Tunisian science and technology students' perceptions of ESP courses: a step towards a program design

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Abstract

For a number of years, there has been some concern about the status of English in the Tunisian higher education, especially for higher education students in the sciences and technology. This study analyzed the perceptions of students in the faculty of sciences of Monastir and the higher institute of technology of Jendouba, through questionnaires. The selected subjects were second and third year students. They believed that they needed both more English and a different type of English instruction than was currently available. In other words, they would need English instruction that is based on the theories and practices of the branch of English for Specific Purposes (ESP) known as English for Science and Technology (EST). The study concluded with a recommendation for a redesigned English curriculum for second and third year science and technology students, using a communicative approach.

1. Introduction

To many non-English speakers around the world, English has become more than another language one can learn or choose to ignore – it has become a vital tool for professional activities. For students of science or technology, it is learned not just as a subject but also for service (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987). In other words, it is not simply learned for the sake of learning, but for academic purposes, to perform professional activities, or for some other specific purpose.

The course of history has, with the advent of English imperialism, projected the English language to the forefront of international communication. The size of the former British empire, the weight of the United States of America in particular, but also some other Anglophone countries, have ultimately imposed the language as the world's number one lingua franca, including in the field of science and technology. There is no doubt English has become central to science at the global level, not least in education and particularly in higher

education even in countries with a long communication and literary tradition in a different language. This is because it has become instrumental to development (Dudley-Evans & St. John, 1998; Hutchinson & Waters, 1987; Samraj, 2002; Swales, 2004, 1990, and 1978; and Widdowson, 1983). For example, as early as 1978, Swales stressed the importance that English had for many Libyan subject matter students. "The faculties of Agriculture, Engineering and Science were English medium" (Swales, 1978, p. 43). This is because the majority of scientific activities – including journal publications and conferences – around the world are carried out in English. Before the 1990s and particularly after the world wars, "many premier European (and Japanese) journals had already begun a switch away from publishing articles in German, French, Dutch, Swedish, and Japanese to new editorial policies that increasingly required English for the language of publication" (Swales, 2004, p. 33).

A number of authors (Basturkmen, 2002; Burrough-Boenisch, 2003; Fuentes, 2000; Johns & Swales, 2002; Martinez, 2001; Moore, 2002; Rowley-Jolivet, 2002; Samraj, 2002; and Swales, 1990) discussed the patterns and contents of English language use in academic and professional contexts.

A qualitative study of the Tunisian university second- and third-year science and technology students' perceptions of the ESP courses is the focus of this paper. This study is based on data collected through questionnaires given to students.

2. English for Science and Technology (EST) discourse patterns

Language registers and codes and cultural behaviors are related to discourse communities. Marsh (2002) defined "discourses as frameworks for thought and action that groups of individuals draw upon in order to speak and interact with one another in meaningful ways" (p. 456). "[T]hey are historically, culturally, and socially generated patterns of thinking, speaking, acting, and interacting that are sanctioned by a particular group of people" (p. 456). Therefore, a community implies common participation and shared interest in a common world for mutual support and feedback. It is recognizable as a group of individuals sharing similar identity traits, which does not exclude participation in different discourse communities. The EST community is recognizable by their shared interests, their common involvement in science and/or technology, and their practice of scientific/technological discourse and activities. The needs of EST students in relation to the types of specialist discourse they require has been researched by a number of authors including Basturkmen (2002); Brown & Lewis (2003); Burrough-Boenisch (2003); Fuentes (2000); Hyland (2002); Martinez (2001);

