A Case Study Evaluating an Innovative ESP Intervention Curriculum

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By

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Abstract

This case study is an evaluation of an innovative ESP intervention curriculum designed to improve the job-interview program in the ESP syllabus in an English medium university. The intervention curriculum was a pedagogic process tailored to the situated small culture of the Lebanese ESP class. Five ESP students attending a business communication course participated. The case study arrived at four general conclusions. First, it was found that the participants actively engaged in different structures of learning across the stages of the intervention curriculum, which included an enriched ESP learning session, simulation in the classroom context, the group interview, and simulation in the job-interview context. Second, it was found that the participants' job-interview performance improved when comparing their audio-visually recorded simulation in the classroom context to that held in the authentic job-interview context. Third, the participants perceived that their job-interview performance improved because they were better able to address the job-interview context and content. Fourth, the practitioner-researcher drawing on triangulated sources and methods of investigations posited that the intervention curriculum was a relatively effective pedagogic process since the three pedagogic tools of informal cooperative learning, simulating, and the impact of audiovisual recording seem to have been positively perceived and were integrated into the participants' effort towards professional improvement. In implementing the intervention curriculum as pedagogy, shortcomings were found. Participants did not interact freely amongst each other, their classmates, and their lecturer. In addition, some students exhibited weaknesses in communicative skills. Recommendations were made to amend the intervention curriculum and change the research design. Future research was called for which would investigate and then contrast with the present study, the job-interview skills of ESP participants who belong to another English medium university outside the Arab world.
# List of Contents

## Chapter One: Introduction To This Study

1.1 Introduction                                           1  
1.2 What Prompted the Study                                1  
1.3 Importance of the Study Given its Socio-cultural and Educational Framework 4  
  1.3.1 Foreign Languages and Foreign Culture in the Lebanese Curriculum 4  
  1.3.2 Language Learning in Private Schools                9  
  1.3.3 ESP in Private Universities where English is the Medium of Instruction 12  
1.4 Purpose of the Study                                    16  
1.5 Scope of This Study                                     16  
1.6 Plan of the Study                                       18  

## Chapter Two: The Conceptual Framework

2.1 Introduction                                           20  
2.2 Curriculum                                             20  
2.3 The Language Classroom                                 25  
  2.3.1 Small Cultures versus Large Culture in the Language Learning Classroom 27  
  2.3.2 Structuring the Language Classroom                  30  
2.4 English for Specific Purposes                           35  
  2.4.1 A Situated Localized Approach to Teaching Business English 39  
2.5 The Job-interview                                       47  
2.6 Training for the Job-interview                           51  
2.7 Conclusion                                             55  

## Chapter Three: The Intervention and Evaluation Curriculum

3.1 Introduction                                           57  
3.2 Intervention Curriculum                                 57  
  3.2.1 Learning in the ESP Classroom                        57  
  3.2.2 The Simulated Interview in the Classroom Context     61  
  3.2.3 The Group Interview                                  62  
  3.2.4 The Simulated Interview in the Job-Interview Context 63  
3.3 Evaluation Phase                                        63  
  3.3.1 Research Interviews with the Company-Interviewer    63  
  3.3.2 Assessment Interviews with the Participants          64  
3.4 Conclusion                                             64  

## Chapter Four: Methodology

4.1 Introduction                                           65  
4.2 Purpose and Research Questions                         65  
4.3 Research Design                                        66
List of Illustrations

List of Figures

Figure 2.1: The Relationship Between Plans and Outcomes 26
Figure 2.2: ESP Classification by Professional Area 36
Figure 2.3: Continuum of ELT Course Types 37
Figure 2.4: The Flow of Communication in Business English 38
Figure 2.5: Linearly Related Needs Analysis 42
Figure 2.6: Interdependence in Needs Analysis 43
Figure 2.7: What Needs Analysis Establishes 45
Figure 2.8: Stages For the Applicant in the Selection Interview 52
Figure 2.9: Criteria For Evaluating Applicants. 53
Figure 3.1: The Simulated Interview in the Classroom Setting 61
Figure 4.1: Triangulation in the Research Process 70

