The Role of Needs Analysis in ESL Program Design

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Abstract. Language plays a role in a broader theory of communication and therefore the paper argues that that English language teaching in India has to undergo serious rethinking not only in the content of the course, but also the whole process of teaching the language. The paper supports the demand to allow more freedom to students in selecting their own task based on their needs.

1. Introduction

In recent years, there has been a healthy trend in course design with the focus shifting from teacher-centered to learner-centered activities and in this connection, a lot of credibility is being given to need based courses in ESL program. Needs analysis is a device to know the learners’ necessities, needs, and lacks in order to develop courses that have a reasonable content for exploitation in the classroom. Needs Analysis is therefore a process for identification and defining valid curriculum and instructional and management objectives in order to facilitate learning in an environment that is closely related to the real life situations of the student. It brings into sharp focus the settings and roles that learner is likely to face after he finishes his formal education. Actually, the switch of attention communication highlighted the role of the learner and his needs in modern educational system.

Language plays a role in a broader theory of communication. In fact, the contributions of Hymes, Labov, Halliday and Hasan, and Widdowson are considered the basis of enhancing the “Communicative Syllabus Design”. Hymes in “Communicative Competence” speaks of ‘rules of use without which the rules of grammar would be useless’. Labov (1970) said the same as ‘the
rules we need will show how things are done with words and how one interprets these utterances as actions’.

Halliday and Hasan (1976) published Cohesion in English, which became a standard work of reference on the linguistic aspects of text construction for writers of teaching materials for advanced learners and for university level students of English. Halliday and Hasan defined cohesion by saying ‘where the interpretation of any item in the discourse requires making reference to some other item in the discourse, there is cohesion’. Cohesion is one dimension of the general Hallidayan aim of devising principal methods of relating elements of grammatical structure to their use in discourse’.

Widdowson (1978) in his book ‘Teaching Language as Communication’ proposed a different type of teaching syllabus built around a graded selection of rhetorical (or communicational) acts which the learner would have to perform in using English for his particular purpose. The scientist, for example, would necessarily make extensive use of such acts as definition, classification, deduction, and so on. Other learners would need to communicate in more ordinary everyday situation where greetings, making social arrangement, and exchanging information would be more important.

Any teaching curriculum is designed in answer to three questions: What is to be learned? How is the learning to be undertaken and achieved? To what extent are the former appropriate and the latter effective? A communicative curriculum will place language teaching with the framework of this relationship between some specified purposes, the methodology which will be the means towards the achievement of those purposes, and the evaluation of the methodology. Breen and Candlin (2001:9) proposed some purpose in language teaching which must be considered such as

1. communication as a general purpose,
2. the underlying demands on the learner that such a purpose may imply,
3. the initial contributions which learners may bring to the curriculum,
4. the process of teaching and learning,
5. the roles of teacher and learners,
6. the role of content within the teaching and learning, and
finally
7. The place of evaluation of learner progress and evaluation of
the curriculum itself from communicative point of view.

As said earlier, the switch of attention from teaching language
system to teaching the language as communication highlighted the
role of the learner and his needs. The range of possible uses of
language is as extensive as the range of possible purposes and
intentions that people have for using it, so, the emphasis on the use
of language as communication concentrates on the users
themselves. The main problem of the users of language, and
especially those living in developing countries, is that though they
have received several years of formal English teaching, they
frequently remain deficient in the ability to actually use the
language, and to understand its’ use in normal communication,
whether in spoken or written mode. This results in a switch of
attention from teaching language system to teaching the language
as communicative system.

2. Theoretical Issues

The Need Analysis in modern language teaching was first made by
the Council of Europe Modern Language Projects group. This
group intend to promote language learning in Europe and offer
guidance and support to the many ‘partners for learning’ whose co-
operation is necessary to the creation of a coherent and transparent
structure of provision for effective learning, relevant to the needs of
the learners as well as of society (J.A. van Ek and J.L.M. Trim
2001).