Mavor & Trayner (2001); Rowley-Jolivet (2002); Soler (2002); Spector-Cohen et al. (2001) among others. They focused on aspects including discourse analysis, skills to develop, and even the necessary complementarity between disciplines (Mavor & Trayner, 2001) to determine ESP learners' needs. Most of these authors seem to have been influenced by Swales' *Genre Analysis* (1990), which deals with purpose and organization of text. Swales (1990, p. 45) explained that genre was formed by a body of communicative events, and that "a communicative event is one in which language and/or paralanguage plays both a significant and an indispensable role." He went on to say that it was shared purposes and the definitional and family resemblance approaches that made these approaches a genre, i.e. a conventional and identifiable discourse practice (pp. 46-54). The scientific/technical genres would include the nature and organization of words in scientific discourse (Soler, 2002), their representativeness and significance in scientific texts (Fuentes, 2000), the use of tenses (Burrough-Boenisch, 2003), language structures (Martinez, 2001), visual discourse in scientific conference papers (Rowley-Jolivet, 2002), analysis of features of sections of scientific journals (Hyland, 2002; Samraj, 2002), and workplace conversation 'attack skills' (Brown & Lewis, 2003). 'Attack skills' is a term Nuttall (1982), a reading specialist, has utilized to refer to the skills used to work out the meaning of a word or a longer piece of discourse.

Soler (2002) analyzed adjectives in scientific discourse and discovered "a clearly regular adjectival behaviour in the frequency [and distribution] of adjectives in the five selected articles" (p. 151). Soler recognized the emphasis put on studying the difference between adjectival morphology in English and Spanish, much of which is also found between English and French. Her discussion of the objectivity-subjectivity continuum is insightful in helping the learner identify where the communicator is merely trying to report facts (interpretation), or somehow appearing to report as an individual (evaluation). "This interpretation evaluation - certainty observational fidelity sequence seems to parallel the subjectivity objectivity continuum in scientific discourse, and adjectives seem to have a very important role in this respect." (Soler, 2002, p. 154)

However, she also pointed to the equal importance of dealing with "the role of adjectives as potentially meaningful linguistic items, showing the speaker's/writer's attitude towards the content presented" (p. 147). Here is a summary of the behavior of adjectives in scientific discourse as reported from the study of five advanced biochemistry texts: longer papers contained larger numbers of adjectives; the biggest number of adjectives, especially

predicatively used adjectives, was generally used in the discussion section; and attributive adjectives were much more frequently used than predicative ones. Soler therefore noted both the behavior and significance of adjectives as communicative tools for scientists and urged the inclusion of the study of their significance and function in addition to morphology, construction, and position, in English syllabi for scientists despite the relatively low representation of adjectives as compared to nouns and verbs. Beyond the specific language features, understanding the role of adjectives in relevant text types is essential for subject-specialist students to deal efficiently with the texts they are confronted with or are required to produce.

Looking at language features within specific registers is nonetheless important to comprehending language so as to devise efficient methods of paving the way to the practices of the targeted community of discourse. In this respect, Burrough-Boenisch (2003) examined the present tense conventions in scientific texts and found that the nonnative English speakers of her study used the present tense differently from the normal conventions of their scientific community where permanent and current state of facts is expressed in the present tense, and past processes and events in the past. This made it difficult for one accustomed to regular science English conventions to understand their writing. "There is scope for the misguided transfer of tense meaning [from mother tongue to English]" (Burrough-Boenisch, 2003, p. 7). Particularly relevant to this study is the influence of the present historic in languages such as French on Francophones and their interactions with English discourse (pp. 7-8). However, Burrough-Boenisch (2003) concluded that it was not clear when writing or reading scientific English, whether nonnative English speakers "rely on their L1 conceptualisation of temporality signal conveyed by tense" (p. 19) or "behave like NSs [native speakers] who use tense grammatically but 'unconventionally' and yet pass the scrutiny of journal editors and referees" (p. 19). In any case, the easiest way for writers to minimise miscommunication about the generality or specificity of the information being presented, is to keep to the tense conventions in scientific English. This is certainly the safest option for NNS [non-native speaker] writers who may be unskilled in deploying other devices to signal the specificity or generality of information. (Burrough-Boenisch, 2003, p. 20) Martinez (2001) analyzed the scientists' struggle in research articles, between writing impersonally and the temptation to step in and influence the reader. It is important for Francophone researchers to be able to recognize how such practices are carried out, and be able to deal with them in English as French writing clearly encourages authors to keep a low profile by avoiding the use of such

words as "I" and using the conditional for hedging purposes. In English, there seems to be "a different concentration of voice in the sections: the Introduction, Results and Discussion […] dominated by the active voice, the Method by the passive voice" (Martinez, 2001, p. 235). The identification of different writing patterns and their localization in specific sections of specific pieces of discourse suggests taking them into account in relevant English programs.