List of Tables

Table 1.1: Number of Hours of Language Taught per Week Across the Three Levels 10
Table 1.2: The Six Stages of the Curriculum Intervention and Evaluation 17
Table 3.1: Self-Analysis 58
Table 3.2: Requirements in the Job Hunt 59
Table 3.3: Overview of Course Lecture on the Job-interview 59
Table 4.1: Overview of The Research Process 74
Table 5.1: Overview of The Findings 85
Table 5.2a: The Five Participants in the ESP Classroom 86
Table 5.2b: General Characteristics of the Participants 88
Table 5.3: A Profile on the Five Volunteers 89
Table 5.4: The Five Company-Interviewers 90
Table 5.5: Answering the Five Research Questions 90
Table 5.6: Participant Evaluation Measure of Michel’s Class Simulation 92
Table 5.7: Summarizes Possible Influence of Moderators in Michel’s Class Simulation 93
Table 5.8: Participant Evaluation Measure of Josiane’s Class Simulation 94
Table 5.9: Summarizes Possible Influence of Moderators in Josiane’s Class Simulation 95
Table 5.10: Participant Evaluation Measure of Tony’s Class Simulation 96
Table 5.11: Summarizes Possible Influence of Moderators in Tony’s Class Simulation 97
Table 5.12: Participant Evaluation Measure of Khalil’s Class Simulation 98
Table 5.13: Summarizes Possible Influence of Moderators in Khalil’s Class Simulation 99
Table 5.14: Participant Evaluation Measure of Rani’s Class Simulation 99
Table 5.15: Summarizes Possible Influence of Moderators in Rani’s Class Simulation 100
Table 5.16: Feedback of Class on Michel’s Class Simulation and His/Her Reaction 101
Table 5.17: Michel’s Feedback on Performance in the Class Simulation 101
Table 5.18: Feedback of Class on Josiane’s Class Simulation and His/Her Reaction 102
Table 5.19: Josiane’s Feedback on Performance in the Class Simulation 103
Table 5.20: Feedback of Class on Tony’s Class Simulation and His/Her Reaction 103
Table 5.21: Tony’s Feedback on Performance in the Class Simulation 103
Table 5.22: Feedback of Class on Khalil’s Class Simulation and His/Her Reaction 104
Table 5.23: Khalil’s Feedback on Performance in the Class Simulation 105
Table 5.24: Feedback of Class on Rani’s Class Simulation and His/Her Reaction 105
Table 5.25: Rani’s Feedback on Performance in the Class Simulation 106
Table 5.26: Participant Evaluation Measure of Michel’s Second Simulation 107
Table 5.27: Summarizes Possible Influence of Moderators in Michel’s Second Simulation 108
Table 5.28: The Company-interviewer’s Evaluation of Michel 108
Table 5.29: Participant Evaluation Measure of Josiane’s Second Simulation
Table 5.30: Summarizes Possible Influence of Moderators in Josiane’s Second Simulation
Table 5.31: The Company-interviewer’s Evaluation of Josiane
Table 5.32: Participant Evaluation Measure of Tony’s Second Simulation
Table 5.33: Summarizes Possible Influence of Moderators in Tony’s Second Simulation
Table 5.34: The Company-interviewer’s Evaluation of Tony
Table 5.35: Participant Evaluation Measure of Khalil’s Second Simulation
Table 5.36: Summarizes Possible Influence of Moderators in Khalil’s Second Simulation
Table 5.37: The Company-interviewer’s Evaluation of Khalil
Table 5.38: Participant Evaluation Measure of Rani’s Second Simulation
Table 5.39: Summarizes Possible Influence of Moderators in the Second Simulation
Table 5.40: The Company-interviewer’s Evaluation of Rani
Table 5.41: Michel’s Evaluation of His Performance
Table 5.42: Josiane’s Evaluation of Her Performance
Table 5.43: Tony’s Evaluation of His Performance
Table 5.44: Khalil’s Evaluation of His Performance
Table 5.45: Rani’s Evaluation of His Performance
Table 5.46: Snapshots Reflecting Cooperative Behavior in the Simulation
Declaration Form

