CHAPTER TWO: REVIEW OF LITERATURE

2.1   <u>Introduction</u>

This research has its base in the field of English for Specific (or Special) Purposes, better known as ESP. Though the term 'ESP' has been around for a few decades, there has never been an absolute definition which can describe it totally. However, despite this shortcoming, the importance of ESP in the teaching of English to second/foreign language learners cannot be denied. ESP is a phenomenon which has developed across the world.

This chapter has been divided into several main sections. The first section looks at the literature on ESP in general, its development and its nature. This is important to the research as it provides background information on the field of study.

The researcher will then review the literature on needs analysis, important components of ESP. Various approaches to needs analysis are discussed to put this ethnographic research in perspective. Conventional ideas of needs have developed from one that only involves target-situation analysis to one that also includes the extensive language audits. However though ethnography looks at text in context (target situation), only recently has it been used to study or analyse needs. Thus this is a new development in ESP in general and needs analysis in particular.

In the last section, the researcher will look at ethnographic literature – the origins of ethnography, the marriage between the anthropological concept of ethnography and linguistics and the potential contributions of ethnography to ESP. The researcher will also touch on the academic research carried out in ESP especially ethnographic studies.

2.2   Factors Contributing to the Growth of ESP

Mackay and Mountford (1978) describe ESP as a reaction to a developing situation in English Language Teaching (ELT). According to Hutchinson and Waters (1987), this situation has three main forces or trends which are the main contributors to the development of ESP.

The first trend is the growing need to create courses which are cost-effective and have clearly defined goals to cater to the wishes, needs and demands, not of language teachers, but of specific group of learners. These people, usually ESL or EFL users, crave the knowledge of science and technology which are dominated by the Americans (see Hutchinson and Waters, 1987). Literature, seminars and conferences on the developments of these two fields are in English. Thus there is a need to understand the language better in order to derive benefits from these developments. This creates a pressure "on the language teaching profession to deliver the required goods" (Hutchinson and Waters, 1987:7).

At around the same time, a revolution in linguistics occurred. There was a shift of emphasis from centering on the formal features of language usage to discovering how language is used in context. This led to the general discovery that language is used differently from one context to the other. English used for business purposes varies from the language used for scientific matters. It was then believed that features of specific situation could be discovered and made into the basis of courses for this specific group of learners. Hutchinson and Waters (1987) state:

> "In short, the view gained ground that the English needed by a particular group of learners could be identified by analyzing the linguistic characters of their specialist area of work or study. 'Tell me what you need English for and I will tell you the English that you need' became the guiding principle of ESP"

> (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987:8)

The third trend which has been identified as an impetus to the growth of ESP was the focus on the learner due to new developments in educational psychology. There was a recognition of the importance of the learners, their learning styles and attitudes. Thus courses are developed with an emphasis on the learners' needs and interest.

> "The growth of ESP, then was brought by a combination of three important factors: the expansion of demand for English to suit

particular needs and developments in the fields of linguistics and educational psychology. All three factors seemed to point towards the need for increased specialization in language learning."

(Hutchinson and Waters, 1987:8)

2.3   Essence of ESP

As stated above, it is not easy to define ESP as Strevens (1980:109 in Robinson, 1991:1) suggests, " a definition of ESP that is both simple and watertight is not easy to produce". Perhaps the most overarching statement which could apply to ESP is by Robinson who describes ESP as an activity "involving education, training and practice, and drawing upon three major realms of knowledge: language, pedagogy and the students'/participants' specialist areas of interest" (Robinson, 1991:1).

ESP is directly related to language teaching. According to Hutchinson and Waters (1987), it is an approach to, not a product of, language teaching – learning based on learners' needs. They go around the definition of ESP by listing what ESP is not. To them, the "fact that language is used for a specific purpose does not imply that it is a special form of the language" (Hutchinson and Waters, 1987:18). Thus ESP is not just imparting to students 'specialised varieties' of English though there are features which can be considered typical of a certain context of use. Hutchinson and Waters (1987) also emphasize that in teaching ESP, there is a need to

differentiate between performance and competence, terms made famous by Chomsky (see Hutchinson and Waters, 1987). ESP is not just a matter of teaching specialised terms for specialized fields like science and technology but the ESP practitioner must be able to distinguish between "what people actually do with the language and the range of knowledge and abilities which enables them to do it" (Hutchinson and Waters, 1987:18). Finally, Hutchinson and Waters state that teaching ESP is no different from any other form of language teaching as it is based on the "principles of effective and efficient learning" (Hutchinson and Waters, 1987:18).

