the DAFL-E/DAE**

As introduced in Section 1.3.2, the higher education institutions in TVE are the 5-year/ 2-year junior colleges, 2-year institute of technology and 4-year university of technology. Some programmes are parallel, e.g. the final two years of the 5-year and 2-year junior college; some are connected, e.g. the 5-year/ 2-year junior college and 2-year institute of technology (Figure 1.2). Senior vocational high schools and 4-year university of technology are connected as well, but as they are not included in the cases of this study, no further discussion in this aspect will be made.

Incoherence of courses designed for different course levels has long been a controversial issue. The programmes of 2-year institute of technology were established for the continuity of education from the 5-year/ 2-year junior college programmes. However, most of the content of courses is either overlapping or repeated (Shih, Su & Lin, 1998, Section 3.7.2). 46.4 percent of students did not consider course design as coherent (Table 5.20). This result was echoed with Yang's (2000, Section 3.7.2) survey. The Heads of Department admitted that this problem has been encountered. Without teachers'/ planners' realising it, some teaching materials selected are repeated as a result of using the same textbooks, or the content of higher level of programmes is easier than that of low-level ones. Some students who study in different course levels at the same institution, i.e. the 5-year/ 2-year junior college programmes to 2-year institute of technology programmes, have experienced that courses in the same subject are taught at different levels, using the same textbooks. Therefore, in addition to the teachers' selection of textbooks, coordination among teachers and then integration by the HOD is recommended (Table 5.31). The external expert suggested that the courses at first year of 2-year institute of technology programmes can repeat the final year of 5-year/ 2-year junior

year junior college programmes. In that case, it is possible to provide students who are from diverse educational background with more equal competence, in English proficiency in particular (Section 5.4, Q.6).

However, in respect of Business English offered at the fifth year of the 5-year junior college programme, one of the teachers considered it is appropriate and connected after the subjects of English Writing and International Trade have been learned at the fourth year. He said,

*With previous knowledge of English writing and International Trade, students find it easier to learn how to write business correspondence.*

(TC1)

Another teacher suggested that the 2-year junior college programme should be combined with 2-year institute of technology programmes. Consequently, the consistency of course design can be considered.

### **6.11. Needs Analysis**

In ESP, need for communication in English is determinable. Needs assessment is therefore considered as the necessary starting point in designing curricula for ESP. Needs analysis is not a once-for-all activity but an on-going process. Learners' needs should be identified by learners, the teaching establishment, and the learner's employer (Afifi, 199, Section 3.3). Widdowson (1983, Section 3.3) suggested ESP course design for students would be recognised as having relevance to their concerns. The course content should hence be engaged with the students' interest.

### 6.11.1. Needs of Learners

In this study, the DAFL-E/DAE in two of the four selected institutions carried out students' needs analysis by questionnaire. H1 emphasised it is particularly helpful with elective course planning. Two Heads of Department considered that the course design, in terms of English courses and business-related courses, served the needs of students. H2 expressed that,

*The course objective has been followed by seventy percent of language, twenty percent of business, and ten percent of IT. I believe the courses we designed have met students' needs.*

Additionally, H3 pointed out that there are fixed credits and courses mandated by MOE, for the 5-year junior college programmes in particular, which has restricted the autonomy of Department in designing courses in accordance with students' needs. (Table 5.32). The external expert indicated that before the new department is established, a market survey by questionnaire is conducted to understand the needs of society, rather than the needs of students (Section 5.4, Q.7, 8, 9). In response to the same question, 52 percent of students showed their disappointment (Table 5.18). Half of the teachers thought the business-related English courses and teaching materials have met learners' present and future needs, whereas another half of teachers did not agree with it. One teacher said that most students in the 5-year junior college in particular, intend to go on studying, but the DAFL-E/DAE does not prepare them for this (Table 5.46).

47 percent of students did not agree that the courses offered by the DAFL-E/DAE would meet their needs, that is, helpful for their future employment (Table 5.19). As shown in Table 5.6, 17.4 percent of students wanted to work at language

institutes after graduation. However, none of English teaching courses are offered in the 5-year junior college programmes and only 5.19 percent of total graduation credits offered in 2-year institute of technology programmes (Tables 2.4 and 2.5). The same concern was shared by teachers, who commented that students showed a considerable interest in English teaching for children, but such courses are lacking (Tables 5.46 and 5.55).

### **6.11.2. Needs of the Industry**

As many researchers pointed out, one of the problems encountered in the DAFL-E/DAE is that course design cannot echo the needs of the local industry and manpower market (Section 3.7.2). With regard to the needs of the industry, the results of surveys indicated that basic English language skills, second foreign languages and professional specialised knowledge are in high demand (Shih, Su & Lin, 1998; Wang & Shen, 1998, Section 3.7.6). Lin (1997, Section 2.4) divided the core curriculum of the DAFL-E/DAE into three categories: language, business and IT (Figure 2.2). Language has been the most fundamental core category.

According to Table 2.3, in the 5-year junior college programmes, Basic English Language Skills courses take approximately a quarter of total graduation credits. As to the 2-year institute of technology programmes, Advanced English Skills courses are in the first position (29.87 percent) among compulsory and elective courses required by the DAFL-E/DAE (Table 2.5), while to Second Foreign Languages courses offered in the 5-year junior college are in the first place (13.5 percent) (Table 2.4). With regards to the courses of 2-year institute of technology programmes, Second Foreign Languages courses are placed third (19.9 percent)

(Table 2.5). As a result, second foreign languages are emphasised in both 5-year junior college and 2-year institute of technology programmes. It is noted that Japanese is the most taken second foreign language subject (95.8 percent) because in most cases of this study, Japanese is the only second foreign language available in the DAFL-E/DAE, except Institution B, who also offers German (Table 5.2).

From the interviews with the HODs, two of the four considered that the courses provided have met the needs of local industry. H3 and H4 considered their major local development is in commerce and that is what Institution C and Institution D specialise in. However, H2 indicated there are neither prominent needs of the local industry nor distinctive features of the DAFL-E/DAE (Table 5.33). The same view was expressed by the external expert. He suggested that the opinions of local business leaders should be included when designing courses (Section 5.4, Q.7, 8, 9). With regard to whether students' English proficiency has met the requirements of the labour market, three quarter of the HODs had no confidence in it. H1 suggested the goal of Department has to be clear and students' English proficiency level should be the guidance for course design (Table 5.39). Depending on the professions students are going to be engaged with, half of the teachers considered the English proficiency level is sufficient to deal with the work such as teaching English for children or general office jobs. Since the intention of most students is to continue studying, two of the eight teachers did not comment on this matter. However, another quarter of teachers had no confidence that students' English proficiency would meet the requirements for the job places (Table 5.54). The external expert considered that students' basic competencies, which are professional skills and perceptions, may not be adequate either (Section 5.4, Q.12).