In 1971 the Council recognized the importance of dividing the
task of learning a language into smaller units, each of which could
be credited separately, and also the necessity of basing curricula on
learners needs rather than on language structures, as had previously
been common practice. One of the major outcomes of this
educational policy is the “Threshold Level”, specification (van Ek,
1975) which proposed a model for the description of language
ability based on the principle that language teaching should provide
learners with the means of meeting their personal communicative
needs. A lower specification was also produced, under the name
“Waystage Level”. In 1991 revised and updated versions of both documents appeared as Threshold level 1990 and Waystage level 1990 (by J.A. van Ek and J.L.M. Trim) published by Council of Europe Press. Recently, a somewhat higher “Vantage” level (Trim 1996) has been proposed for learners who wish to continue to improve their language proficiency beyond the “Threshold Level”.

J.L.M. Trim (1998) wrote that the ‘Council of Europe approach’ to language teaching has been based on the central importance of specifying in appropriate detail the objectives to be aimed at in accordance with the best assessment of the needs, characteristics and resources of the learners concerned. The “Threshold Level” specifies in considerable detail what a language learner should be able to do in a particular language in order to deal with the business of daily living in another country and also to exchange information and opinion on everyday matters with other speakers of the language. It then suggests the language needed for the defined purposes.

The concepts of the threshold level, needs analysis, language function and notions are now applied to design courses. The meaning of functional syllabus is to arrange the syllabus in terms of functions and the language items needed for them.

Table 1.1 (Adopted from Longman Dictionary of Applied Linguistics 1985)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of discourse</th>
<th>Skill</th>
<th>Function</th>
<th>Exponents</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Vocabulary</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spoken</td>
<td>Speaking,</td>
<td>Asking for directions</td>
<td>Bank harbour museum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Listening</td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In turn, the meaning of Notional Syllabus, as Wilkins (1976) defines, is to begin with meanings and concepts a learner needs in order to communicate and the language needed to express them.
These concepts and meaning are known as notion such as: Time, Space, Argument, Judgments and Evaluation etc.

The ideas of the Council, incorporated in these courses, meant for adults learning a second language, soon filtered down to the school level. The courses were revised and redefined, and course books using the notional- functional syllabus soon became and accepted part of the English syllabus in schools.

2.1 Richterich’s ‘Objective’ and ‘Subjective’ Needs

As a member in Council of Europe Modern Language Projects group, Richterich pointed out that the learning process, by being responsive to learner’s expressed needs, becomes a source of its own change. If feedback and consultation are built into the learning cycle, a learning activity can in itself become a kind of needs analysis, which allows the teachers to perceive and provide for needs as they arise. These Objectives can be modified in the light of feedback from learners (Richterich 1975).

Richterich (as cited in R. West, 1994) comments that implementation of any sort of needs analysis has to deal first with some fundamental questions the answer to which may lead to the methodology. The questions are concerned with “what”, “why”, “when”, “who”, “for whom”, and “how” of the procedure.

Richterich (1983) noted that initial phase of “objective needs” analysis is considered as only a first step. It will establish broad parameters for program design but once learning begins, it is likely that, first, these language –related needs will change and that second, particular learning needs will come to light which were not identified pre-course. It is of course not an easy job as Richterich comments:

“The very concept of language needs has never been clearly defined and remains at best ambiguous”

(Richterich 1983:2)

Richterich (1983), on the other hand, defines that “objective needs” analysis form the broad parameters of the program, but when learning starts, this language related needs would be altered, and some sort of learning needs which were not specified pre-course will appear. Therefore, at this step “subjective needs”
analysis is essential to collect information from learners so as to
guide the learning process.
Richterich and Chancerel (1987) point out that due to the fact
that needs vary too much from person to person, the system should
have to be continually adapted. Richterich and Chancerel (1987:3)
hold the idea that ‘experience shows that in general the learner is
little aware of his needs and, in particular, he is unable to express
them in very clear terms’.

