Rights Analysis of ESP Courses: Towards Democratizing ESP Education

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Abstract
The introduction of English for Specific Purposes (ESP) to the academic world occurred because of the demands of the new world in which different fields have developed their own features and rules one of which is the specific language needed for intra-group relationships. To include these demands into the curriculum of different fields of study in universities, needs analysis as a tool to get familiar with the needs of students is conducted the results of which is used by experts in materials and syllabus design. With the advent of discourse analysis also came the notion and practice of critical discourse analysis; these movements led to a revision of needs analysis suggesting “rights analysis (Benesch, 2001)” to accommodate the demands of a new era in which the request for hearing all voices and democratizing education is an important issue. In this paper, the origin of ESP, different models of needs analysis, and some studies in this regard will be reviewed briefly; the paper will end up with the definition and a discussion of the reasons underpinning for the call for rights analysis as a substitute for needs analysis in ESP studies.

Key Words: Rights, Rights Analysis, Needs Analysis, English for Specific Purposes, ESP Courses

1. Introduction
1.1. Need for ESP
The development of world economy and the growth of mass media, the digital world, and international communication, and accordingly the importance of English as the language of international relationship, exchange of ideas, knowledge, and culture are acknowledged by many experts (e.g. Jiajing, 2007; Ghalandari & Talebinejad, 2012). In the past few decades, the need for using English for exchange of information within specific professional fields through specific journals, meetings, and conferences has increased substantively (Gatehouse, 2001). So, English for specific purposes (ESP) while still part of English language teaching, has developed its own procedures, materials, and methodology (Dudley-Evans & St. John, 1998).

1.2. ESP and needs analysis
The origin of ESP dates back to 1960s. At that time, the needs of special groups were the focus of study, and therefore, needs analysis was at its peak. The necessity of having special programs for different professions and different groups was welcomed and including specific English into the curriculum of university students was emphasized. In 1964, Halliday, McIntosh, and Strevens offered the first definition of ESP, for policemen, for doctors, for engineers, etc. At first, it was assumed that ESP constituted a specific register of
which grammatical and lexical features had to be identified (Mohammed, 2012). This notion stands at the core of the first stage of ESP Studies. This stage focused on register, rhetorical and discourse analysis and later added and considered skills training and needs analysis. The second stage adopted a genre analysis approach leading to a more systematic approach to ESP, considering language in society. Many studies even tried to analyze ESP texts and find their genre structure to use as instructional guidelines (Bhatia, Anthony, & Noguchi, 2011; Sayfouri, 2010; Flowerdew, 2000; Dudley-Evans, 2000). Today’s concern of ESP is to equip learners with language they can use effectively in their work situation. In this regard, usually three reasons are mentioned which have intrigued the emergence of ESP: the demands of a brave new world, a revolutionary move in linguistics, and putting the learners in the spotlight (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987).

At the core of ESP but stands the notion and practice of needs analysis. Dudley-Evans and St. John (1998) consider needs analysis the cornerstone of ESP. Munby (1978) also believes that the syllabus and materials for ESP must be determined by prior analysis of communication needs of learners. Goals and objectives of a course are decided on based on needs analysis, taking into account the world outside the classroom admitting that grammar and literature teaching alone cannot prepare students for their future academic experiences.

Needs analysis gains access to detailed information about the linguistic as well as the cognitive challenges students face in academic contexts, by collecting information through examining teaching materials, student assignments, faculty and student attitudes, and the classroom discourse (Benesch, 2001). Hyland (2007) also advocates the use of systematic means to determine the specific skills, texts, linguistic forms, and communicative abilities learners must acquire during an ESP course, to help develop curricula and materials which can ensure students’ pragmatic engagement with occupational, academic, and professional realities outside the classroom.