The real difference between scientific and ordinary discourse caused Hyland (2002) to advocate "[p]utting the S back into ESP" (p. 391), for he saw unifiers trying to blur the difference between ESP and EGP. ESP, he insisted, was successful because it accounted for the specific needs of the learners. "By divorcing language from context, such an autonomous view of academic literacy misleads learners into believing that they simply have to master a set of rules which can be transferred across fields" (p. 392).

There are clear variations in language practices across disciplines, claimed Samraj (2002), who compared research article (RA) introductions of Conservation Biology and Wildlife Behavior and found "disciplinary variation in the construction of this sub-genre [with implications] on pedagogy" (Samraj, 2002, p.14). As Samraj indicated, Conservation Biology is an applied, interdisciplinary and relatively new field of study as opposed to Wildlife Behavior. Thus, it would tend to seek promotion and claim centrality among the related disciplines, using real world matters to justify the research being published. "Differences in these RA introductions are significant enough that students need to be made aware of them" (p. 14) with "instructors [pointing] to the possible variation in text structure across disciplinary boundaries" (p. 15).

Specificity extends to visual discourse. Rowley-Jolivet (2002) looked at conference papers and pointed out the usefulness of acknowledging their specificity to provide scientific English learners with the pertaining competence needed. When shared 'natural' language is limited, formulae, diagrams, schematics and the like will remain particularly powerful communication tools between scientists/technologists, even if "[s]hort phrases in English referring to the various visual elements" (Rowley-Jolivet, 2002, p. 37) will only help the communication. Visuals are part and parcel of authentic scientific and technological discourse.

Some clear implications can be drawn from this study for the teaching of oral skills in science to non-native speakers: comprehension can be greatly improved if more attention is paid to the visual conventions specific both to the spoken research genre and to the field, while

students whose oral expression is limited can compensate for this deficiency by visual representation of their work. (Rowley-Jolivet, 2002, p. 38)

Brown & Lewis (2003) studied authentic workplace conversation and suggested recording and analyzing the language in view of producing teaching materials for those interested in English at the workplace. However, this idea is also applicable beyond the workplace conversation to any register one may wish to study and develop materials for.

For Basturkmen (2002), implementing skill-negotiation patterns of organization and activity in seminar-type discussions can enable learners to participate spontaneously and effectively in real seminars. Spector-Cohen et al. (2001) also thought that it was important to design reading tasks that mirrored real-life activities while Mavor & Trayner (2001) viewed interdisciplinarity and cooperation between English and content professors as the truly practical and efficient approach to developing a highly productive course. If the ESP practitioner is aware of the students' purposes for acquiring English and knows both its concrete (lexis, structure, skills) and discrete elements, s/he will depend on content specialists in implementing the right processes to help the students acquire its practice in the relevant fields.

3. English in the Tunisian educational system

3.1. Rivalry between English and French

Battenburg (1997) explained the challenge to study the issue of English and French competition in Tunisia because, "Tunisian officials as well as representatives of the American, British and French government are often reluctant to admit that such a contest is occurring" (p.282). However, the rivalry between French and English can be seen in the educational institutions and programs in Tunisia where language planning relies mostly on external funds. In fact, according to Battenburg (1997), foreign aid to Tunisia demonstrates how certain governments are trying to influence the language policy resolutions and planning initiatives.