2.2 Munby’s Communicative Needs Processor

The central idea of Munby’s formation of his framework is the
concept of the language user’s competence and its relation to
knowledge and communication (Munby 1978:6). Needs analysis is
at the heart of his approach. In an attempt to specify validly in the
target communicative competence, Munby designed what is known
as Communicative Needs Processor (CNP). He mentioned in the
preface of his book “Communicative Syllabus Design” the effect of
Dell Hymes and Michael Halliday discussion on communicative
approach to language teaching:

“I was influenced at the macro-level by the
sociolinguistic writing of Dell Hymes and Michael
Halliday, and at more micro-level by the work of, in
particular, Henry Widdowson, David Wilkins and
Christopher Candlin”.

Munby’s Communicative Needs Processor (CNP) is considered
the most popular procedure for the analysis of needs. Teachers of
English, especially those concerned with the teaching of English for
Specific Purpose, highly utilize his approach to the analysis of
needs and they follow his model for specifying communicative
competence.

Munby’s approach to build up participant or group of
participants’ profile works at two levels- priori and posteriori. At
the priori level Munby’s includes some parameters such as
participant, purposive domain, settings, interactions and
instrumentality. The information about the participant should
cern the identity and language needs:
“The data relating to identity provides information about the participant’s age, sex, nationally, and place of residence…….The data concerning language need identifies the participant’s target language need and the extent, if any, of his command of it…….”

![Diagram](image_url)

Fig. 1 Model for specifying communicative competence

The purposive domain parameter for Munby specifies the occupational or educational purpose for which the target language is required, where as the setting parameter specifies both physical and psychosocial setting in which the target language is required. Interaction parameter identifies those with whom the participant has to communicate in the target language and predicts the relationship
that may be expected to obtain between him and his interlocutors. By instrumentality Munby is concerned with identifying constraints on the input in terms of medium, mode, and channel of communication.

At the posteriori level Munby presented Parameter such as dialect, target level, communicative event, and communicative key. The main dimension of dialect here is the regional/non regional e.g. to specify whether it is British or American, or regional variety of either. The participant target level of command should be stated in terms that will guide the further processing through the model. The parameter of communicative event is concerned with what the participant has to do, either productively of receptively and the parameter of communicative key is concerned with how one does the activities comprising an event.

Munby model is considered the most sophisticated application of needs analysis. It has received much criticism from being too mechanistic, and for paying to little attention to the perception of the learner. It has led, in some instances, to syllabuses with a narrow focus such as “English of Motor Mechanics’ and ‘English for Biological Science’. The assumption behind the development of some such syllabuses is that there are certain aspects of language which are peculiar to the contexts in which it is used and the purposes for which it is used. For example, it is assumed that there are certain structures, functions, topics, vocabulary items, conceptual meanings, and so on that are peculiar to the world of the motor mechanic and which are not found in ‘General English’.

It is also assumed that different areas of use will require different communication skills from the learner, and that these needs to be specifically taught for the area of use in question (Numan 1988b).

2.3 Nunnan’s (1988a) “Learner- Centered Approach”

Nunan takes a ‘bottom-up view of curriculum development. Curriculum seen by him in terms of ‘what teachers and learners actually do’ (learner-centered curriculum) rather than ‘what should be’ (traditional curriculum). The focus of learner-centered curriculum is on ESP and it is also useful for ‘those working in EFL and also to those working with children’ (Nunan 1988a).
The key difference between learner-centered and traditional curriculum development is that, in the former the curriculum is a collaborative effort between teachers and learners, since learners are closely involved in the decision making process regarding the content of the curriculum and how it is taught.

Table 1.2. (Adopted from: Quinn 1984: 61-64)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Traditional approaches</th>
<th>Communicative approaches</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>1. Focus on learning:</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Focus is on the language as a structured system of grammatical patterns</td>
<td>Focus is on communication</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>2. How language items are selected:</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>On linguistic criteria alone.</td>
<td>on the basis of what language items the learner needs to know in order to get things done</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>3. How language items are sequenced:</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>This is determined on linguistic ground</td>
<td>This is determined on other ground with the emphasis on content, meaning and interest.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>4. Degree of Coverage:</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The aim is to cover the ‘Whole Picture’ of language structure by Systematic linear</td>
<td>The aim is to cover, in any particular phase, only what the learner needs progression.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>5. View of language:</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A language is seen as a unified entity with fixed grammatical patterns and a core of basic words.</td>
<td>The Variety of language is accepted and seen as determined by the character of particular communicative contexts.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>6. Type of language used:</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tends to be formal and bookish.</td>
<td>Genuine everyday language is emphasized.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### 7. What is regarded as a criterion of success:

| Aim is to have students produce formally correct sentences. | Aim is to have students communicate effectively and in a manner appropriate to the context they are working in. |