"I certify that this work is entirely my own and has not been accepted as part of or as a submission for another degree"

Signed -----------
Statement of Consent

"I withhold consent that this study be made available for photocopying and the use of other libraries via the University Library for a period of not more than three years.

Signed ---------------
Date: ---------------
Acknowledgements

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Chapter One: Introduction To This Study

1.1 Introduction

University students tend to perform unsuccessfullly at their first job-interview according to informal discussion with colleagues who are teachers of English for Specific Purposes (ESP) at a private English medium university in Lebanon. Accordingly, students tend to have problems in terms of responding persuasively to questions related to their job potential and regarding awareness of the job-description, the company's mission statement, or general market conditions. Questions related to personal ambition and long-term objective are often not convincingly responded to. At times, issues related to how their free time is spent in terms of sports, reading time, musical interests, civic and environmental responsibility are not reflected on. In addition, some students have difficulty expressing themselves using discourse markers, lengthy response time, and inappropriate paralinguistics in terms of pitch, rate, rhythm, volume, and tone. A final problem area is often their silent language in the interview context in terms of eye contact, facial expressions, proxemics, kinesics, punctuality, and general appearance.

Focusing on this problem area, this dissertation is a qualitative case study whose aim and objective is to determine whether participants' interview performance would improve when an innovative intervention curriculum was implemented. The case study is seen as an intensive holistic description and analysis of a bounded event, the intervention curriculum which included analysis of students' needs, analysis of context for the intervention and consideration of the impact of contextual factors, planning of learning outcomes, the organization, selection, and preparation of these materials, provision and maintenance of effective teaching, and evaluation of the program. These elements constitute a set of interrelated elements (Richards 2001) embodied in this study.

This chapter (chapter one) serves as the introduction to the dissertation and provides some background history. It begins with the rationale of the study explaining where and how I faced the problem area and provides the deeper understanding of the problem that I gained from the pilot studies I undertook. The second section states the importance of the study, drawing on literature related to the growth and development of the Lebanon and the Lebanese educational system. The third section notes the purpose of the study and the fourth
defines its scope. The chapter concludes with a statement about the structure of the dissertation.

1.2 What Prompted the Study

I planned this study because I had identified the above problem area in one of the courses that I teach. Lebanese ESP students faced difficulty in their job-interview as it was a new experience conducted in English. Most students speak English as their third language, and many students have no previous job-experience and no concept of the world of work or its expectations. Consequently, many ESP students perform unsuccessfully in their job-interviews. As a result, my objective was to familiarize, prepare, and evaluate a sample of Lebanese students’ job-interview performance.

The identified problem area was the Lebanese students’ interview performance in an interview conducted in English. To that avail, the job-interview as a problem area needed to be explored further, gathering and evaluating material that related, first, to ESP and job-interviews for Lebanese students taking the course in Lebanon and, second, to ESP and job-interviews in general. Such research has not been conducted in Lebanon or the regional area. As a result, I did some research on the main campus of the university in which I teach. I conducted some interviews in which I asked students taking ESP a number of questions related to the concept of interviewing. One of the questions I asked was what their concept of interviewing was. I also asked whether they were comfortable with the idea of interviewing and what, if any, were the problems they faced in interviewing or being interviewed (Akhras 2000a).