1.3. Different perspectives on needs
Language needs have been seen from different perspectives by different researchers. Some have focused on the learners’ language needs in terms of the target situation, in which the learners will need the language to perform effectively naming them “target needs” or “communication needs”. Some have attended to needs of the learners while they are in the process of learning the language naming them “learning needs” or “situation needs”. Some others have taken the students’ own perceptions of needs into account calling them “felt needs”. Finally, some of them have focused on discipline, institution, teachers, and graduates’ perceptions of needs named “perceived needs” (Celik, 2003). Yet, there are other perspectives taken by experts of the field, each highlighting one aspect of the diverse nature of needs analysis. Other labels used in the literature for needs analysis are “present situation analysis”, “pedagogic needs analysis”, “deficiency analysis”, “means analysis”, “register analysis”, “discourse analysis” and “genre analysis” (Shakouri & Bahraminezhad, 2012).

1.4. Different models of needs analysis
Different models of needs analysis have also been developed which in turn have helped to lighten different aspects of needs analysis. Richterich and Chancerel’s (1977) systematic approach is concerned about learners and tries to identify their present situation needs by collecting information both before and during a course from learners as well as institutions involved including workplace and sponsors of ESP programs. Surveys, interviews, and attitude scales are used in this model. Munby’s (1978) sociolinguistic model specifies target situations in terms of target communication competence, presenting communicative events (e.g., discussing duties), purposive domains (e.g., educational domain), medium (e.g., spoken), tone (e.g., formal), mode (e.g., dialogues), channel (e.g., telephone), setting (e.g., an office), main communicators, dialect, content, and English proficiency level as components of this communicative competence which must be addressed. Hutchinson and Waters’s (1987) learning-centred approach highlights the importance of cognitive needs, in addition to language needs, investigating how learners learn and focusing on factors like learners’ socio-cultural background, learning background, age, gender, learners’ content knowledge, general language proficiency, and attitudes towards English language and culture. Berwick’s (1989) and also

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Brindley’s (1989) learner-centred approaches to ESP needs analysis offer different perspectives of learner needs: perceived vs. felt needs, product vs. process oriented needs, and objective vs. subjective needs. Perceived needs are obtained from surveying experts’ ideas while felt needs are obtained from surveying learners’ ideas. Product-oriented needs constitute the language needed in the target situation while process-oriented needs involve affective and cognitive variables which affect learning. Objective and subjective needs are also identified before and after a course respectively. These approaches make investigating learners’ attitudes and feelings a prominent part of needs analysis. The most recent model, Long’s (2005) task-based approach, takes tasks and discourse rather than linguistic elements like structures, notions, functions, specific vocabulary, etc. as the unit of analysis.

2. Literature review

There are many studies targeting different aspects of ESP programs as the subject for their studies. Some studies have investigated perceptions and needs of people involved in ESP programs. For example, Momeni and Eslami-Rasekh (2012) studied the effect of class coherence among MA students of Geography and Tourism on EAP course evaluation. Their study showed that there were conflicts between students’ perceptions of needs, the university’s selected syllabus, and the instructors’ perceptions. Differences in students’ perceptions resulted in varying class coherence, and the differences in the perceptions of the three parties involved resulted in a kind of subjectivity of the course evaluation.

Atai and Shoja (2011) conducted a triangulated study of EAP needs of computer engineer majors. They studied 231 undergraduate students, 30 graduate students, 20 content teachers, and 15 ESP teachers in 3 Iranian universities. They used questionnaires, a general English proficiency test, semi-structured interviews, and observation as their tools for collecting data. The results showed that students feel a need for general language instruction and that all four skills are needed to be covered. In addition, a need for different academic skills such as writing scientific articles, using the Internet to do research, writing e-mails, preparing slides, and translation skills were demanded by the students. Using technical dictionaries was also suggested by both content and ESP teachers. Observations also showed the prevalence of traditional methods of teaching ESP (reading comprehension and translation) in the classes without any focus on other academic skills demanded.