### 8. Which language skills are emphasized:

| Reading and writing | Spoken interactions are regarded at least as important as reading and writing |

### 9. Teacher/Student role:

| Tends to be teacher-centered. | It is student centered. |

### 10. Attitude to errors:

| Incorrect utterances are seen as deviation | Partially correct and incomplete utterances are seen as such rather than just ‘wrong’ |

### 11. Similarity/Dissimilarity to natural language learning:

| Reverses the natural language learning process by concentrating on the form of utterances rather than on the content. | Resembles the natural language Learning process in that the content of the utterances is emphasized rather than the form. |

Nunan like Brindley and Richterich talked about “subjective” and “objective” needs analysis. He pointed out that the techniques for “subjective needs” analysis will therefore figure as prominently as a technique for “objective needs” analysis. However, in learner-centered system, course designers will engage in extensive consultation with learners themselves in deriving parameters and such system is considered as a utilitarian rational: skills are taught because the learner wishes to utilize them for some purpose beyond the learning environment itself, not simply because they happen to be part of a subject or academic discipline (Nunan 1988a:42)
‘Objective’ data is that factual information which does not require the attitude and view of the learners to be taken into account. Thus, biographical information on age, nationally, home language, etc. is said to be ‘objective’. ‘Subjective’ information, on the other hand, reflects the perceptions, goals, and priorities of the learner. It will include, among other things, information on why the learner has undertaken to learn a second language, and the classroom tasks and activities which the learner prefers. (Nunan 1988b:18)

2.4 Berwick’s needs assessment in language program

Berwick (1978,1984,1989) defines needs as ‘a gap or measurable discrepancy between a current state of affairs and a desired future state’ He also distinguishes two types of needs as ‘felt’ needs and ‘perceived’ needs. Berwick outlines some essential concepts in educational planning and how they are influencing the ways in which language program planners undertake language needs assessment as follows:

(1). Designs based on an organized body on knowledge:
This has been the predominant design until relatively recent past. It emphasizes the direct link between an academic discipline and content and procedures used during instruction. The focus in this designs generally on the intellectual development of the learner, although, as in the case of structural or functional syllabuses, the primary point is transfer of a systematic body of knowledge. The main academic sources for designs in language programming include literature and linguistics.

(2) Designs based on specific competence:
These emphasize performance objectives and learning of skills for particular purpose, although ‘skills’ can mean almost any level of specificity the (‘four skills’- reading, writing, speaking, and listening- versus using the target language to confirm order for a meal in a restaurant). Specification of objectives in a
major component of this design, especially in programs
designed to each language for specific purpose.

(3) Designs based on social activities and problems:
This approach to planning has been most influential in second
(as opposed to foreign) language teaching, i.e., for immigrants
or new residents of a culture in which target language is
viewed as a tool for coping with the social and economic
demands of daily life. Heavy emphasis is placed on language
as a tool of survival and on exposure to experiences in the
community which will assist survival.

(4) Design based on cognitive or learning processes:
This orientation has always been a peripheral rather than
mainstream way of approaching instructional design. It stresses
the ways learners think (over content of instruction per se) and
aims at strengthening the learner’s ability to examine and solve
problems on their own, perhaps the best developed application
of this approach, in applied linguistics can be seen in the
organization of composition courses and materials (for
example Lawrence, 1972) although a theoretical basis for
process approaches in instructional syllabuses has been

(5) Designs based on feelings and attitudes:
These approaches represent the humanistic, affective end of the
planning spectrum, an appealing region too those who believe
that learning must bring people together and that the capacity
to learn increases with one’s openness to others. Miller (1976)
and Rogers (1969) offer exemplary rationales for this design in
educational planning. Those who apply humanistic values in
language programming would emphasize development of the
person through language (see, for example, La Forge, 1983;
Moskowitz, 1978), and thus would view language more as a
tool than an object.