Though 77.4 percent of students thought English would be often used at work

(Table 5.7), only 13 percent of students were confident that their English proficiency met the requirements for the labour market (Table 5.23). This can be attributed to the inadequate training of basic language skills, which maybe the vestige to the earlier stages of learning (Lin & Chu, 1999a; 1999b; Shih, Su & Lin, 1998, Section 3.7.2), though of which courses have been emphasised (Table 2.3). Apparently, the courses provided in the DAFL-E/DAE serve the needs of the industry, but students' achievement is inadequate to meet the requirements of the job market.

### **6.12. Students' English Performance**

In respect of views of students' English performance, in terms of four language skills, i.e. listening, speaking, reading and writing, there appear to be some discrepancy among the HODs, teachers and students. All HODs considered that students can master reading skills the best and speaking skills the worst (Table 5.38). Five of the eight teachers regarded reading skills as best mastered, while an equal number of teaches thought writing skills are most difficult (Table 5.48). In contrast, students deemed the greatest difficulty in learning English to be listening (45.5 percent), followed in descending order of difficulty by speaking, writing and reading (Table 5.8). In conclusion, the HODs, teachers and students agreed that reading is the skill students master the best. However, there were diverse opinions concerning the area where most difficulty is encountered in learning English. The HODs and teachers attribute the students' unsatisfactory performance in English to the following reasons (Tables 5.38 and 5.48):

- Lack of an English environment.
- Lack of confidence in using the language, and resulting in reluctance to speak English.
- Not "thinking" in English.

Regarding the courses of Basic Language Skills offered in the 5-year junior college, reading-related courses have been offered the most (25.5 percent), followed by listening & speaking (18.5 percent) and writing courses (12 percent) (Table 2.3). This probably explains why students master reading skills the best. However, according to the survey of Shih et al. (1998, Section 3.7.6), as to applicability of language skills to the job market, listening and speaking skills in business communication and negotiation are rated the highest. Students are aware of their weaknesses (Table 5.8). Hence, when designing courses, reinforcement of students' capability in listening and speaking should be borne in mind.

### **6.13. English Proficiency Qualifications**

In the Final Report of CER (1996), encouraging students to have certification and recognising it as equivalent to a diploma is suggested (Section 1.4.2 and 1.4.5). Many researchers indicated the significance of implementation of an English Proficiency Certificate, although it is not a requirement of the DAFL-E/DAE for graduation (Shih, Su & Lin, 1998, Section 3.7.5). The external expert suggested that obtaining certain levels of certificate should be made a requirement for students' completion of their study, by legal regulations (Section 5.4, Q.10).

In the interviews with the HODs (Table 5.36), all of them pointed out that no English Proficiency Qualification test has been made compulsory and three of the four admitted that no evaluations of students' English Proficiency are available.

H1 explained,

*We are not yet able to make English Proficiency Test compulsory, partially because it is not legitimate and we also worry about students' incapability to pass the test to graduate.*



As explained at Section 3.7.5, instead of the tests being organised by each institution, several English proficiency tests held by agencies are popularly employed in Taiwan as the qualifications of English proficiency. Though an English Proficiency Test is not required, to encourage students to obtain qualifications, each institution has alternatives. Offering the prerequisite or supplemental courses in preparing English Proficiency Test is one of them (Table 5.36). However, only 1.70 percent of graduation credits are for English Proficiency Test Preparation related courses in the 5-year junior college programmes, and 1.29 percent in 2-year institute of technology programmes (Tables 2.4 and 2.5). Not surprisingly, 42 percent of students were disappointed with the Department in terms of the help with obtaining an English Proficiency Certificate, yet, 32 percent were satisfied. It is worth mentioning that a considerable number (25.7 percent) of students did not express their views on this matter (Table 5.22). It depends on how much assistance or what supplemental courses are provided by each institution.

#### **6.14. Industrial Placement**

To integrate theory and practice, for TVE in particular, students' professional placement is necessary. However, the implementation of this principle is not successful (Section 3.7.7). The HODs stressed the difficulties as follows (Table 5.37).

- Inasmuch as industrial placement is neither mandatory nor credited in the courses, students have little interest in such arrangement.
- There are limited opportunities to arrange work placement of business or secretarial jobs, compared with engineering related ones.
- The 5-year/ 2-year junior college students, who are preparing for exams to enable them to progress to further study, lack interest in work placement. The 2-year

institute of technology students are busy with final projects. “It is difficult to arrange industrial placement in such a short programme”, said H3.

- There is a lack of support from institutional authority.

Not surprisingly, 28.9 percent of students were neither satisfied nor dissatisfied with industrial placement and educational cooperation with local business agencies. Another 48.7 percent were dissatisfied (Table 5.21). It implies that either students were unaware of the value of industrial placement or that insufficient assistance was provided by the Department in this respect. The external expert shared the similar views to this matter. In the absence of links between academic and practical training, students lack basic competencies. Business agencies showed no interest in educational cooperation because the extra supervision had to be provided and no such culture has been formed. Moreover, he warned that students might become cheap labour if the arrangement is not appropriately supervised (Section 5.4, Q.11 and Q.12).

The importance of industrial placement should be highlighted to the students so they will experience the environment of a real work place and the importance of English proficiency. Furthermore, H4 suggested that the institutional authority, instead of each Department, should play the leading role in educational cooperation with the local industry.

This chapter has drawn conclusions from the findings that emerged from the fieldwork surveys. The next chapter will open with a summary of these conclusions and link them to recommendations for the attention of the policy makers.

## CHAPTER SEVEN

### CONCLUSIONS AND COMMENTS

This chapter poses a number of conclusions reached in the light of the analysis discussed in the previous chapter by considering the Research Questions outlined at Section 4.3, gives a summary of analysis of findings in the form of answers to the Research Questions, and makes recommendations. Suggestions for further research and the limitations of this study are also discussed. References are given to the appropriate sections of Chapter 6 where findings are considered.

#### **7.1. Summary of Analysis of the Findings**

##### **7.1.1. Research Question 1: What are the objectives and distinguishing features of the DAFL-E/DAE? Are they attainable? Are they realistic?**

- The objectives of the DAFL-E/DAE are predetermined to equip students with an intermediate to advanced level of English proficiency and with sufficient knowledge of foreign languages, business and computer to serve the needs of the labour market. Primarily, these objectives and accordingly the course design are preparing students for the work force immediately after graduation. However, most students aspire to continuing study.
- With respect to the distinguishing features of the DAFL-E/DAE, they are not prominently distinctive from the English Departments in the general universities. Meanwhile, course design lacks distinctive specifications to serve the various demands of the job market.