Hashemi, Lamir, and Namjoo (2011) tried to investigate the perceptions of 112 Iranian undergraduate students and 4 faculty members of Physical Education in Ferdowsi University of Mashhad on the English language needs of the students and the shortcomings of the commonly used ESP/EAP text-books in Iranian universities using a questionnaire and oral interviews. The study indicated that English is perceived as important by both Iranian students and the faculty, but there are serious discrepancies between the perceptions of the learners and instructors. Most of the students stated limited vocabulary, difficulty in speaking, and grammar as their language problems but the instructors assumed the language problems of their students to be difficulty in reading comprehension, vocabulary, grammar and writing, and considered the students’ low level of proficiency as an important obstacle in enriching ESP courses.

Moslemi, Moinzadeh, and Dabaghi (2011) investigated the needs of 80 Iranian MA students of biology, psychology, and philosophy studying in University of Isfahan. Twenty-five content teachers and seven English teachers also attended the study. They used interviews, questionnaires, and text analysis to collect data, and statistical tests like chi-square to analyze the data. The results showed major dissatisfaction of the participants with the courses demanding courses which provide more exposure with the language and an increase in the weight of English in national MA entrance exams and joint teaching of both content and language teachers.

Alastal and Shuib (2012), based on Hutchinson and Waters’ (1987) framework of needs analysis, surveyed the perceptions of 180 Al-Aqsa University students about ESP learning. The results showed that these students rated reading, listening, and writing as important skills needed for them respectively. They believed
that reading text-books, understanding class lectures, and writing class notes were the most important sub-skills they needed.

Martinovic and Poljakovic (2010) studied the attitudes of 149 first year non-language majors in the University of Zadar towards ESP learning. These students were from the field of humanity (archaeology, art history, and Croatian Language) and social sciences (geography, pedagogy, library science, and social studies). The students filled a questionnaire consisting of 35 items derived from a previously done survey. They had to respond to statements using a Likert Scale ranging from 1 (strongly agree) to 5 (strongly disagree) in their native language. The results of analysis showed the presence of a positive attitude towards learning ESP.

Hernandez and Paredes (2002) examined the design and implementation stages of a course of English given at the Faculty of Psychology of the University of Murcia, Spain. At the beginning of the semester a questionnaire was given to the students to evaluate their needs and motivation. Also a test was given to them to measure their general communicative competence. With respect to their motivation, the students manifested two orientations: Labor and integrative reasons. Taking into account their 'labor reasons', some units closely related to their specialty were included and the final evaluation was modified giving some weight also to the specific English component (75% GE, 25% ESAP). The analysis revealed that students with a better communicative competence at the beginning of the course received higher marks in the final exam. Based on the results, they ask for an integration of ESP and EAP into mainstream English courses.

Abdul Razak, Ahmad, and Mohd Shah (2007) studied male and female students’ perceived and preferred teaching styles based on Grasha’s (1996) model of teaching styles in ESP classes. They used a 5-point Likert Scale questionnaire for 175 students from three engineering departments. The findings showed that students preferred a Facilitation Style, which emphasizes the personal nature of teaching-learning relationship and allows for learners’ choice, initiative, independence, and responsibility, more than other styles, i.e., the Expert Style, the Formal Authority Style, the Personal Model Style, and the Delegator Style. Also there was no significant difference between male and female preferred styles.

Helmer (2013) studied an EAP writing program at an urban Hispanic-serving college in the northeast U.S. by analyzing students-writing portfolios, and using data from writing-center surveys and interviews. The findings revealed that a narrow focus on student lacks or deficiencies was not enough and a restructuring in the institutional hierarchies is needed to address the problem. A re-imagining of ESP teacher and students authority built on the strengths of stakeholders was suggested in the study.

There are also some studies regarding the efficiency of ESP text-books. For example, Ghalandari and Talebinejad (2012) examined medical ESP textbooks and found them compatible to students and physicians’ needs and achievement. Based on Hutchinson and Waters’ (1987) framework, they examined and evaluated ESP textbooks of medical students in Shiraz Medical School and investigated the compatibility of the content of these textbooks with the students’ needs. They found ESP textbooks in medicine as appropriate books for the purpose of medical English for Iranian physicians.