Robinson (1991) lists down a number of features which are thought to be criterial to an ESP course. To her, the difference between ESP and English for General Purposes (EGP) is that the former is goal-orientated. Students learn English not because of their interest in the language but due to work or study purposes. Another important feature of an ESP course is that "it is based on a needs analysis, which aims to specify as closely as possible what exactly it is that students have to do through the medium of English" (Robinson, 1991:3). Needs analysis used to focus on target requirements but now the term also includes the students' initial or learning needs.

Like Hutchinson and Waters (1987), Robinson (1991) does not agree that specialist language is a criterial feature of ESP. To her the activities that students engage in are more important and these should be guided by what the needs analysis suggests.

Courses should be "designed with particular students in mind, whatever their work or study needs and their personal preferences" (Robinson, 1991:5). This is what differentiates ESP from EGP. "The concern of ESP with delicacy of context is something which distinguishes it from ELT in general" (Richards, 1989:215 in Robinson, 1991:5).

Strevens (1989) suggests that in order to define ESP, one needs to distinguish between its absolute and variable characteristics. Following in the footsteps of Strevens is Dudley-Evans (1997, in Anthony, 1997) who sets the parameters of ESP by listing down the absolute and variable characteristics of ESP. The absolute characteristics of ESP are that it:

> "1) meets specific needs of learners; 2) makes use of methods and activities of disciplines it serves; 3) centers on the language appropriate to these activities re: grammar, lexis, register, study skills, discourse, genre."
>
> (Dudley-Evans, 1997 in Anthony, 1997:2)

These characteristics are similar to Strevens (1989) except that Dudley-Evans removes the fourth characteristic which states that ESP is "in contrast with 'General English'" (Johns and Dudley-Evans, 1991:298 in Anthony, 1997:2). Dudley-Evans (1997 in Anthony, 1997) also expands on Strevens' (1989) idea of

variable characteristics of ESP by including more features.   To the former, ESP may:

> "1) be related to or designed for specific disciplines; 2) use a different methodology from that of general English; 3) be designed for adult learners, either at a tertiary level or in a professional work situation (but can be adapted at secondary levels, too); 4) be designed for intermediate or advanced students; 5) assume basic knowledge of language systems."
>
> <div align="right">(Dudley-Evans, 1997 in Anthony, 1997:2)</div>

In ESP, the learner's needs take central importance. In order to identify learner's needs, an analysis based on the localised situation (Tarone & Yule, 1989 in West, 1994) must be conducted. Thus the following section will focus on needs analysis.

2.4   **Needs Analysis**

Richterich (1983:2 in West, 1994:3) states that "the very concept of needs itself has never been clearly defined and remains at best ambiguous". This could be due to lack of "objective reality" of needs (Brindley, 1989:65 in Robinson, 1991:7). The concept of needs is indeed very subjective as it depends on the preconceptions of the analyst who carries out the analysis.

Robinson (1991) lists five types or meanings of needs. The first is a goal-oriented definition of needs where the learners' job or study requirements are analyzed and used as a target for the students to achieve. Next, needs is viewed as "what the user-institution or society at large regards as necessary or desirable to be learnt from a programme of language instruction" (Mountford, 1981:27 in Robinson, 1991:7). The subsequent type of needs is a process-oriented definition where how the students learn takes central importance:

> " . . . what the learner needs to do to actually acquire the language. This is a process-oriented definition of needs and relates to transitional behavior, the means of learning"
>
> (Widdowson, 1981:2 in Robinson, 1991:7)

The fourth type of needs relates to the students' own desire – what they would like to acquire from the course. Robinson's (1991) last interpretation of needs refers to what the students lack, that is, what they do not know is taken into consideration.

West (1994) expanded on Robinson's definitions of needs. He lists down six types of needs analysis which lead to different approaches of analysis.

The foremost consideration in needs analysis is what West (1994) terms as necessities (see also Hutchinson and Waters, 1987). This is similar to Robinson's first type of needs where the objective or goal of the course is analysed by looking

at the target situation – "what the learner has to know in order to function effectively" (Hutchinson and Waters, 1987:55). The approach to identify necessities is known as target situation analysis (TSA).