The French-style institutions in Tunisia were and still are benefiting from considerable French financial and academic support which is according to Daoud (2001) significantly higher than the grants provided by the American and British governments.

According to Battenburg (1997), the first institution promoting English in Tunisia was "Institut Bourguiba des Langues Vivantes" (IBLV) established in 1957. Ten years later, two English textbooks series were published in Tunisia to improve English language teaching and "to address the language and cultural backgrounds of Tunisian students" (Battenburg, 1997, p. 283). According to Daoud (2001), the early eighties were characterized by major developments in favour of English: the start of the Transfer of Technology Programs (a program for training students in Anglophone countries); the establishment of the Ariana Pilot School (teaching mathematics and science in English and using Arabic for the other courses) and the creation of the Carthage Institute of Technology (planned as a follow-up institution for Ariana Pilot School).

The planning initiatives were driven by the awareness that the Tunisian government started to develop towards English. Battenburg (1997) reported some of the reasons that the Tunisian Embassy in Washington proposed in support of the Transfer of Technology Program included: "English is the universal language of communication…English is commonly used for scientific publications…English is necessary for developing financial, economic, commercial and scientific relations with the Arab World…" (p. 284)

According to Battenburg (1997), in the same year when Ariana Pilot School was established, a school called Bourguiba Lycee, a bilingual (Arabic and French) and bicultural institution was created. Whereas the former was relying on the modest funding from the British and American governments, the latter was receiving generous grants from the French government which according to Daoud (2001) has always shown concern over any effort to promote English in Tunisia.

Plans for the Carthage Institute of Technology, which was established by a team of Tunisians and Americans were suddenly brought to an end. The termination of the Carthage Institute of Technology project is believed to be caused by the significant political and economic pressure to put off this initiative.

Battenburg (1997) reported one event that he believes contributed to the shift towards more commitment to English. In 1995, the Tunisian President visited South Africa and discovered that the lack of proficiency of the Tunisian advisors and business leaders prevented them from participating in political and economic negotiations.

Consequently, new reforms were passed to promote English in Tunisian language planning. Among these reforms, English language instruction started being taught at the eighth year of basic school and a minimum of two years of English became required in all the universities.

The growing demand for English has also been motivated by the desire to have direct access to scientific and technological information from original sources, rather than looking for a French translation of the documents. Gradually, French started being seen as, "a handicap in the quest of fast modernization, development and integration in the global community" (Daoud, 2001, p.31). As a result, English instruction was initiated earlier in basic education and became a requisite subject in higher education and was offered by the state-owned IBLV to the general public at very reasonable fees.

3.2. Evaluation of English Language Teaching (ELT) Programs

A syllabus is only to be designed after an examination of the way the language is viewed and used, an analysis of its contents, and the dynamics of learning. The work includes reviewing programs and examining the materials in use to assess the degree to which they answer the needs (Dubin & Olshtain, 1986). Discussing ESP programs, Hutchinson and Waters (1987) indicated that "much of the work done by ESP teachers is concerned with designing appropriate courses for various groups of learners" (p. 21), and that an appropriate course is not one based on a description of language following "the grammars of the classical languages, Greek and Latin," (1987, p. 24). In the same vein, Dudley-Evans & St John (1998) maintained that needs analysis had always been fundamental to ESP. Following Strevens (1988), they categorized ESP in absolute and variable characteristics.

The absolute characteristics are that ESP consists of English language teaching which is:

* designed to meet specific needs of the learner;

* related in context (that is in its themes and topics) to particular disciplines, occupations and activities;

* centred on language appropriate to those activities in syntax, lexis, discourse, semantics and so on, and analysis of discourse;

* in contrast with 'General English'.

The variable characteristics are that ESP

* may be restricted to the learning skills to be learned (for example reading only);

* may not be taught according to any pre-ordained methodology. (1998, p. 3)

It seems that no official program was designed for the Tunisian university according to such principles. Rather, teachers elaborated courses by themselves.