Therefore, the objectives and distinguishing features of the DAFL-E/DAE are neither attainable nor realistic (Section 6.1).

### **7.1.2. Research Question 2: How has employment policy been modified in the DAFL-E/DAE of four selected institutions?**

To accommodate the contemporary social, economical transformation in Taiwan, upgrading the 5-year/ the 2-year junior colleges to the 2-year/ four-year institutes/ universities of technology has become standard educational policy. Accordingly, to comply not only with the current situation but also the regulations of the MOE, employment policy has changed with a high demand for those who have a Doctoral degree or are Doctorate candidates. However, most teachers who have at least a Master's degree, are under tremendous pressure and do not agree with this employment policy, neither do the Heads of Department (HODs) and the external expert. The reasons advanced are as follows.

- Teachers' specialisation and practical (business) experience should be emphasised, instead of academic degrees.
- The requirement for a higher degree in the TVE system is the same as for the GE system. In other words, the features of the former are not distinct from the latter.
- It is difficult to hire teachers with both a Doctorate degree and academic and vocational specialisation.

(Section 6.2)

### **7.1.3. Research Question 3: Is the 5-year junior college programme going to be discontinued?**

Junior colleges have demonstrated a stabilising influence on Taiwanese education, business and commercial life and responded to the market needs for a basic-skilled and trained labour force. However, their importance has been diminishing. In view of the upgrading of most junior colleges, discontinuing the 5-

year junior college programmes appears to be a trend, following policy guidelines.

The reasons are as follows:

- Insufficient number of students for junior colleges programmes.
- Managerial problems due to provision of too many course levels (5-year/ 2-year junior college and 2-year/4-year institute/ university of technology) in one institution.
- Neglecting the shortage of basic-skilled labour force.

However, carefully evaluation of policy of discontinuing the 5-year junior college programmes is vital. The reasons are:

- Teachers' employment dilemma due to reduction in number of classes.
- As far as foreign languages learning is concerned, the 5-year junior college programme provides a longer, more complete and consistent programme.

(Section 6.3)

#### **7.1.4. Research Question 4: What are the Heads of Department and teachers' views towards ESP?**

- The HODs and teachers are not familiar with the definition or concept of ESP. However, they considered the purposes of ESP are served. The course design, elective courses in particular, which feature ESP, has been directed properly.
- The HODs and teachers put more emphasis on General English, rather than ESP, namely Business English. They consider that General English courses should be the basis and supplemented with business knowledge.

(Section 6.4.2)

**7.1.5. Research Question 5: How has teachers' professional development been implemented in the DAFL-E/DAE? Have teachers been adequately trained to teach ESP, Business English in particular?**

- Limited channels are provided for teachers' professional development. The overloaded teaching and administrative work and insufficient financial support have deterred teachers from attending training courses.
- ESP has been neglected.
- No in-service ESP training courses are available, especially for business purposes. With insufficient business background and teacher training, qualified teachers to teach ESP are lacking. Though teachers possess postgraduate degrees and are experienced in teaching EFL/ESL, they have not been adequately trained to teach ESP, or more particularly Business English.

(Section 6.5)

**7.1.6. Research Question 6: What is the role of the ESP teacher?**

***Subject Teacher vs. English Language Teacher***

It is difficult to define teachers from the DAFL-E/DAE who are teaching Business English as either Business teachers or English teachers. Teachers have diverse opinions regarding who is better qualified to teach ESP, in this study, BE; the subject teacher or language teacher. Though many researchers viewed Business English trainer as primarily a language teacher and stressed that ESP pedagogy must be secondary to ELT, this separation is not necessary. The writer argues that to teach Business English or business-related English courses, English teachers with adequate knowledge of business are better qualified than business teachers with satisfactory command of English (Section 6.6.1).

### ***Team Teaching***

Whereas team teaching is viewed as the solution to the teaching problem of language teachers and the knowledge of specific content, there is almost no such structure available in the cohort of institutions surveyed. However, some form of subject-language integration is employed (Section 6.6.2).

### ***Native vs. Non-native English Speaking Teacher***

- Whilst the advantages of native English speaking teachers in helping students with English speaking are recognised, there are disadvantages of not being able to use the mother tongue (Mandarin Chinese) to explain or translate terminology and lexical terms. Additionally, native English speakers lack understanding of the local culture, which is the strength of non-native English speaking teachers.
- Institutions have different policies for employing native English speaking teachers. Financial budget and employment availability are the major concerns, influencing employment practice.

(Section 6.6.3)

### ***Language Laboratory and Educational Technology Aids***

- Language laboratories are not used frequently. The reasons relate to the subjects taught, i.e. business-related courses, which involve more writing activity, insufficient facilities and difficulties of laboratory session arrangement.
- The most frequently used educational technology aid is TV/VCR, followed by OHP, CD player and computer.

(Section 6.6.4)

### ***Students' Learning Achievement Evaluation***

- Different types of on-going evaluation are undertaken throughout the semester. Written tests and assignments are the preferred evaluations, followed by quizzes, listening comprehension and oral tests.
- With insufficient background knowledge, students have difficulties in listening to the news (Journalism English) and business jargon (Business English).
- The amount of writing activity involved in Business English and other writing subject courses makes marking a heavy duty for teachers.

(Section 6.6.5)

### ***Course Design Involvement and Business Activities***

- Classroom teachers are not actively involved in course design for the DAFL-E/DAE, but have to take responsibility for planning their teaching subjects.
- Insufficient business activities are incorporated in business-related courses.
- There is insufficient support from the Institutional authority in arranging business activities.

(Section 6.6.6)

### **7.1.7. Research Question 7: What are students' attitudes and views towards the DAFL-E/DAE and their future employment?**

#### ***Students' Attitudes towards the DAFL-E/DAE***

Students are satisfied with the facilities of language labs and class sizes of the Department. However, students are not satisfied with elective, business and remedial English courses, and do not consider that they meet their needs and are helpful with their future employment, nor are they satisfied with teaching materials, coherence of course design, help with obtaining English Proficiency Qualification and educational



cooperation with the industry. The reasons with regard to the courses offered can be concluded as:

- The choices of elective courses are very limited.
- Business courses only take 9 percent and 18 percent respectively of total credits of graduation in the 5-year junior college and the 2-year institute of technology programmes.
- Students are admitted into the DAFL-E/DAE with diverse English proficiency levels and various academic subjects, qualifications gained before they entered the course. Moreover, remedial English courses are only available at Institutions B and C.

(Section 6.7.2)

### ***Students' Views to Future Employment***

A high percentage of the 5-year and the 2-year junior college students tend to move on to further studies, while 71 percent of the 2-year institute of technology students would like to find a job after graduation. Students show strong interest in an office job in both the public sectors and private business companies. What is worth mentioning is the fact that the 2-year junior college students are interested in English teaching (Section 6.7.3).