The most famous model of TSA was designed by Munby (1978). His model is based on a two-part instrument – a communicative needs processor which is then converted to communicative competence specification. However, Munby's approach has been severely criticised for its shortcomings. West (1994) summarises the criticisms under four main shortcomings – complexity, learner-centredness, constraints and language.

Though Munby's model is supposedly meant to be exhaustive, critics viewed it as too rigid, complicated and time consuming. Thus the complexity of his approach to needs analysis is seen as an obstacle. Other subsequent target-situation analyses used a simpler approach. Critics have also accused Munby's model for failing to centre the approach on the learner. Another weakness of Munby's model is that he saw "constrains as matters to be considered after the needs analysis procedure had been worked through, leading to an inevitable 'compromise phase'" (West, 1994:9). The last criticism deals with Munby's failure "to provide a procedure for converting the learner profile into a language syllabus" (West, 1994:9). Thus though, Munby's model is supposed to look into a learner's necessities, its weakness necessitates other approaches to needs analysis.

Though Munby's and others' target situation analyses look at the ultimate end, it has been argued that some courses might be designed with short-term aims in mind rather than the ultimate aim of reaching target situation proficiency. Thus Robinson's (1991) goal-oriented definition could be extrapolated here.

The 'lacks' of the students is also mentioned by West (1994) to be considered as needs. Just basing a language course on necessities is not enough as students might already possess some of the necessary knowledge or skills. Thus an approach called present situation analysis or deficiency analysis is used to find out what the learners lack. Deficiency analysis could also be used to discover the learners' wants or desires, the third type of needs mentioned by West (1994). The learners' wants have often been devalued as irrelevant but this is felt to be too shortsighted of a view as wants have to be accommodated to ensure the success of an ESP program. Deficiency analysis usually comprise of two vital components: "(a) an inventory of potential target needs expressed in terms of activities and (b) a scale that is used to establish (and subsequently re-establish) the priority that should be given to each activity" (West, 1994:10).

Another type of needs referred to by West (1994) is the need to discover learning strategies of the learners. He refers to Hutchinson and Waters (1987) who propagate that "the learner's preferred learning strategies for progressing from where they are (present situation/lacks/deficiencies) to where they want to go (target situation/necessities)" (West, 1994:4) must be considered in course design.

This type of needs is usually approached by strategy analysis where "the preferred learning styles and content expectations" (James, 1980:8 in West, 1994:10) of the students are taken into account.

The next element which has to be considered is logistical and pedagogical in nature. It relates to the means that are available to train the students. This includes "potential and the constraints of the learning situation" (West, 1994:4). Means analysis is the approach devised to look at this type of needs. One of the most well known approaches was created by Holliday and Cooke (1982) – the ecological approach. The ecological approach takes into major consideration "how to make ESP take root, grow, bear fruit and propagate in the local soil" (Holliday and Cooke, 1982:126).

The sixth and final needs analysis is the language audit. The language audit is used "to determine what languages ought to be learnt, for what reasons, by how many people, to what level, in what type of institution, by what methods, at what cost, and so on" (West, 1994:5). These considerations had been originally deemed to be irrelevant for traditional needs analysis but has gained importance as it is deemed to be a matter of language planning. Language audits are usually big-scale, conducted by a company, organisation or even the government and may include the various approaches to needs analysis mentioned above.

Needs analysis looks at the broad needs of the learners but one needs to query about the identity of the learners. They are usually specific group of people who have some features in common. It is here that the concept of discourse community comes into play. The next section will look briefly at the concept of discourse community.

2.5   **Discourse Community**

Like 'ESP', the concept of discourse community is difficult to define:

> "The idea of "discourse community" is not well defined as yet, but
> like many imperfectly defined terms, it is suggestive, the center of
> a set of ideas rather than the sign of a settled notion"
>
> (Herzberg, 1986:1 in Swales, 1990:22)

Swales (1990) who popularized the term, set six criteria to classify a group of individuals as a discourse community. This group of individuals should have "common goals, participatory mechanism, information exchange, community specific genres, a highly specialised terminology and a high level of expertise" to be classified as a discourse community. Unlike speech communities, members of discourse communities do "not inherit its membership by birth, accident or adoption but by persuasion, training or relevant qualification" (Swales, 1990:20). Discourse

community members belong to a *"specific interest group"* (Swales, 1990). This group or community:

> "is a creation primarily by its members and secondarily by
> outsiders that allows members to be characterized in terms of a
> range of generalized behavior patterns constructed through a
> cognitive network of norms, beliefs and events. This network is
> presented as typical of a certain group."