The feedback from the research pointed to issues related to the students’ socioeconomic background, their familiarity/lack of familiarity with the business world, educational background, command of language and nonverbal communication, attitude to classroom practice, and their sense of confidence. As I already mentioned, the qualitative research (Akhras 2000a) concluded that many ESP students on the main campus perceived the job-interview as difficult for two reasons: first, the concept and practice of the interview was new; second, the interview was conducted in English. Upon reflection, these causes led me to conclude that it is relevant for business students attending ESP classes to learn about the concept of interviewing and how it is conducted in Lebanon and abroad; in addition, that it is also relevant for them to have the opportunity to practice/simulate a job-interview in English before their actual selection interview. I was aware that ESP students’ educational
background was a teacher-centered environment where student behavior was structured and controlled by the teacher. Given such a background, many of the students might perceive being in charge of their classroom conduct in a simulated job-interview as a challenging event. Many students might be intimidated by the idea of simulating the interview in front of their classmates and teacher. They might also be concerned about having to conduct their interview in English.

In Spring 2000, I conducted another qualitative study dealing with ESP students' job-interview (Akhras 2000b). One of my objectives was to see whether including a classroom simulation of the job-interview would be positively or negatively perceived by participants who were to go through a selection interview. I found that in terms of their interview performance, four of the five participants perceived the role of the simulation positively. To better understand their perception of their job-interview, I carried out a discourse analysis (Akhras 2000c) on the research interviews of the Spring 2000 study. As a result, I gained some insight into how ESP business majors perceive themselves in the class and in their job-interview context. In general, ESP students perceived that they were self-confident in class though less confident in the job-interview context.

The second part of the qualitative preliminary research I conducted was related to the macro environment/culture surrounding the ESP class. The literature on ESP and/or job-interviews in regional, British-Australian-North American (BANA), and other countries in general, related to classroom management (Kuznetsova 2004/2002; Gim'nez 2004/1996), its methodology (Dawson 2005; Pinto da Silva 2003/1993), its classroom culture (Holliday 1994a), its students' learning preferences (Stapa 2004/2003), to new technologies and old mentalities (Thornbury 2005; Al-Rabai 2005) to teacher's and students' expectations (Pinto da Silva 2003/1993), to cooperative learning and simulation (Marshall 2003/2002), to uncertainty avoidance (Abdallah 2003/1999), to micro and macro culture (Sharifian 2004/1999), to foreign culture (Shaaban & Ghaith 1999), to distinction and dichotomies of language and culture (Pulverness 2004/2000), and to cultural imperialism (Kudah 2005; Pulverness 2004/1999). Since these contemporary issues in ESP practice are perceived as significant by qualitative researchers and practitioners, they ought to be reflected on by ESP practitioners in Lebanon. Reviewing this literature broadened my understanding of current issues in ESP practice. Contexts, problem areas, potential solutions, and feedback on research questions from practitioners from many parts of the world helped me perceive the problem area in more depth and from many different perspectives (see further chapter two).
1.3 Importance of the Study Given its Socio-cultural and Educational Framework

In order to properly address the Lebanese students’ performance in job-interviews, an overview of the trilingual culture and the educational system in Lebanon is relevant. In what follows, I will describe the sociocultural and educational history of the Lebanese students, address the actual rather than the presumed language used locally, and point to the need to develop a specific, differentiated, and situated English language pedagogy for university ESL/ESP students.

1.3.1 Foreign Languages and Foreign Culture in the Lebanese Curriculum

Foreign languages and cultures play a major role in the Lebanese curriculum. Lebanon is a small country of 4015 square miles in area and with an estimated population of 3562699, according to the Lebanon-People Country Index of 1999. Even though it is considered small, 135 miles long and 20-50 miles wide, Lebanon is strategically located between the Eastern Mediterranean countries and the Mediterranean sea to the West, Syria to the North and East and Israel to the South and Southeast. The state had its present boundaries nationally defined in 1920 by France, which annexed a vast territory that belonged to Syria—the Mount Lebanon Regime—creating Great Lebanon. Lebanon achieved independence as a Republic in 1943. Its people are of mixed ancestry. The native language is Arabic, though most Lebanese are bilingual or trilingual. The people also belong to many religions and subgroups of major religions called sects. The governing body whose structure and organization includes representatives from the major sects reflects this according to UNDP-POGAR (2005), Nationmaster.com (2005), and Electionsworld.org (2005).