Vosoughi, Davoudi Sharifabad, and Raftari (2013), focusing on the efficiency of ESP text-books in Iran, studied the features of one of the SAMT (the official publication center of the Ministry of Science, Research, and Technology) publications for students on medicine, evaluating three criteria including the objectives, the content, and the overall structure. The results of the study showed that the book didn’t meet the specific requirements of medicine students.

The role and the characteristics of ESP teachers are also controversial issues. Ghanbari and Eslami Rasekh (2012), for example, studied two ESP teachers form Petroleum University of Technology (PUT) in Ahvaz, and based on the data derived from a semi-structured interview with them in Farsi and observational evidence investigated the route of professionalism of these teachers. The results of the analysis identified
the teachers’ limited content knowledge which was compensated for by their command of language, the teachers’ attempt for survival especially in the first days of the term which leads to low teacher credibility, their need to collaborate on developing ESP curricula, and their need for different teaching strategies as main problems these teachers faced. They conclude that “tradition” dominates ESP classes in Iran and that ESP teachers need various skills and knowledge to equip themselves with.

Mohammed (2012) investigated a controversial issue “Who is the ESP teacher?” believing that an ELT teacher, with some training in the subject matter of course, is better than a subject matter teacher. He concluded that more general components are involved in ESP classes and that ESP text-books are not that much specific.

Anthony (2011) in a critical paper on the specificity of ESP courses argues for the better position of non-content teachers in teaching ESP courses believing that these teachers have the ‘process-oriented skills’ necessary to do their jobs, skills such as acquiring new knowledge through observation, recording, and analyzing texts; it is believed that specific content familiarity can be compensated for by these abilities. This view, based on different shifts in ESP studies and the idea that language features are stable in and across disciplines and genres, is against the long-standing view that knowledge of the specialist field is an essential criterion for successful ESP teaching.

Abassys Delvand, Khalilisabet, and Mahdavi Zafarghandi (2013) evaluated ESP teachers’ efficacy in Iranian universities. A questionnaire was developed by the researchers and given to 92 students of Islamic Azad Universities of Rasht and Lahijan. The t-test analysis of data showed a significant difference between content and language teachers; language teachers were considered more qualified to teach ESP courses by students.

Alibakhshi, Ghand, and Padiz (2011) conducted a critical investigation of the role of ESP teachers in Iranian universities. They checked ESP teachers’ activities through observation of some ESP classes. The results of the study revealed that there are many problems with the ways teachers teach ESP and that their activities do not reflect recent innovations in teaching and learning. What they offer is that in addition to knowledge of subject he/she is teaching, an ESP teacher should be aware of the principles of adult learning, should be able to contribute to the development of all the components of an ESP program, and should be familiar with the discourse of the subject matter to be able to perform efficiently.

Some studies have investigated the ESP classroom contexts and discourse. Fox, Cheng, Berman, Song, and Myles (2006) interviewed 28 male and female students from different countries studying in Canada to investigate their perceptions of the factors contributing to their engagement with the academic community. The results of these semi-structured interviews showed that these students viewed themselves being in a new academic and cultural community and that they sought academic acculturation through linguistic, academic, and social support from different sources like roommates, classmates, professors, student centers, etc to be able to develop learning and coping strategies in learning both academic subjects and language. Receiving EAP_ESP instruction was considered a key factor in their academic acculturation. The results suggest that academic acculturation is a two-way transmission from community specialists as well as students themselves actively interacting with other people and resources as well.