> (Boswood, 1994:6 in Sellapah, 1998:16)

As 'community' is a sociolinguistic concept, it is therefore appropriate that a sociological approach be adapted and adopted to investigate the discourse community. The approach used in this research is ethnography.

2.6   <u>Ethnography</u>

Ethnography was originally an anthropological term which described an approach to investigate the "ways of living" (Heath, 1982 in Watson-Gegeo, 1988:576) of a social group. Its major concern is to describe and analyse the culture of a chosen community. As Ainol (1993) points out:

> "Ethnography has, as its central tenet, the belief that the context in
> which the behaviour occurs has a significant impact on that

behaviour (Nunan, 1992). Therefore, any aspect of a culture or a behaviour has to be described and explained in relation to the whole system of which it is a part."

(Ainol, 1993:103)

Ethnography is qualitative and naturalistic research which places emphasis on the context or the environment of the data where the cultural interactions take place. It takes on a holistic approach where data is not considered individually, separated from context but must be taken as whole together with any relevant background information.

Besides its concern with naturalistic data, ethnography also focuses on groups rather than individuals. Though it is the individual who provides the data, the ethnographer is interested in the shared cultural behaviour of these individuals. The ethnographer also deals directly with the subjects under study, sometimes to the extent of going 'undercover' and being one of them.

Another vital consideration in ethnography is the need to understand the situation on its own terms. Though the ethnographer does not investigate with a "blank slate" (Watson-Gegeo 1988:578), his or her interpretation of the situation must not be determined by existing pre-conceptions. These pre-conceptions could act as a guide to gathering and analyzing data, a flexible framework for research, but ultimately, it is the subjects' perspectives which must be given major consideration.

2.6.1 Ethnography of Communication

Though there was an awareness of the relationship between culture and language, it was only recently that an approach to investigate this relationship was developed. This approach devised by Hymes (1962, in Saville-Troike, 1989), studies the "patterning of communicative behavior as it constitutes one of the systems of culture, as it functions within the holistic context of culture, and as it relates to patterns in other component systems" (Saville-Troike, 1989:1). Thus with the "marriage" of linguistic and ethnography, the field of study now known as ethnography of communication is born.

With two main foci, particularistic and generalizing, ethnography of communication is directed "at the description and understanding of communicative behavior in specific cultural settings" as well as " toward the formulation of concepts and theories upon which to build a global metatheory of human communication" (Saville-Troike, 1989:2).

Ethnography of communication also focuses not only on the "rules for communication" but also "shared rules for interaction", "culture rules and knowledge that are the basis for the context and content of communicative events and interaction processes" (Saville-Troike, 1989:3). It is only after acquiring this

knowledge that a member can be deemed to have achieved communicative competence.

Hymes (1962 in Saville-Troike, 1989:3) "emphasizes what language is cannot be separated from how and why it is used, and that considerations of use are often prerequisite to recognition and understanding of much linguistic form".

As a field, ethnography could be a major source of information as it:

> " . . .extends understandings of cultural systems to language, at the same time relating language to social organization, role-relationships, values and beliefs, and other shared patterns of knowledge and behavior which are transmitted from generation to generation in the process of socialization/enculturation. . . the study of cultural maintenance and change, including various acculturation phenomena in contact situations. . ."
>
> (Saville-Troike, 1989:8)

Saville-Troike (1989) also points out the potential significant contributions of the field to applied linguistics especially to non-native learners of a language. Ethnography of communication will identify the necessary knowledge that a second/foreign-language learner must know in order to communicate competently

in various circumstances. The field could also identify the exemptions or sanctions given to these learners.

For ESP, this is indeed a valuable contribution. As most of the courses are designed for new or inexperienced members of a discourse community, ethnography of communication will be helpful in providing information on how they, as novices, could acculturate themselves in that community.

2.6.2 Methods in Ethnographic Investigation

Though this will be covered substantially in the next chapter, the researcher will briefly describe the methods available to an ethnographer in an ethnographic study.

Ethnography relies heavily on observation. Observation's main virtue is its directness. The researcher is able to gather data without being impaired by intermediaries. Thus by using this method, researchers are able to gather data that is untainted by obstacles which exist and placed between the researcher and the object of research (Ainol, 1993). Ainol (1993) also lists four typical roles that the ethnographer can assume in order to observe. They are complete participant, participant as observer, observer as participant and complete observer.