4. Methodology

4.1. Introduction to the methodology and questionnaire

This research was descriptive and consisted of investigating the views of the students of science and technology at the Tunisian university regarding the way English is taught at the faculty of sciences of Monastir and the higher institute of technology of Jendouba.

The objective was to assess the situation of English in the Tunisian university and determine the eventual ways and means to satisfy it. Therefore, besides its relating to Tunisia's academic tradition, descriptive study is relevant to this research as it observes situations, their values, and the interplay among them. It helps to identify where the problems lie and which aspects of the observed situation to focus on. In fact, "descriptive research […] is done to depict people, situations, events, and conditions as they currently exist. […] The major sources from which information is obtained are physical settings, records, documents, objects, materials, and people directly involved" (Mertler & Charles, 2005, pp. 31-32).

4.2. Study design

We used a cross sectional study to describe the perceptions of science and technology students of English for specific purposes courses in the Tunisian higher education during the academic year 2008/2009.

4.3. Population

The sample in this study consisted of two groups of 32 and 17 students of the higher institute of technology of Jendouba and the faculty of sciences of Monastir. All the classes of the two institutions were numbered and a class of students of each institution was picked out randomly and included in the study.

4.4. Data collection

The data were collected using a self administered and anonymous questionnaire. The questionnaire adopted in the present study depends on the particular nature of the set of themes. We were initially based on the personal criteria of age, sex as well as the socio-demographic characteristics to draw a distinction between learners. The progress in the English language and the degree of satisfaction with it are also used as parameters in the questionnaire in order to determine the importance of English language. We also collected

information about the comparison between English language learning at university and in the secondary schools. The most important pedagogical activities for students during the English courses were also highlighted.

5. Results

5.1. Progress in English

The results show that more than half of all students state the lack of significant progress in English. In fact, fifty-nine percent of responding students of the faculty of sciences of Monastir said they had no progress, and fifty-six percent of the students of the higher institute of technology of Jendouba assumed that they had only some progress.

5.2. Satisfaction with the courses

Many students seem to be dissatisfied with the English courses in their institutions. In fact, half of the students of the higher institute of technology of Jendouba are dissatisfied with the English courses in their institution and 59% of the students of the faculty of sciences of Monastir are dissatisfied with such courses.

More than the third (38%) of the students of the higher institute of technology of Jendouba considered English courses at university as less interesting than secondary school education, and only a few of them (3%) indicated that it was much more interesting. On the other hand, almost half (47%) of the students of the faculty of sciences of Monastir mentioned that English language courses at university were less interesting than those of the secondary school. Only 12% of these students indicated that university English courses were more interesting than the secondary school courses.

5.3. English skills

Of the 49 respondents, a big majority indicated that reading was the most exciting skill, with 59% of the students of the higher institute of technology of Jendouba and 53% of the students of the faculty of sciences of Monastir considering reading activities as more attractive than the writing and speaking ones. Not surprisingly, their previous English studies, which put more emphasis on reading, made them better at this skill and more familiar with it than writing or speaking. One may also argue that resemblances between English and French[1] affected their

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[1] French is officially the second language in Tunisia

reading proficiency because of the common Latin alphabet, the structure of certain words, numerous cognates, and some grammatical structures including prefixes, suffixes, and even radicals of some terminology transformed or straight from Latin or Greek roots as is very often the case in the sciences. Also, due to France and Britain's extensive common history, the French and English languages have substantially borrowed from each other, which makes French loans recognizable by French speakers and especially readers, and some English words simply familiar as they are also used in French. As Banks (2005) pointed out, new developments in scientific English cannot be treated as though the language developed "independently of possible influence from other sources" (pp. 355-356).

Writing and speaking activities were less motivating; the unsatisfactory rates revolved around 79 %. In fact, writing and speaking activities require more than recognition of language elements and guessing meaning in context. Both are productive skills demanding greater knowledge of the target language.