Ajmi (2013) investigated the issue of acculturation and the teaching of scientific terminology to 25 ESP engineering students in Tunisia. Specifically, the paper considered the extent to which the ESP course under study offered an adequate setting for the teaching of scientific terminology in its cultural context. A teachers’ questionnaire was provided to evaluate ESP teachers in the institute on certain views on language and culture and three tests on three different but related specific fields in science were distributed to students. The results of the analysis of the questionnaire and the tests revealed that the ESP course proposed at this institute provides the grounds for the subjects to operationalize what they need but is insufficient, as the teachers also stated, to provide a complete cultural context required for ESP vocabulary learning.

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White and Lowenthal (2011) studied the features of academic discourse and the formation of academic identity among minority students and the hidden curriculum exercised in the college concluding that an academic community discourse can only grow if it allows for multiplicity of voices to be heard. A prerequisite to this is learning the conventions of academic discourse by newcomers to have the chance to change it from within.

Some researchers have also studied ESP testing. Tavakoli (2004), for example, investigated the construct validity of ESP reading comprehension tests by choosing 245 students from different majors. In addition to a motivation questionnaire, the participants took 3 different reading comprehension tests: the TOEFL, major specific technical English (EST) tests, and the IELTS academic module. Data analysis showed that the construct of reading in general English and technical purposes, unlike that of general English and English for academic purposes, were not significantly different. The results also showed that background (content) knowledge affects performance on EST reading tests for some majors. Another interesting result was that levels of proficiency (here low and high) also affected students’ performance in EST tests.

Douglas (2010) addresses questions like the nature of ESP testing, the specificity of ESP tests, and the problems faced in ESP testing concluding that ethical testing practices must be context-specific and that ESP tests must be relevant, motivating, and fair to all people involved in these tests including learners, teachers, administrators, and even the society.

The efficiency of ESP courses offered in universities in satisfying learners’ future career needs is another issue investigated by researchers. Hatam and Shafiei (2012), as part of their study, investigated the relationship of an ESP course and technical translation proficiency of 50 male and female students. Their study indicated about sixty percent effectiveness of ESP courses.

Amirian and Tavakoli (2009) investigated the components of engineering ESP courses and how much these courses have been useful in helping the prospective engineers with their job requirements. To do so, they analyzed the linguistic components and the skills covered in these ESP text-books and used a questionnaire with the production line engineers of one of the greatest steel complexes in Iran. The results showed that ESP courses these engineers had passed before were useful but not sufficient; they offered in-service ESP courses designed based on on-going needs as a solution to this problem.

Some studies have tried to investigate ESP programs from multiple perspectives. Suzani, Yarmohammadi, and Yamini (2011), for example, studied the current situation of ESP teaching in Iranian universities by using semi-structured interviews with 115 participants from 6 different fields of study from different universities and their record-of-work forms obtained from their class portfolios at the end of the project to know about their opinions about text-books used. The participants either had passed their ESP courses or were attending those classes at the time of the study. Results of data analysis revealed that there was great misunderstanding among ESP students about the logic of ESP courses. Other findings included the inappropriate time of presenting ESP courses and the place of ESP in the curriculum, lack of enough class hours, crowded classes, lack of compatibility between general English courses and ESP courses, lack of authentic application of language knowledge, and teachers’ old ways of teaching ESP courses like translation and memorizing the words by the students.

Sherkatolabbasi and Mahdavi-Zafarghandi (2012) tried to evaluate problematic areas of ESP teaching and learning in the context of Iran. They used interviews with 30 students and 15 teachers randomly chosen, and a questionnaire derived from the content of the interviews and pilot-studied for 420 students and 50 teachers in ESP classes. Data analysis showed shortcomings (e.g., language proficiency and pedagogy) especially in the case of content teachers who teach ESP courses. The results also showed that most students were satisfied with ESP courses. The importance of the role and decisions of language departments was also emphasized in the study.