For complete participant, the researcher infiltrates into the group incognito where the subjects are unaware of her role in the study. On the other hand, a participant

observer informs his or her presence and intention to the group. The researcher will try to establish close relationship with the members of the group and actively participate in their interactions.

The role of observer as participant is constrained as the interaction with the subjects under study is limited in the sense that it is usually brief and formal. This leads to potential problems where the data gathered might not be extensive enough for the research. Another role which the researcher could adopt in an ethnographic study is the complete observer. The role requires no interaction with the subjects.

Another method frequently used by the ethnographer is interviews, formal or informal. Here data is gathered by soliciting opinions from the subjects. Pure ethnographers also often use audio or video recordings to gather data. This is related to observation, though it is belated. However, recordings sometimes interfere with the naturalistic environment as people often feel uncomfortable with the idea of being recorded.

Ethnographers also often collect artefacts or relevant documents to conduct their study. These artefacts could be analysed on their own merits or used as a way to triangulate the ethnographer's interpretation of the situation.

2.6.3 Related Studies

The field of ESP has produced numerous studies since its inception in the early 1960s. The earliest ESP-related investigation that the researcher has come across is Barber's (1962) 'Some Measurable Characteristics of Modern Scientific Prose'. Since then, more ESP-related researches have been conducted. At the moment, emphasis of studies has shifted from text analysis to context-based studies. The need to focus on the 'delicacy of context' is reflected in several studies which will be discussed below.

Chan Soon Keng (1994) conducted a needs analysis survey for Information Technology (IT) undergraduates in a Singapore university by interfacing with end-user institutions. Looking at the target needs of IT undergraduates, Chan focused on three groups of subjects – the IT graduates already working in the industry, hiring executives, who are assumed to know the specific communication skills needed and computer science undergraduates who had undergone a six-months Industrial Attachment which had exposed them to real communication in the workplace. These three groups of subjects were sent questionnaires with ranking exercises on aspects of communication, suggested activities, office automation frequency and open and close ended questions on their opinions of future communication activities, past courses and efficiency of trainers. The outcome of the study shows that though about half of the respondents expressed satisfaction of the communicative competence or training of IT undergraduates, more emphasis

need to be given to oral training especially those relating to real-life communication, human interactions and adaptability to the culture of an organisation. Like Chan, the researcher too aims to look at the end-user institution, however, on a case-study basis, using not a survey-based questionnaire method but an ethnographic study.

Another way of discovering the environment (or context) of a discourse community is by using the interview method. The Editorial Board of ESP Malaysia (1993) interviewed a senior member of Petronas to gather information on the "value system, conventions and expectations of Petronas as a discourse community" (Editorial Board, 1993:77). In discovering the company's culture of emphasizing on "team work, drive, motivation and initiative" (Editorial Board, 1993:77), the Board posits the possibility of incorporating these qualities into an ESP syllabus. As the study is based on interview with just one high-ranking personnel of Petronas, the Board recommended that a "more detailed ethnographic investigation into the discourse community" be conducted (Editorial Board, 1993:84). Though the researcher's own study is not conducted at Petronas, it is this call to conduct detailed ethnographic studies that the researcher has aimed to answer through her study.

Studies using the ethnographic approach were rare before the 1990s. One of the earliest studies which uses this approach is Ramani et. al.'s (1988) which aimed to revise and redesign English programmes for students of the Indian Institute of

Science, Bangalore. Being aware of "the inadequacy of the outsider as an observer" (Ramani et. al. 1988:81), the writers used ethnographic tools to collaborate with insiders who can give their expert opinions on the reality of communicative events of the particular "subculture". However, the study of Ramani et. al. (1988) looks more at the academic branch of ESP. It does not focus on the final target destination of the students – the workplace. The call is now on for ESP practitioners to witness for themselves the actual environment where the specialised text is used.