#### **7.1.8. Research Question 8: How is English used as the target language?**

Teachers reported difficulties in using English in class continuously, with particular emphasis on students' low motivation and inability to understand lexical terms in English. Students admitted that the target language is underused in the classroom, neither is an English learning environment adequately provided (Section 6.8).

**7.1.9. Research Question 9: How are teaching materials selected? Are they ready-made or learner-tailored?**

Teachers are responsible for selecting their own teaching materials for the subjects they teach. The availability of selections in GEP is greater than ESP, though there is little distinction between them. The HODs and teachers tend to use ready-made textbooks and supplement these with learner-tailored handouts. The suitability of the contents of business-related textbooks is a matter of concern, in terms of cultural compatibility. Some materials found in Taiwan are written for the ESL situation and lack localised content (Section 6.9).

**7.1.10. Research Question 10: Does course design of the DAFL-E/DAE have coherence between different course levels, in terms of the 5-year/ the 2-year junior college and the 2-year institute of technology programmes?**

The HODs, teachers and students consider course design as incoherent. Much of the course content of the 5-year/ 2-year junior college and the 2-year institute of technology programmes overlaps. Teaching materials are repeated and the contents of some higher level programmes are easier than low-level ones (Section 6.10).

**7.1.11. Research Question 11: Do business-related English courses meet the learners' present and future needs?**

Though needs analysis is not formally and regularly carried out, half of the HODs and teachers consider that course design has served the needs for students to some extent. The other groups of HODs and teachers do not agree with this. Students are disappointed and disagree that courses offered by the DAFL-E/DAE are

helpful for their future employment. The reasons are:

- Most students are keen on further study, and some are interested in English teaching, but the Department does not prepare them for it.
- The large number of compulsory credits required by the MOE in the 5-year junior college programmes has restricted the autonomy to design courses to serve students' needs.
- There is insufficient contact with graduates to formulate an understanding of students' needs at work places.

(Section 6.11.1)

#### **7.1.12. Research Question 12: Does course design of the DAFL-E/DAE serve the needs of industry?**

From previous research, Basic English Language Skills and Second Foreign Languages are in high demand by industry. The DAFL-E/DAE has provided adequate courses of this type. Although the HODs deem courses to meet the needs for local industry to some extent, students' achievement is inadequate to meet the requirements of job places (Section 6.11.2).

#### **7.1.13. Research Question 13: Does the English proficiency of students meet the requirements of the labour market?**

- With respect to students' English proficiency in language skills of listening, speaking, reading and writing, the HODs, teachers and students all agree that reading skills are mastered the most successfully. However, there is a discrepancy, regarding students' difficulties in learning English. The HODs consider speaking

skill and teachers deem writing skill to be the worst, whilst students think listening skills are the most difficult (Section 6.12).

- The HODs, teachers and students are not confident that students' English proficiency has met the requirements of the labour market, in terms of needs for the industry, with regard to listening and speaking skills in particular. There is evidence of inadequate training in basic language skills, which can be traced back to the earlier stages of learning. The courses provided by the DAFL-E/DAE might be in the line with the needs for industry, but students' English proficiency achievement is not satisfactory (Section 6.11.2 and 6.12).

**7.1.14. Research Question 14: How does the DAFL-E/DAE of four selected institutions prepare students obtaining an English Proficiency Qualification?**

An English proficiency test is neither made compulsory nor a part of the graduation requirements for the students. However, institutions encourage students to take part in English proficiency tests held by agencies and there are deemed as providing an English Proficiency Qualification. The DAFL-E/DAE of Institution B, C, and D has alternative plans for offering English Proficiency Test Preparation courses to prepare students to obtain an English Proficiency Qualification (Section 6.13).

**7.1.15. Research Question 15: What challenges are encountered with regard to cooperative education with local business agencies in terms of industrial placement?**

*The Department's concerns are:*

- There are limited opportunities of such arrangements in business-related jobs.

- The support from institutional authorities is insufficient.

***Students' concerns are:***

- Because industrial placement is neither mandatory nor credited, students lack interest in following such placements.
- Students are busy either preparing for exams for continuing study or the final graduation project, and so have limited interest in a placement.
- There is a lack of recognition of the importance of industrial placement with respect to students' future employment.

***The Industry's concerns are***

- Extra supervision needs to be provided.
- No culture linking business courses and placement has been formed

(Section 6.14).

### **7.1.16. General Conclusion**

The DAFL-E/DAE courses reviewed in the four institutions have not fully achieved their goals, nor have the purposes of ESP been realised. ESP needs to be emphasised and teacher training to teach ESP needs to be developed. The preparation of students for their present and future needs in employment is not adequate. Teaching, teaching materials, course design, English Proficiency Qualification and Industrial Placement have to be enhanced. Overall, ESP should be incorporated in business courses offered in the four institutions. In this way, students' English competence performance and business-related knowledge can be achieved satisfactorily and contribute to the industry's needs, and implement the ultimate goals of Technological and Vocational Education.

## **7.2. Recommendations**

As the consequence of these findings, the writer presents recommendations as guidance for the consideration of those making provision concerning English for Specific Purposes. The recommendations that follow are by topic and set out under relevant headings, with references relating to the headings of Section 7.1. Those recommendations which apply to four selected institutions only are identified by the institutional codes (A, B, C, D) used throughout this study. Those for implementation at a particular level are referred to the Ministry of Education (MOE).

### **7.2.1. Department**

- Clear goals of the DAFL-E/DAE should be set as the guideline for course design. Students can be divided into two groups according to their immediate aim after graduation; one for further study, one for employment. Thus, goals can be practically implemented (A, B, C, D) (Section 7.1.1).
- Employment policy needs to be more practically based. When recruiting new teachers, more weight should be put on their relevant training and experiences from industry, instead of academic degree alone (MOE) (Section 7.1.2).
- The 5-year junior college programme can be incorporated into the institute/university of technology to form a flexible educational system (B, C, D) (Section 7.1.3).
- ESP should be developed in accordance with distinctive features of each institution, i.e. English for business, nursing, medicine, pharmacy purposes, etc. (A, B, C, D) (Section 7.1.4).

- Teachers' load of administrative work should be lessened (A) and a planned reduction of class size, particularly in writing classes, should be implemented in course design (C) (Sections 7.1.5 and 7.1.6).
- Apart from issues of financial concern, the needs of students should be taken into account. Of particular importance, are measures for employing native English speaking teachers (A) and the offer of more elective (A, C, D), and remedial courses (A, D) (Section 7.1.6 and 7.1.7).
- Communication and cooperation between department and institutional authority should be more smooth and intensive in arranging business activities (B, C, D) (Section 7.1.6).
- More appreciable administrative and financial support for teaching and learning should be made available (A, B, C, D) (Section 7.1.6 and 7.1.15).