(6) Designs based on needs and interest of the learner.
This approach to planning has generally supported rather than
supplanted other approaches, although needs based curricula
have been in vogue for the past twenty years, particularly in
public education systems. It constitutes a strong justification
for the decisions planners make about instruction, for example,
to say that their way of organizing it will meet learners’ needs.
The central characteristics of the approach include systematic assessment of learners ‘language needs’ along with consultation of learners of this orientation in applied linguistics would include Stevick (1971), Munby (1978), the Council of Europe (Richerich and Chancerel 1980).

Furthermore, various analyses and approaches to needs assessment were put forward: analytic view of needs analysis which examines expert opinion, and diagnostic approach which examines the learner’s needs to be used in social services (Berwick, 1989); discrepancy analysis which attempts to examine what people know and what they ought to know, and democratic approach which is based on learner points of view (Stufflebeam et al, 1985, quoted in Berwick, 1989).

2.5 Brindley and the role of Needs Analysis

Brindley, unlike others, called for a ‘broad’ or ‘process- oriented’ interpretation of needs. He sees needs primarily in terms of the needs of the learner as an individual in the learning situation. Needs analysis means, for him, trying to identify and take into account a multiplicity of affective of cognitive variables which affect learning, such as learner’s attitudes, motivation, awareness, personality, want, expectations, and learning styles.

Brindley adopted Richteridh (1972.1980, 1983 and 1984) distinction between what is called ‘objective’ and ‘subjective’ needs analysis. Objective needs analysis aimed at collecting factual information for the purposes of setting broad goals related to language content, whereas subjective needs analysis aimed at gathering information about learners which can be used to guide the learning process once it is under way.

In a research project to investigate the feasibility of implementing a learner-centered system in Australian Adult Migrant Education Project, Bridley (1984) made a survey on teachers’ understanding of ‘student needs’. The result of the survey can be categorized under three headings: the ‘language proficiency’ view of needs, the ‘psychological- humanistic’ view and the ‘specific purpose’ view.
### Table 1.3. Comparison of Approaches to Needs Analysis

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Language proficiency’ orientation</th>
<th>Psychological/ humanistic’ orientation</th>
<th>Specific purposes’ orientation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>View of the learner</td>
<td>Learner as a language learner</td>
<td>Learner as a ‘sentient human being’ in society with the capacity to become self-directing.</td>
<td>Learner as a language user.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>View of needs</td>
<td>Objective needs stressed. Needs seen as gap between present and desired general language proficiency</td>
<td>Subjective needs stressed. Needs seen as gap between current state of awareness and state of awareness necessary for learner to become self-directing.</td>
<td>Objective needs stressed. Needs seen as gap between present language performance in a specific area and language performance required in a particular communication situation.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Emphasizes</td>
<td>Ease of administration where the learner is at in terms of language. Proficiency in one or more skills. Relevance of language content to learner’s proficiency level</td>
<td>Sensitive to adults’ subjective needs where learners is at terms of awareness. Relevance of learning content and methods to individual learning styles.</td>
<td>Collection of detailed data on objective needs. Whereas the learner is going in terms of language performance relevance of language content to learner’s personal goals and social roles.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Educational rational</td>
<td>Language learners learn more effectively in a group containing learners of a</td>
<td>Adult learn more effectively if they are involved in the learning proceed through consultation and</td>
<td>Language users learn more effectively if programmed content is relevant to their specific area of need</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Type of information</td>
<td>Biographical information</td>
<td>Biographical information</td>
<td>Biographical information on native speakers use of language in learners’ target communication situation information, where relevant, on the needs of other parties in the relevant communication situation e.g. factory foremen.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-----------------------------</td>
<td>--------------------------</td>
<td>--------------------------</td>
<td>-----------------------------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Information on learners' language proficiency information on learners language difficulties</td>
<td>Information on learners’ attitudes, motivation and awareness information on learners’ personality and learning style. Information on learners’ desires and expectations about learning English.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Method of information collection</td>
<td>Standardized forms* Language proficiency test* Observation</td>
<td>Standard forms* Observation Counseling/ interview Oral survey* Group discussions</td>
<td>Standardized forms* Intensive language analysis in target communication situation language proficiency test* Survey of learners’ pattern of language use* Survey of needs of particular bodies of individuals outside A.M.E.S.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Time of information collection</td>
<td>Mainly pre-course some in-course diagnostic</td>
<td>Pre-course constant in course consultation and</td>
<td>Mainly pre-course Some ongoing in course consultation and feedback</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