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Liaghat and Latif (2013) studied the relationship between ESP and general English syllabi of the Persian Literature Department in Shar-e-Rey Islamic Azad University. They used interviews, questionnaires, observations, and frequency analysis to conduct their study. The subjects of the study included 5 instructors and 250 Persian Literature students. The results showed that ESP course materials were outdated, confined, culturally irrelevant, and inconsistent with students’ needs and specialists’ expectations. The study also showed there was an underestimation of the usefulness of consultation with syllabus design experts and prior student needs analysis leading to an inconsistency between ESP syllabus and Persian Literature curriculum on the one hand and between ESP syllabus and general English syllabus on the other hand.

3. A new vision: rights vs. needs
None of the above-mentioned approaches or models to needs analysis offered a comprehensive framework for needs analysis. Then, with the advent of discourse analysis and then critical discourse analysis also came the idea of critical EAP (English for Academic Purposes) asking for all voices to be heard. Benesch (1996) believes that needs analysis research in EAP/ESP is mainly descriptive addressing existing elements of target situations. She proposes “critical needs analysis” as a substitute, one which considers target situations as sites for possible change and reform, concentrating on “inequality” both inside and outside social institutions and their hierarchical nature. Benesch (2001) admits that critical EAP, like traditional EAP, relies on needs analysis to guide activities and curriculum development but it goes beyond the restricted notion of student success as fulfilling content or specific English class requirements. Critical EAP asks for students’ ideas on present and future academic assignments to keep open the possibility of change; it helps students show their resistance, objections, or unwillingness, and helps them to exercise their democratic rights as members of an academic discourse community. Penneycook (1994) believes that a critical research should be descriptive and interpretive as well as transformative, focusing on issues like social and cultural inequality in education, trying to bring about changes in the dominant discourse. It is believed, as Benesch (1996) states, that there is a lack of attention to sociopolitical issues in EAP/ESP needs analysis, and that in addition to the academic discourse, classroom interactions, and assignments, political and economic forces that influence academic institutions’ internal and external life, and social issues affecting students’ academic lives should be identified. Other issues like different attitudes towards studying English, budget issues, and difficulties of pursuing a degree or finding a job must also be examined.

Although we have ESP studies in which students’ attitudes towards what or how they learn have been investigated, we haven’t had any comprehensive critical analysis of academic content and teaching, and issues affecting students’ academic lives and their future careers; we have failed to examine and question aims of education and society authentically (Bhatia, Anthony, & Noguchi, 2011; Benesch, 1996). This ideologically narrow conception of needs analysis is in contrast with the fact that target discourse communities are situated in larger social, economic, and political realities and that a narrow definition of the target discourse community can result in too pragmatically identifying target needs imposed by people in power or institutions (Pennycook, 1997; Garcia, 2002). Tannen (2002) also admits the presence of a kind of agonism in present academic discourse which results in many negative consequences including the marginalization of those with democratic views and practices. All these concerns urged Benesch (2001) to revision needs analysis as “rights analysis”, trying to help ESP practitioners and their students exercise their rights to force those in power to include these rights in their decisions (Belcher, 2009).

4. Why rights analysis?
Replacing “needs” with “rights” underscores power relations in academic contexts by questioning socially constructed and externally imposed rules. The word “needs” has the psychological implication of the dominance of institutional decisions over students’ wants. In this sense, these decisions are not negotiable and should be followed strictly. The word “needs” has also a biological connotation reminding us of ordinary needs like food, water, and shelter. These hidden connotations of the word “needs” seem to naturalize socially constructed and externally imposed rules. On the other hand, the word “rights” has a

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Rights analysis emphasizes the democratic participation of all ESP stake-holders including students, teachers, departments, institutes, and governmental policy-makers to exercise their interests and rights in decision-making about ESP course design and implementation (Benesch, 2001; Belcher, 2009). This entails a negotiation between different players regarding decisions on ESP learning, teaching, and testing practices covering needs and wants of all sides in a discourse community (Benesch, 2001; Antic, 2007). Rights are negotiable, allowing for a democratic participation of all players in an academic discourse community (Benesch, 2001). This is because we always face conflicts between requirements identified and prescribed by teachers, institutions, and sponsors and wants by learners; regarding pedagogy we may also face conflicts between learners’ preferred strategies and learning styles and teachers’ choice of strategies to highlight in their classes (Mohammadi & Mousavi, 2013). Jordan (1997) advocates the idea of a negotiated syllabus. West (1994) also believes that both the syllabus and the methodology should be negotiated to be able to cover the perceived wants of most of the participants in an academic discourse community. According to Antic (2007), an ESP syllabus must be based on insights into learners’ actual needs and interests because when they are interested in the context of learning, they will be more motivated to learn.