### **7.2.2. Teachers**

- By following self-development courses, teachers should be enabled to gain more confidence in using English as the target language in class (A, B, C, D)(Section 7.1.8).
- The mother tongue should be used sparingly in the classroom to explain terminology (A, B, C, D) (Section 7.1.8).
- Teachers should be more closely involved in curriculum planning in the DAFL-E/DAE, operating in liaison with Heads of the Department (A, B, C, D)(Section 7.1.6).
- More business activities should be arranged and incorporated in course design (A, B, C, D) (Section 7.1.6).

- When selecting teaching materials, local features, particularly facets of regionally based industry should be considered (A, B, C, D) (Section 7.1.9).

### **7.2.3. Teacher Training**

- ESP needs to be emphasised (A, B, C, D).
- ESP in-service training needs to be implemented, not only in specific subjects to improve teachers' performance in English, with particular emphasis given to oral competence (A, B, C, D).
- ESP training programmes can be provided by the universities of technology and offered as an emphasis within a Doctorate degree (B).

(Section 7.1.5)

### **7.2.4. Team Teaching**

- Team teaching should be introduced for the support of English teachers and to alleviate subject teachers' deficiency (A, B, C, D).
- English and Business Departments should come together to identify disparities in provisions, and discuss common priorities (A, B, C, D).

(Section 7.1.6)

### **7.2.5. Course Design**

- A long-term, on-going curriculum planning committee should be brought into existence in all institutions (A, B, C) (Section 7.1.6).



- English teaching courses should be sufficiently included in the curriculum to accommodate students' needs (A, B, C, D) (Section 7.1.7).
- When designing courses within institutions, coordination between teachers should be a priority to avoid overlapping in the content and selection of resources (B, C) (Section 7.1.10).
- The course at first year of the 2-year institute of technology programmes can repeat the final year of the 5-year/2-year junior college programmes to provide students from diverse educational background with more equal English competence (B, C, D) (Section 7.1.10).

#### **7.2.6. Students**

- Students' subject knowledge of business should be strengthened (A, B, C, D) (Section 7.1.6).
- Students' English capability in listening and speaking, which are identified as weaknesses but are highly demanded by industry, should be reinforced (A, C, D) (Section 7.1.13).

#### **7.2.7. Needs Analysis**

- Needs Analysis of students and industry should be carried out on a long-term, on-going basis, such as an investigation of levels of competence of students in English at the point of registration and graduation as guidance towards course design (A, B, C, D).
- When designing courses, opinions of business leaders should be included to understand their needs to students. (A, B, C, D).  
(Section 7.1.11)

### **7.2.8. English Proficiency Qualification**

- An English Proficiency Qualification should be implemented into course structure and made it a mandatory requirement for graduation (MOE) (Section 7.1.14).

### **7.2.9. Industrial Placement**

- Industrial placement should be mandated as part of the required credits (MOE).
- Students' awareness of the importance of industrial placement needs to be emphasised (A, B, C, D).
- Instead of individual teachers and Departments, the institutional authority should play the leading role in educational cooperation with local industry (A, B, C, D).  
(Section 7.1.15)

### **7.3. Suggestions for Further Research**

The writer suggests that further research can be conducted in the following areas:

- An in depth of study of the needs of business in respect of English should be investigated.
- Selected fieldwork to consist of interviews with graduates and industrial employers can be conducted as a method of evaluating course design.

### **7.4. Limitations of Study**

Due to the recent establishment of the DAFL-E/DAE, there were not enough graduates employed in the industry to seek both sides of their views on the research questions. Therefore, the survey did not include the work experience of graduates and their employers in the work places.

## **7.5. Final Statement**

This study has been carried out with a view to investigating the methods employed to further learning in English for Specific Purposes, with particular reference to Departments of Applied Foreign Languages-English situated in four Taiwanese institutions. The research conducted was intended to be of benefit to policy makers within those institutions, and the general issues identified serve as a stimulant to all concerned with English for Specific Purposes, notably Business English. Easier liaison between industry and those responsible for course design can aid a strong and secure industrial base locally, regionally and nationally and thus improve the quality of life of the workforce and its dependants. Thus, it is hoped that this study can contribute in some measure to the process of economic regeneration underpinning the development of Taiwanese society.

The focus has chosen themes that seem worthy of investigation with four institutions; a junior college, two institutes of technology and one university of technology, but the recommendations are suitable for the scrutiny and selective implementation, according to context in all Taiwanese institutions operating within this sector of educational provision. Chapter 3 noted relevant researches the areas of ESP, Business English and Taiwanese studies, which were compared in Chapter 6 with the results of the fieldwork conducted by the writer. I hope that this study will be viewed as making a significant contribution within the field of ESP, both in Taiwan and in the wider international community.

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## *APPENDIX 1*

### *Cover Letter to the Students and Students' Questionnaire (In English and Chinese)*

*November, 2001*

*Dear Students,*

*The attached questionnaire is part of my study for the degree of Doctor of Education at Hull University, UK. The study is to investigate the development of English for Specific Purposes (ESP) in business, in terms of the curriculum design and English teaching in the Department of Applied Foreign Languages-English (DAFL-E/DAE) of four technological and vocational institutions located in different regions of Taiwan.*

*As your views in this respect are very important, please take some of your time to complete this questionnaire as accurately and objectively as possible.*

*Your response will be treated strictly confidentially and anonymously. The information collected will be used for the purpose of this study only.*

*Thank you for your cooperation!*

*Sincerely,*

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*Hsiu-Hui Su (Patricia)*

*Ed.D Candidate*

*University of Hull*

*UK*

## Students' Questionnaire

**Please read the questionnaire carefully and respond to all items.**  
請仔細閱讀問卷，並回答所有問題。

**Do not hesitate to ask about any item that is not clear to you.**  
如有任何題目不清楚，請儘量發問。

***Instructions: Please tick (✓) the appropriate box (es) for each question.***  
**說明：請於每題適當空格內打勾(✓)。**

1. Sex: 性

Male 男性

Female 女性

2. Age: 年齡 \_\_\_\_\_

3. Course Levels:

5-year junior college (五專)

2-year junior college (二專)

2-year institute of technology (二技)

4-year institute/ university of technology (四技)

4. The second foreign languages you have taken: (Tick one or more.)

您曾修過(含目前正在修)的第二外國語：(可勾選一個以上)

Japanese 日語

Spanish 西班牙語

German 德語

French 法語

Others: 其他：\_\_\_\_\_

5. The reasons you chose the vocational junior college, institute/university of technology (Tick one or more.)

您選擇就讀職業專科學校的原因：(可勾選一個以上)

For my own interests.