Boswood and Mariott (1994) draw on the principles of ethnographic enquiry to analyse courses for ESP practitioners. They use a novel idea of looking at ESP practitioners as a discourse community in their own right and one that ESL novices tries to acculturate themselves to. Instead of focussing on course design or genre analysis, Boswood and Mariott concentrate on the need to train these novices on the "fundamental aspects of their future professional environment" (Boswood and Mariott, 1994:3) – the business aspects. Boswood and Mariott analyse the key events of the course, namely the panel discussion, the analysis of communicative events using ethnolinguistic principles which is the main tool in their approach to the course, the site visits and course evaluation. The researchers recommend that there be a balance between emphasis on academic ESP and business and training aspects in ESP courses. The key mode of training should be based on ethnographic approach to permit "the ESP practitioner trainer to identify the intersecting discourse community involved and to define, in culturally valid terms, the multiple

roles which ESP practitioners might adopt" (Boswood and Mariott, 1994:19).
Boswood and Mariott thus advocate the use of ethnography for current and future
ESP practitioners. As a hopeful ESP practitioner, the researcher has thus decided
to use the ethnographic approach as recommended to look at one particular
discourse community.

As early as 1992, Boswood (in Ainol, 1993) had highlighted the lack of
ethnographic studies. Ainol (1993) responded to Boswood's recommendation of
the need to use explicit ethnographic approach for her study. Ainol (1993) is also
one of the first to use this approach in a Malaysian setting. She uses ethnographic
tools in conducting a needs analysis focussing her research on a case study of the
Display Monitor Department in a Japanese multinational manufacturing company.
Using her background knowledge as a holder of a Science (Electrical Engineering)
degree, Ainol infiltrates into the community as a full participant observer with only
a few personnel being aware of her actual identity. Through her study, Ainol
discovers that the Japanese management culture has a significant impact on the
organisational communication. Amongst others, she discovered that the
communicative events in the authentic working world is not only a purpose-driven
activity but that these communicative events are also governed by norms and
conventions and limited by time constraint. Thus there is a need to give more
emphasis in ESP courses on the need to "think on their feet" (Ainol, 1993:113).
Students should also be taught to adapt to the culture they attempt to enter. In this
case, the culture emphasizes team-work rather than the individual. This study has

indeed "aroused" the researcher's curiosity to find out "how people out there in the 'real world' communicate" (Ainol, 1993:114).

In another related study, Le Vasan (1994) uses the ethnographic approach to discover the culture and identify the target texts within a Malaysian business community. Having identified the preferred genre of communication, Le Vasan then continued to delve deeper into her findings. Her study's (1996) main objective was to discover the use of technology and how it influenced interaction in every day social encounters. Using ethnographic tools, Le Vasan attempted to discover the knowledge or using Chomsky's term, competence, needed for a member to effectively communicate and function in that particular business community which could be said to be technology driven. This has pedagogical implications as the knowledge to function and communicate effectively is what new members (ESP students) try to gain. Though the researcher's own study is not as extensive as Le Vasan's, it is also an attempt to gain "an understanding of the culture and identification of target texts (spoken and written) within which the learner wishes to participate" as this is considered a "prerequisite to the teaching of ESP" (Le Vasan, 1994:29).

Perhaps the study closest to this research is one conducted by Sellapah (1998) which focuses on the patterns of communication among a certain group of employees in an international hotel. This group comprising front office and sales and marketing personnel, was chosen because it was deemed that their roles and

responsibilities are vital to the survival of the hotel. The research which employed ethnographic tools, mainly of non-participant observation, provided insights and information on the culture of an international hotel with the ultimate aim of assisting ESP practitioners in their responsibilities. Though there are similarities in Sellapah's research and the researcher's own study in the sense that both cover the field of the hotel industry, different branches are focussed on. The researcher's study looks at a local chain of hotels where the patrons are mainly Malaysians as opposed to Sellapah's international hotel.

In summarising the related studies, the researcher wishes to point out that she has attempted to fulfill the recommendations or cover a different aspect of earlier works mentioned here. Where Chan (1994) uses the survey method to interface with end-user institutions, the researcher uses an ethnographic approach which is advocated by the Editorial Board (1993) and Boswood and Mariott (1994). Unlike Ramani et. al. (1988) who look at academic settings, this research focuses on members of a community who are already accepted as experts in their own right. Though there are similarities between Ainol's (1993), Le Vasan's (1996) and the researcher's own study in the use of ethnographic approach and the focus on occupational target situations, the fields chosen by the individual researchers vary from the manufacturing to business to hotel industry. Though Sellapah's (1998) also focuses on the hotel industry, the branch chosen by the researcher is the local hotel industry instead of the international. Thus it is hoped that this research will fill a small niche in the world of ethnographic studies in ESP.