similar proficiency level. Language learners learn more effectively if programmed content is geared to their proficiency level.

negotiation. Their past experience and present capacities should be valued and taken into account.

or interest. General language proficiency is not as important as the ability to operate effectively in specific areas relevant to the learners’ needs and interests.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>How analysis of information is used</th>
<th>Assessment and feedback, depending on teacher.</th>
<th>Feedback.</th>
<th>Depending on teacher</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Decision made concerning learners’ current ability to use English Decision made concerning language learning priorities in light of present proficiency and diagnosed difficulties.</td>
<td>Decision provisionally made about types of learning environment, methods, and content which might be appropriate for learner’ subjective needs, taking into account their attitudes, motivation and awareness. Decisions constantly revised and objectives modified in the light of ongoing negotiation.</td>
<td>Decisions made on appropriate language content to meet communication needs of learners. Reconciliation of language needs of learners with those of other parties (e.g. management).</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Purposes for collecting information</td>
<td>So that learners can be placed in groups of homogeneous language proficiency so that teachers can plan language content relevant to learners’ proficiency level</td>
<td>So that adults individual characteristic as learners can be given due consideration in providing learning opportunities so that adult can be helped to become self-directing by being involved in decision making about their own learning.</td>
<td>So that learners will be presented with language data relevant to their own personal goals and social goals and social roles so that motivation will be enhanced by the relevance of this language content and learning will thus be facilitated.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Brindley (1989:70) stated that in theory it would be possible for teacher to subscribe to all three of the approaches to needs analysis outlined above, their response showed a tendency for some kinds of needs to be emphasized on the expense of others. In general, it appeared that while most teachers were attempting to diagnose learners’ objective needs through collective some combination of personal data, information about their language proficiency and interaction patterns, they had much more difficulty in systematically identifying and catering for subjective needs.

Brindly (1989) and Robinson (1980) consider all factual information about the learner-language proficiency, language difficulties, use of language in real life to form objective needs, whereas cognitive and affective needs of the learner in language learning-confidence, attitudes, expectations are considered to form subjective needs.

3. The Needs Analysis in India

In India, the needs analysis started with the experimental project of Michael West long back in the year 1926.

3.1 The Experimental Project of Michael West

The notion of needs analysis originally came into existence in Indian educational system with the experimental project of Michael West (1888-1973). Michael West wrote a report called Bilingualism (with special reference to Bengal) published by the Indian Bureau of Education in 1926. Michael West challenged the imperial education system which had pursued a policy known as ‘filtering’, that is, trying to ensure that the best students were ‘filtered’ through the system to end up in government employment of some appropriate kind. He invented the concept of ‘surrender value’ that means’ the appropriate amount of benefit which will be derived by any pupil from an uncompleted course of instruction”. In this view, training in spoken English took far too long to have any useful ‘surrender value’, for the majority of school leavers. Basic literacy skills in English could be acquired much more
rapidly, particularly if the children were already literate in their mother tongue. Moreover, they could be used in later life whereas spoken English was a useless skill for most Bengalis away from the major centers of imperial influence. West viewed that each year in school had to be treated as a separate educational experience in its own right, not merely as preparation for the next stage that large numbers of the children would never reach.