為自己的興趣。

At my family's wish.

因家人的期望。

On the advice of friends or teachers.

因朋友或師長的建議。

Because I didn't pass the Joint High School/ University Entrance Examination.

因我沒有通過高中/大學聯考。

- I think I can obtain more practical business knowledge and training than at general college/university.

我認爲可以比一般大專院校更可獲得較實際的商業知識與訓練。

Other (please be specific) \_\_\_\_\_  
其他 (請明確寫出)

6. The reasons you chose the Department of Applied Foreign Languages-English (DAFL-E/DAE). (Tick one or more.)

您選擇就讀應用外(英)語科(系)的原因：(可勾選一個以上)

- For my own interests.  
爲自己的興趣。
- At my family's wish.  
因家人的期望。
- On the advice of friends or teachers.  
因朋友或師長的建議。
- To enhance my English proficiency.  
加強英語能力。
- I think the knowledge and training from DAFL-E can help me to obtain a better job after graduation.  
因我認爲應用外(英)語科(系)所獲得的知識與訓練有助於在畢業後找到較好的工作。

Other (please be specific) \_\_\_\_\_  
其他 (請明確寫出)

7. What do you want to do after graduation?

您畢業後想做什麼？

- Continue further study domestically.  
繼續在國內深造。
- Study abroad.  
出國深造。
- Find a job.  
找工作。

8. Where do you want to work after graduation?

您畢業後想在哪儿工作？

- In the public sector.  
公家機構。
- In private-sector business companies.  
私人公司。
- In public schools.  
公立學校。
- In private schools/ language institutes.  
私立學校/外語中心。

Self-employed.

自行創業。

Other (please be specific) \_\_\_\_\_

其他（請明確寫出）

9. How often do you expect to use English at work after graduation?

您認為畢業後在職場上，使用英語的機會如何？

Often

經常會有。

Sometimes

偶而會有。

Seldom

很少會有。

Never

不會有。

10. What is the area where you have encountered most difficulties in learning English?

您在學習英文時，遇到最大的困難是什麼？

Listening 聽

Speaking 說

Reading 讀

Writing 寫

11. To what extent do you agree with the following statements in the light of course design? 就課程設計而言，您對以下陳述同意程度為何？

Statements 陳述	Strongly Agree 非常同意	Agree 同意	Don't Know 不知道	Disagree 不同意	Strongly Disagree 非常不同意
a.) The elective courses offered in the DAFL-E/DAE are adequate. 應用外（英）語科（系）開有足夠的選修課。					
b.) The business courses offered in the DAFL-E/DAE are adequate. 應用外（英）語科（系）開有足夠的商業課程。					
c.) The remedial English courses are adequate. 有足夠的英語輔導課程。					
d.) English used in the class as the target language is adequate. 在課堂上有使用足夠的英語。					
e.) Business-related English courses should be taught by English teachers with adequate knowledge of business. 商業類科英語課程應由具備足夠商業知識的英文老師擔任。					

Statements 陳述	Strongly Agree 非常同意	Agree 同意	Don't Know 不知道	Disagree 不同意	Strongly Disagree 非常不同意
f.) Business-related English courses should be taught by Business teachers with adequate command of English. 商業類科英語課程應由具備足夠英語能力的商科老師擔任。					
g.) The English teaching materials are satisfactory. 我滿意教學使用的英語教材。					
h.) The facilities of the language labs are satisfactory. 我滿意語言教室的設備。					
i.) The class size is satisfactory. 我滿意班級人數多寡。					
j.) The business-related English courses offered in the DAFL-E/DAE meet my needs. 應用外（英）語科（系）所開的商業課程符合我的需要。					
k.) The courses offered in the DAFL-E/ DAE are helpful to my future employment. 應用外（英）語科（系）所開的課程對我日後找工作有幫助。					
l.) The course design of the DAFL-E/ DAE is coherent between different course levels. 應用外（英）語科（系）於各階段所開課程有一貫銜接。					
m.) Industrial placement and educational cooperation with local business agencies is satisfactory. 我滿意應用外（英）語科（系）所安排與廠商的建教合作計畫。					
n.) The help provided by the DAFL-E/DAE obtain English Proficiency Certificate is satisfactory. 我滿意應用外（英）語科（系）幫助我取得英語能力證書。					
o.) I believe my English proficiency meets the requirements of the labour market. 我相信我的英語能力已符合就業市場要求。					

12. Please use the space below if you have any comments or suggestions not covered by this questionnaire.

除以上問卷，如您有其他任何意見與建議，請寫於以下空白中。

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*Thank you very much for completing this questionnaire.*

非常謝謝您填寫這份問卷。

## **APPENDIX 2**

### ***Cover Letter and Interview Protocol for Heads of the Department of Applied Foreign Languages-English (In English and Chinese)***

*November, 2001*

*Dear Head of Applied Foreign Languages (English) Department (DAFL-E/DAE):*

*I, Hsiu-Hui Su (Patricia) would like to conduct a research fieldwork with your assistance and participation.*

*I am currently a research student, pursuing the degree of Doctor of Education with Mr. K. Brookes at the University of Hull, Institute of Learning, UK. This fieldwork is mainly designed to investigate the development of English for Specific Purposes (ESP) in business, in terms of the curriculum design and English teaching in the Department of Applied Foreign Languages-English (DAFL-E/DAE) of four technological and vocational institutions located in different regions of Taiwan.*

*The fieldwork will be conducted by means of interview and questionnaire. The participants will be the Head of the Department, two teachers who are teaching business-related English in the DAFL-E/DAE, and final year students at each course level available within the institution, in terms of the 5-year/ 2-year junior college, 2-year institute/ university of technology programmes.*

*The schedule for the visit includes two parts. First, I will interview you concerning your personal experiences of the current situation of the DAFL-E/DAE and the challenges you have encountered. The interviews with teachers will concern their teaching experience, and the difficulties they have encountered. In the second part of the visit, I will conduct a survey with the students. The interview might take you and the teachers one and a half hours each. The questionnaire distributed to the classes would take 30 minutes to one hour.*

*Please find enclosed the protocols for interviews with you and the teachers, and the questionnaire for the students and one self-stamped addressed envelope. Please confirm the most appropriate time to visit by completing a simple form enclosed; and return it to me no later than \_\_\_\_\_ or contact me with the numbers and e-mail address provided below. Your assistance will be greatly appreciated.*

*Your views in this respect are of great importance and would be a valuable contribution to this work. If you have any questions or comments regarding this research, please feel free to contact me. Thank you very much in advance for your kind cooperation.*

*All information collected will be treated strictly confidentially; the interview and questionnaire are anonymous and will be used for the purpose of this study only.*

*Sincerely,*

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*Hsiu-Hui Su (Patricia)*

*(Pre-Head of Applied Foreign Languages Department of Ging-Chung Business College)*

*Ed.D Candidate*

*University of Hull*

*UK*



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 Please tick the most appropriate time/day for my visit. Then detach this form and return it with the self-stamped addressed envelope provided no later than \_\_\_\_\_.