Rights analysis considers students as members of the discourse community, in contrast to needs analysis which views students as novices who must ‘earn their place’ by following their teachers and field-experts. Rights guide questions about power and positions which show resistance. Rights analysis questions the implicit and explicit regulations in an academic context, explores the way students respond to these regulations, and investigates the roots of decisions made. Rights analysis assumes that each local academic setting, depending on sociopolitical trends inside and outside the educational institution, allows for the negotiation opportunities (Benesch, 2001).

5. Where to start?
Rights analysis is a new untested idea in the field, although the growth of interest in learning foreign languages and the position of language learning and the need for ESP are clear (Barjasteh & Shakeri, 2013). Without any careful formal examination of teachers and learners’ expectations and perceptions and without any serious attempt for teacher training, the success of ESP programs is open to doubt (Boniadi, Ghojazadeh, & Rahmatvand, 2013). So, through various data collection methods like interviews, questionnaires, classroom observations, document analysis, text-analysis, and test analysis, researchers should investigate the following issues: the rules governing ESP discourse communities regarding ESP teaching and testing, the perceptions of different members of the ESP community about ESP pedagogy, teaching materials, assessment, the official curricula, and academic discourses, and the efficiency of ESP programs in preparing students for their future careers (Benesch, 2001). Thus, we may shed more light on different aspects of these issues and the results gained bring about a few positive changes to the present practices regarding ESP teaching, learning, and testing. As Sherkatolabbasi and Mahdavi Zafarghandi (2012) say, if we hope the ESP to improve, we have to evaluate what ESP actually represents and explore its problems to ensure its improvement.

6. Conclusion
Today’s fast progress of commerce and technology requires both students and professionals to learn the language of commerce and technology for both academic and occupational purposes. The modern world encourages mobility of labor and minds across the world. To be able to take up study places or work opportunities, knowing a foreign language is a must; it is important not only to be able to use a foreign language, but also to be able to demonstrate that one can use it at the level required by employers, schools, or universities. This demand has increased the need of ESP training of students to prepare them for their future career demand and needs (Astika, 1999, Tratnik, 2008). ESP teaching has its own approach (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987) which must be based on learners’ needs (McDonough, 1984) which not only includes language ability but also communication skills (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987). This entails the
active involvement of the students in the design and implementation of ESP programs (Astika, 1999). ESP tests are also gaining more and more attention, and are becoming an essential tool in the modern educational society of which the primary goal is to obtain information about the learner's specific purpose language ability and performance. This information is often very useful for making decisions (Tratnik, 2008).

In addition to learner needs, studying the specific language needed for ESP courses, the context of use, and the academic discourse, and applying the findings of these studies to pedagogical practices have turned ESP into an important branch of applied linguistics (Johns, Paltrideg, & Belcher, 2011). ESP teaching is following new trends including the sociodiscoursal trend in which genre-informed pedagogy is highlighted, the sociocultural trend focusing on situated learning, and the sociopolitical trend which emphasizes critical pedagogy (Belcher, 2004). The movement from traditional needs analysis towards critical needs analysis and critical EAP and rights analysis, suggested by Benesch (1996) and (2001) respectively, distinguishes the sociopolitical aspect of ESP programs. What we need now is to conduct rights analysis studies to accommodate the demands of the era in which democracy has received a lot of attention in different aspects of human life, ESP being one of the kind.

References


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