Lebanon’s history is marked by cultures and languages. The Lebanese culture is difficult to define as the people are a heterogeneous mix of religions, sects, tribes, traditions, heritage, colonial affiliation, and language. For instance, according to Kraidy (1999, pp.195-196), a young Maronite which is a subgroup of the Catholic sect, might perceive himself as a Westerner or a Christian Phoenician rather than a Christian Arab. A Protestant may see himself as a Lebanese whereas a Greek Orthodox may see himself as a Christian Arab. A young Sunnite, Shiite, or Druze may all perceive themselves as Arabs and Moslem. Thus, in Lebanon, the notion of national culture is not simple. According to Nydell (1996), the Lebanese identity and culture are based more on a confessional historical and global
association than on a notional racial group. Religious values and religious affiliations are an essential component of the cultural values in the Lebanon. According to Kraidy (1999, pp.203-205), Lebanese culture is a native ethnography of glocalization which is a combination of globalization and localization. Others, however, hold that culture is racial (Abdallah 2003/1999). As a result, given the demographics in Lebanon, some university students use a confessional association to understand their identity and culture, more use racial.

In this study, the Lebanese is perceived as an Arab. The notion of culture (Holliday 1994a, pp. 21-23) I will use is the common use of the word as national culture, including in it a loose reference to social milieux and tradition. Nydell (1996, pp. 21-24) divided the cultural values of the Arab culture into three important components: basic values, basic religious attitudes, and basic self-perceptions

Basic Values
1. An individual's dignity, honor, and reputation are very important.
2. Loyalty to individual's family has a higher priority than individual needs.
3. Individual status is a function of his/her social class, family background, individual character and accomplishment.

Basic Religious Values
1. Every individual believes in one God, acknowledge His power and has a religious affiliation.
2. Piety is one of the most praiseworthy characteristics in an individual.
3. Religion should be taught in public schools and supported by governments; in other words, no separation between 'state and church (mosque/temple)'.

Basic Self-Perceptions
1. Arabs are generous, polite, humanitarian, and loyal.
2. Arabs have a rich cultural heritage.
3. Arabs are a clearly defined cultural group (Arab nation)
4. Arabs are misunderstood and incorrectly characterized by most Westerners (including Americans).

In general, culture may refer to all those social, religious, and personal values, which affect a person's behavior. Therefore, if the Lebanese culture is perceived as Arab culture, then it includes these social, religious, and personal perceptions which may affect a Lebanese university student's behavior in class and in classroom assignments.

Religion and culture seem to have played an important part in shaping the history and language of the Lebanese people as the Lebanese have been influenced by empires both
regional and western. In such a country, where national identity might be perceived as fragile, the question relating to which language to adopt as a medium of instruction includes religious, socioeconomic, educational and political overtones (Shaaban & Ghaith, 1999). The language used for daily communicative purposes is not necessarily the mother tongue, Arabic, which seemingly reflects the cultural and thought patterns of all of its people or "resonates the citizen's inner being and constitutes a symbol of their national identity" (Ghaith & Shaaban 1996, p. 95). Across its relatively short history, when the government defined its linguistic policy, and, thus, linguistic allegiance, language and culture have had an impact on the Lebanese and their communal sense of identity and belongingness. As Schutz (1964, p. 95) noted:

Any member born or reared within the group accepts the ready-made standardized scheme of the cultural pattern handed down to him by ancestors, teachers, and authorities as an unquestioned and unquestionable guide in all the situations which normally occur within the social world. The knowledge correlated to the cultural pattern carries its evidence in itself—or, rather, it is taken for granted in the absence of evidence to the contrary. It is knowledge of trustworthy recipes for interpreting the social world and handling things and men in order to obtain the best results in every situation with a minimum of effort by avoiding undesirable consequences.