Thank you!

Remark: If necessary, the fieldwork can take more than one visit.

Name of the Institution: \_\_\_\_\_

Name of the Head of DAFL-E/DAE: \_\_\_\_\_

	Monday	Tuesday	Wednesday	Thursday	Friday
8:00					
9:00					
10:00					
11:00					
12:00	Lunch				
13:00					
14:00					
15:00					
16:00					

## **Interview Protocol for the Heads of Department of Applied Foreign Languages-English (DAFL-E/DAE)**

### **Start**

1. Explain the purpose and methods of conducting this research.  
解釋研究進行的目的與方法。
2. Emphasise confidentiality.  
強調保密性。
3. Seek permission to use tape recorder.  
徵求同意錄音。

### **Background**

1. Your educational and professional background and years in your current position.  
您的學經歷背景與擔任目前職位的年資。

### **Opinions**

1. What are the objectives and distinguishing features of the Department?  
貴科（系）的目標與特色是什麼？
2. Please explain the current situation of the Department in terms of different course levels (5-year/2-year junior college, 2-year/4-year institute/university of technology), number of classes, students and teachers.  
請說明貴科（系）目前的狀況，各階段（五專、二專、二技、四技）班級、學生、教師人數。
3. How does your college/university prepare its teachers for college upgrade in terms of employment policy?  
為學校升格，就教師聘任政策而言，貴校如何因應？
4. How does your department prepare teachers for college upgrade in terms of in-service training, further study or professional development?  
為學校升格，貴科（系）教師如何因應；在職訓練，進修，或學習第二專長？
5. Is the 5-year junior college programme going to be discontinued? If yes, or if they already have been, please explain the reasons and the effects.  
貴科（系）五專，二專是否打算停招？如是，或已經停招，請說明原因及其影響。

6. To what extent do you understand English for Specific Purpose (ESP)?  
您對“專技英文”了解多少？
7. Does the course design of DAFL-E serve the purposes of ESP? Please explain.  
以哪方面而言，貴科（系）課程設計有/沒有助於達到“專技英文”的目標？
8. To what extent have the objectives of the ESP courses offered at this department been achieved?  
貴科（系）所提供“專技英文”課程目標已達成多少？
9. Is course design coherent between different course levels (5-year/2-year junior college, 2-year institute of technology)? Why?  
不同階段（五專，二專，二技）課程設計有一貫銜接嗎？
10. Does the DAFL-E/DAE carry out a students' needs analysis? If yes, were these needs been taken into consideration when courses were designed?  
貴科（系）有針對學生做需求分析嗎？如有，當設計課程時，這些需求有列入考慮嗎？
11. Does course design meet the needs of local industry? Give examples.  
課程設計，尤指選修課程的特色有符合地方企業的需求嗎？請舉例說明。
12. Do the business-related English courses and teaching materials meet the learners' present and future needs? Why?  
商業類科英語課程及教材符合學生現在與未來的需求嗎？為什麼？
13. Do you use English textbooks? If yes, are they ready-made or especially tailored for the students of the DAFL-E/DAE?  
您使用英語教科書嗎？如有，他們是現成的亦是特別為貴科（系）學生設計的？
14. Have you encountered any difficulties in selection of teaching materials?  
在選擇教材上，您有遇到任何困難嗎？
15. As far as English is concerned, do you focus on general English or business English? Why?  
在英文方面，您著重一般英文或是商業類科英文？
16. Besides the regular tests, how does the Department evaluate the students' English competence?  
除了一般的測驗，貴科（系）如何檢定學生英語能力？
17. How does the Department implement the English Proficiency Certificate System?  
貴科（系）如何實施英語證照制度？

18. What challenges have you encountered, regarding cooperation with local business agencies in terms of industrial placement?  
在學生實習方面，與廠商建教合作上，您有遇到困難嗎？
19. What language skills in terms of listening, speaking, reading, and writing in English, do students master the best or have the most difficulties with? Why?  
學生在英語聽、說、讀、寫技巧上，哪一項最好或最有困難？為什麼？
20. Do you think English proficiency levels of students meet the requirements of the labour market? Please explain.  
您認為貴科（系）畢業／即將畢業學生的英語能力已符合就業市場要求嗎？請解釋說明之。
21. What are the most significant challenges you have encountered in this Department?  
貴科（系）所面臨的最大挑戰為何？
21. Suggestions and comments.  
您的寶貴建議與意見。

***Thank you! 謝謝您！***

### *APPENDIX 3*

#### *Cover Letter and Interview Protocol for the Business English Teachers of Department of Applied Foreign Languages-English (In English and Chinese)*

*November, 2001*

*Dear Teachers of the Applied Foreign Languages (English) Department (DAFL-E/DAE):*

*I, Hsiu-Hui Su (Patricia) would like to conduct a research fieldwork with your assistance and participation.*

*I am currently a research student, pursuing the degree of Doctor of Education with Mr. K. Brookes at the University of Hull, Institute of Learning, UK. This fieldwork is mainly designed to investigate the development of English for Specific Purposes (ESP) in business, in terms of the curriculum design and English teaching in the Department of Applied Foreign Languages-English (DAFL-E/DAE) of four technological and vocational institutions located in different regions of Taiwan.*

*I would like to interview you with regard to your teaching experience and any difficulties you have encountered. The interview might take you one and a half hours or so. Your views in this respect are of great importance and would be a valuable contribution to this work. Thank you very much in advance for your kind cooperation.*

*All information collected will be treated strictly confidentially; the interview will be anonymous and will be used for the purpose of this study only.*

*Sincerely,*

---

*Hsiu-Hui Su (Patricia)*

*Ed.D Candidate*

*University of Hull*

*UK*

## **Interview Protocol for Business English Teachers of the Department of Applied Foreign Languages-English (DAFL-E/DAE)**

### **Start**

1. Explain the purpose and methods of conducting this research.  
解釋研究進行的目的與方法。
2. Emphasise the confidentiality.  
強調保密性。
3. Seek permission to use tape recorder.  
徵求同意錄音。

### **Background**

1. Your educational and professional background.  
您的學經歷背景。
2. The subjects you are teaching and specialise in.  
您所教的科目與專長。

### **Opinions**

1. How do you prepare yourself for college upgrade?  
為因應學校升格，您如何自我充實？
2. To what extent do you understand English for Specific Purposes (ESP)?  
您對“專技英文”了解多少？
3. Have you attended any General English or ESP training courses or conferences?  
When and where?  
您曾參加過一般英語或專技英語的訓練課程或研討會嗎？何時？在哪？
4. To what extent do the training courses or conferences help you in your ESP teaching techniques?  
這些訓練課程或研討會對您“專技英語”的教學技巧幫助有多少？
5. Which of the following do you think is appropriate? Why?  
以下哪一項您認為是適當的？為什麼？
  - a. Business-related English courses should be taught by English teachers with adequate knowledge of business.  
商業類科英語課程應由具備足夠商業知識的英文老師擔任。

b. Business-related English courses should be taught by business teachers with adequate command of English.