5.4. Participation in the elaboration of English language programs

An overwhelming majority of students stated the need for their involvement in the elaboration of English language programs. In fact, 71% of the students of the higher institute of technology of Jendouba favor the participation in the preparation of the English courses. More than half (59%) of the students of the faculty of sciences of Monastir would like to take part in the elaboration of English language programs.

6. Discussion

The main results showed students' dissatisfaction with English courses and their predilection for the participation in the elaboration of English language programs. It meant that a change in the English language programs was needed. In this context, Dubin & Olshtain (1986, p. 122) indicated that "the field of language pedagogy has paid comparatively slight attention to the basics of course design and materials writing" (p. 1). The authors explained why and how course design and materials writing should be developed, including the stages involved, which range from the assessment of societal factors to the production of materials that address the target audience. The best approach that can be used in the teaching context is the communicative one which fully involves the students in "[bringing] about a more comprehensive way of learning" (p. 1).

Indeed, teachers need to be trained in the preparation of course designs. Dubin & Olshtain (1986) also dealt in detail with the importance of training teachers in course design and materials writing. However, they noted that creating effective teaching materials is an arduous task that can only be perfected through a hands-on team effort, and that guidelines need to be produced for potential writers, including how to design communicative writing tasks at various levels. Nunan (1999) complemented Dubin & Olshtain (1986) on this issue. His purpose was to initiate English teachers to the development of English learning tasks, viewed as a basic building block in curriculum design. He equally discussed the use of language skills, task components and their sequencing; and encouraged the use of an integrated learning/teaching process. He drew attention to the complementary roles of the setting, the materials, the teachers, and the students to design purposeful tasks.

Munby (1978) and Yalden (1983) brought an important contribution to language teaching program design by thoroughly looking into the details involved (lists below). Munby's design requires information on key communication variables such as the following:
- setting
- number of participants
- position of participants
- age of participants
- nationality of participants
- sex of participants
- topic to be dealt with
- channel of communication
- medium of communication
- mode of communication

Yalden identified the following components of a language course:
- purposes
- setting
- roles (learners and interlocutors)
- communicative events
- language functions involved
- notions involved
- discourse and rhetorical skills
- variety/varieties of the target language that will be needed

- grammatical content

- lexical content

Such lists provide an understanding of what elements should be involved in the design of an appropriate syllabus. A combination of both lists as suggested below could give a more comprehensive list of language components/communication variables that could be included in a course design for Tunisian university second - and third - year science and technology students. Possible components of a language course design for Tunisian students are:

* Purposes

* Participant characteristics such as

- age

- position

- roles

- nationality

- sex

* Language functions/communication events based on

- topic to be dealt with

- notions involved

- discourse and rhetorical skills required

- channel of communication

- medium of communication

- mode of communication

* Variety/varieties of the target language (TL) that will be needed as regards

- grammatical content

- lexical content

- language practice

Indeed, the English-language discourse practices of the subject-specialist community determine the language competence to be developed by students so they can be more effective in their learning of their specialty and both their current and future work. A program inspired by this study should draw upon such ideas as Burrough-Boenisch's (2003) and Samraj's (2002) findings on non-native English-speaking scientists' problems with uses of tenses and structures in scientific discourse, Martinez's (2001) and Basturkmen's (2002) analysis of types of scientific discourse, and Spector-Cohen et al.'s (2001) suggestions for designing tasks that reflect real-life activities of scientists to develop the related skills. To be especially

drawn on for a Tunisian university's English program is the integrated disciplines' approach of Mavor & Trayner's (2001). This discussion supports Hyland's (2002) idea of "[p]utting back the S into ESP" (p. 391), as also acknowledged by Rowley-Jolivet (2002).

7. Conclusion

This study investigated the Tunisian science and technology students' perceptions of ESP courses at the higher institute of technology of Jendouba and the faculty of sciences of Monastir. However, more studies should be carried out for a more comprehensive picture of these perceptions. These should include pre-university English programs because they are the ones that should prepare students for their continued English education at university.