In order to investigate his concept of “surrender value” in more depth West completed a needs- analysis survey; an analysis of the Bengali’s need of English’ stressing his interest in all Bengalis, not merely a few selected individuals of the upper class. His sample was gathered from class three students (eight-year-olds) in the year 1919 (West1922 chapter 5 report).

West noticed the importance of practical informative reading and the need to provide worthwhile learning at each stage of the school. So, he decided that the teaching of reading must have first priority, even if this meant the relative neglect of the spoken language. This idea was supported by his experimental study, which was conducted in the year 1919 as a pilot experiment. The knowledge of English of these Bengali students of class 3 (eight-years-old) was virtually zero. At this stage the reading materials were locally produced for primers and elementary readers. Each new text was introduced by the teacher who selected what he thought were the new words, glossed them and practiced them on the blackboard. Comprehension questions were set to be answered in the vernacular. The result of this first trial was disappointing and therefore the procedure was modified so that the children could be encouraged to tell the teacher which words they did not understand. Still there were great difficulties. Eventually, West realized that there were two main ways in which the reading text could be improved in order to help the children to achieve more. The first was to simplify the vocabulary by replacing old-fashioned literary words by equivalents that are more common. The second was the principle of readability or what could be called a “lexical distribution principle”. West tried to reduce introducing new items in the text. This meant that instead of introducing new words in every new sentence, the children would have five or six sentences of practice material between each new word (West 1926:275). West research was full of uncontrolled variables of one sort or another.
Nevertheless, the main point was clear enough. The children made better progress in reading with text that did not introduce too many new words too frequently. This observation met the pupil’s needs which was supported by his research and considered to be the seed idea of “needs analysis” in Indian educational system.

3.2 The Need based Survey for Science and Technology Program

Encouraged by the experimental project of Michael West, the Curriculum Development Cell at the Institute of Technology, Kanpur, India, conducted the first survey of this kind in the recent past. The survey was called the Need based English for Science and Technology (NEST) program. The data obtained through this survey were partly published in NEST - Folder2 and NEST –Folder 3.

The survey was basically conducted to look into the language needs of the students of Science and Technology; however, it went beyond its limited areas of reference and pointed towards a change in the ELT scene in India. The survey is a trend-setter in bridging the gap between the teachers and students regarding their perception of the Indian students. The survey used a compact questionnaire relating to the direct relevance to the students. The questionnaire examined eight major areas:

1. Importance of English for academic and professional purposes.
2. Fluency in English, whether or not an advantage
3. Relative importance of English in potential areas.
4. Whether students felt a need to improve their English
5. Which special skill to be included
6. Students’ personal preferences for an English course.
7. Students’ assessment of the existing courses
8. Student’s attitude towards self-study materials.

The survey found that 90% students considered English very important for purposes of study and 84% found proficiency in English the most essential. The demand of English was high (78%) for Research, technical and higher studies. The demand was moderate (59%) for Sales, Administration, and Consultancy. The
demand was low (14%) for Production, and Manufacturing field of works.

The survey has further revealed that a vast majority of students (78%) find it essential for their future careers. Above 80% of the students feel that their prospective employers prefer fluent speakers of English against those who can not speak English fluently. The NEST survey reveals that students have a strong motivation for learning English not only for their specific needs but also for their future plans. The students prefer English courses that match with their needs and improve their communicative ability. About 70% respondents feel dissatisfied with the existing English courses. A majority of the respondents feel the existing English courses to be uninteresting and useless, and therefore they want to study English through self-access materials.

The survey carried by the IIT Kanpur team revealed that there often occurred a conflict between the course makers’ perception of what the student’s need and what the students themselves feel they should get in the classroom. The sharp conflict between the students’ needs and their perceptions by the teachers has significant pedagogical implications for teaching and learning English in India.

4. Conclusion

The two survey reports point to the fact that English language teaching in India has to undergo serious rethinking not only in the content of the course, but also the whole process of teaching the language. The present policy of teacher dominating classroom must be done away with to allow more freedom to students in selecting their own task based on their needs.

References

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