商業類科英語課程應由具備足夠英語能力的商科老師擔任。

6. Do business-related English courses and teaching materials meet the learners' present and future needs? Why?  
商業類科英語課程及教材符合學生現在與未來的需求嗎？為什麼？
7. As far as English is concerned, do you focus on General English or business-related English?  
在英文方面，您著重一般英文或是商業類科英文？
8. What language skills in terms of listening, speaking, reading, and writing do the students master the best or have the most difficulties with? Why?  
學生在英語聽、說、讀、寫技巧上，哪一項最好或最有困難？為什麼？
9. How often do you use English as the target language in the class?  
您在課堂上使用英語的情況如何？
10. How often do you use the language laboratory?  
您多久使用語言教室一次？
11. How often do you use educational technology aids? What are they? 您多久使用輔助器材一次？有哪些呢？
12. How do you evaluate students' learning achievement?  
您如何測驗學生學習狀況？
13. Which course design of the DAFL-E/DAE have you been involved with?  
您有參與應用外語科／系哪一方面課程設計？
14. Do you design business-related English courses with business activities?  
您有使用商業活動來設計商業課程？
15. Do you use English textbooks? If yes, are they ready-made or especially tailored for the students of the DAFL-E/DAE?  
您使用英語教科書嗎？如有，他們是現成的亦是特別為貴科（系）學生設計的？

16. Have you participated in selection of teaching material?  
您有參與選擇教材嗎？
17. Have you encountered any difficulties in selection of teaching material?  
您在選擇教材時，有遇到什麼困難嗎？
18. Do you think English proficiency levels of students meet the requirements of the labour market? Please explain.  
您認為貴科（系）學生的英語能力已符合就業市場要求嗎？請解釋說明之。
19. Suggestions and Comments.  
您的寶貴建議與意見。

*Thank you!*      謝謝您！



#### **APPENDIX 4**

##### ***Cover Letter and Interview Protocol for External Expert of Technological & Vocational Education (In English and Chinese)***

*November, 2001*

*Dear Sir:*

*I, Hsiu-Hui Su (Patricia) would like to conduct a research fieldwork with your assistance and participation.*

*I am currently a research student, pursuing the degree of Doctor of Education with Mr. K. Brookes at the University of Hull, Institute of Learning, UK. This fieldwork is mainly designed to investigate the development of English for Specific Purposes (ESP) in business, in terms of the curriculum design and English teaching in the Department of Applied Foreign Languages-English (DAFL-E/DAE) of four technological and vocational institutions located in different regions of Taiwan.*

*Because of your specialist knowledge, I would like to interview you with regard to your personal point of view about Technological & Vocational Education in Taiwan, and the difficulties that have occurred. The interview might take you one and a half hours or so. Please confirm the most appropriate time to visit by contacting me with the numbers and e-mail address provided below.*

*Your views in this respect are of great importance and would be a valuable contribution to this work. Thank you very much in advance for your kind cooperation.*

*All information collected will be treated strictly confidentially; the interview will be anonymous and will be used for the purpose of this study only.*

*Sincerely,*

---

*Hsiu-Hui Su (Patricia)*

*Ed.D Candidate*

*University of Hull*

*UK*

## **Interview Protocol for External Experts in the Technological & Vocational Education (TVE)**

### **Start**

1. Explain the purpose and methods of conducting this research.  
解釋研究進行的目的與方法。
2. Emphasise confidentiality  
強調保密性。
3. Seek permission to use tape recorder.  
徵求同意錄音。

### **Background**

1. Your educational and professional background and years in your current position.  
您的學經歷背景與擔任目前職位的年資。

### **Opinions**

1. In general, do most technological and vocational institutions develop their distinguishing features to comply with the needs of local industry? Please explain.  
一般而言，各技職院校都能因應地方需求，發展出其特色嗎？請解釋。
2. How do technological and vocational institutions prepare their teachers for college upgrade, in terms of employment policy?  
為學校升格，就教師聘任政策而言，個校如何因應？
3. What is the technological and vocational backgrounds of teachers in technological and vocational institutions?  
一般大專以上技職院校，教師技職背景如何？
4. What are the most significant challenges for teachers' professional training?  
教師進修管道，現存最嚴重的問題為何？
5. The 5-year junior college programme is going to be discontinued in most of the technological and vocational institutions. Please explain the reasons and the effects.  
多數學校的五專已打算停招。請說明原因及其影響。

6. How is course coherence achieved between different course levels (5-year/ 2-year junior college and 2-year institute of technology)? What are the difficulties you have encountered?

不同階段（五專，二專，二技）課程設計的一貫性實施狀況如何？目前面臨何種困難？

7. Do technological and vocational institutions carry out a students' needs analysis? If yes, were these needs taken into consideration when the courses were designed?

一般技職院校個科系有針對學生做需求分析嗎？如有，當設計課程時，這些需求有列入考慮嗎？

8. Does course design, for elective courses in particular meet the needs of local industry? Please give examples.

各科系在設計課程時，尤指選修課程，有符合地方企業的需求嗎？請舉例說明之。

9. Do the courses and teaching materials meet the learners' present and future needs?

其課程及教材符合學生現在與未來的需求嗎？為什麼？

10. How do the technological and vocational institutions implement the certification system? What are the difficulties they have encountered?

一般技職院校，如何落實證照制度？目前面臨何種困難？

11. What challenges do technological and vocational institutions encountered, regarding cooperation with local business agencies in terms of the students' practicum?

一般技職院校在學生實習方面，與廠商建教合作上，都遇到哪些困難？

12. Do you think the basic competencies of students meet the requirements of the labour market? Please explain.

一般技職院校學生的基本能力已符合就業市場要求嗎？請解釋說明之。

13. What are the most significant challenges facing Technological & Vocational Education in Taiwan?

目前台灣技職教育所面臨的最大挑戰為何？

14. Suggestions and comments.

您的寶貴建議與意見。

**Thank you! 謝謝您！**