Knowing what is needed will be of little help if measures are not taken to achieve it. The next step after a perceptions' description is the actual design of a corresponding program. Therefore, this study and the others suggested above should each inspire a program design to address the acknowledged need for English among the Tunisian scientific/technological community. It is not necessary for all the studies to be conducted before the programs are designed, since they target different audiences.

Following these perceptions, an English program should be developed that will help deliver the required levels of competence in every relevant skill to perform the right functions. The program will be constructivist and flexible enough as to embrace proven aspects of different learning/teaching approaches. Thus, "any syllabus which claims to teach people how to communicate (in whatever specialised area) should acknowledge the complexity of communication" (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987, p. 89).

The next step is to use these results to design an EST program that will not only help Tunisian science and technology students with their current studies, but also to ease their integration in their future occupational and international academic communities.

The aims of the program will be specified as to enable the students to effectively use English in an efficient way in their study and research, and eventually in their future occupations as scientists or technicians. The operational objectives will be enabling the students to understand and give talks in their discourses in appropriate settings/circumstances, read and write relevant papers (articles, reports, reviews, etc.).

The students will also be able, at the end of the module, to interpret and design charts, diagrams and tables. Specifically, they will be able to listen to, understand, and produce talks in scientific/technical discourses (settings and circumstances) involving international participants. This includes pursuing studies in Anglophone universities. The students will also be able to draft, write, and edit papers in their fields.

Activities will include increased opportunities for students to interact in English through pair work, group work, simulations, presentations, etc. In addition, the program will provide extracurricular spaces for reading class and non-class related materials, electronic communication, various English clubs and outside of English club activities, use of other available platforms for practice, and trips to Anglophone countries.

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Appendix

Questionnaire

1- Identification : **.** Age :…………..

              . Sex :…………..

2- How do you gauge your progress in English at university?

☐- No progress

☐- Some progress

☐- A significant progress

☐- A very significant progress

3- Are you satisfied with the English courses in your institution?

- Yes : ☐   - No : ☐

4- Compared with secondary school education, English courses at university are

☐- much more interesting

☐- more interesting

☐- interesting

☐- less interesting

5- Which pedagogical activities are most exciting for you during the English course?

☐- Oral expression activities

☐- Reading comprehension activities

☐- Writing activities

6- Which pedagogical activities are least exciting for you during the English course?

☐- Oral expression activities

☐- Reading comprehension activities

☐- Writing activities

7- Do you think that students should take part in the elaboration of English language programs?

 - Yes ☐   - No ☐

8- Do you think the English course content is:

☐- very convenient to your professional career

☐- convenient to your professional career

☐- a bit convenient to your professional career

☐- not convenient to your professional career

9- Do you have the possibility at university to:

a) - use the Internet : - Yes ☐   -No ☐

b) - use software programs to improve your English language level: - Yes ☐   -No ☐

c) - use CD-ROMs: - Yes ☐   -No ☐

d) - use a language laboratory: - Yes ☐   -No ☐

10- According to you, which are the 3 main objectives of the English teacher? (Tick 3 answers)

☐- make sure that every student has the basics in vocabulary and grammar

☐- give students confidence in learning English

☐- have a satisfactory knowledge of the English culture

☐- prepare for the exam

☐- prepare for English in professional settings

11- According to you, which attitudes help learn English language most?
☐- practise speaking and writing regularly

☐- have contacts with English people

☐- travel to English speaking countries
☐- work in English speaking countries

12- What are you going to do for your English after university?

☐- Nothing special

□- maintain the same level of English through reading and listening activities

□- improve the level of English through courses and trainings

13- Why are you learning English?

□- necessity of the university and the exams

□- necessity to speak English to find a job

□- necessity to speak English which became an international language of communication

□- learn a different language and culture to widen my scope of knowledge