The multilingual and multicultural tradition in Lebanon is the consequence of its strategic geographical location as a commercial crossroads. It is noted that Lebanon’s fascination with the West began in 1616 in Tuscany with the Lebanese ruler Fakhreddin Al Maani II who had run away from the Ottoman Emperor. Western influence and structure grew, for when pardoned, the prince returned to Lebanon and began to rebuild the country along western lines with European engineers, scientists and intellectuals. Even under the Ottoman Empire, the relative social, cultural, and political independence brought about linguistic plurality (Ghaith & Shaaban 1996). European, particularly the French and American influence permeated the system through communities that shared the Christian faith (Zakaria 1992). Competing missionary groups overcame local resentment by establishing educational institutions, schools, and universities: Saint Joseph, a French University, in 1875 and the American University of Beirut in 1886. The French and the American were very active. According to Nydell (1996, p. 149), "In the mid nineteenth century [they] established schools which trained many of the future leaders and brought western ideas to bear on the culture."
The French mission "openly and uncompromisingly pursued a determined policy of French self-interest revolving around the promotion of the French language" according to Suleiman (1994, p. 5). On the other hand, the British, American Protestant, and Russian Orthodox missionary schools which educated children bilingually in their home language and Arabic also played a role in the educational policies. As a result, in Lebanon, prior to World War I, foreign languages and foreign culture had spread mainly along sectarian lines whereby Maronites and Catholics learnt French, Moslems Arabic, and the Moslem and Greek Orthodox elite English (Homsi 1974, p. 35).

The French missionary work, however, did not reach its climax until the French Mandate between 1919 and 1943 when their schools and the university taught the French language, culture, and civilization as can be seen in the example below, written at that time, concerning the social life of the graduates.

Most educated people of whatever religion speak French; many know it as well as they know Arabic, and there are some, mainly among the Catholics, for whom it has replaced Arabic as their native language. French books are widely read, French social customs copied, and there are many who have traveled or studied in France and have a profound affection for the country, its people and its way of life (Hourani 1946, p. 152).

The confluence of religious, linguistic, and educational pressures led to a situation that reflected educational and socioeconomic disadvantage for the Muslim Arabs under the French mandate (1920–1943). The French sought to achieve physical, cultural, and linguistic dominance (Calvet 1987) by developing a system of education similar to their own. In 1926, the French established more private schools in Lebanon with French teachers in practice and legislated by Decree Article 11 of the 1926 Lebanese Constitution. French was mandated as the medium of instruction of the sciences, mathematics, and social sciences and as the language in which the official national examination would be taken in at the end of the elementary, intermediate, second secondary and third secondary (Homsi 1974, pp. 34-36).

Nonetheless, Arab nationalism grew in Lebanon, and, for many, Arabic was understood as "a core ingredient, .... the most prominent manifestation of nationalism, .... A most eloquent symbol of group identity" (Suleiman 1994, p. 3). As the Lebanese built their independent institutions and educational curriculum, it became clear that practicality in each and every phase of the government was the overriding issue. "The bilingual education tradition in Lebanon was nurtured and strengthened and came to exercise a firm hold on the
Lebanese educational system" (Shaaban 1997, p. 254) because of the general awareness that being proficient in foreign languages led to both employment and prosperity.

In 1943, the schooling system was officially reorganized with the intent to develop a sense of national solidarity, Arab identity, and independence among the youth. In 1946, on achieving national independence, the intent strengthened. Yet in practical terms, according to Najjar (1957) who wrote during that period,

> The educational programs and philosophy of Lebanon are copied from foreign systems which are built on a philosophy that does not always reflect the needs and aspirations of the population (Najjar 1957).

Apart from the difficulty involved in adopting classical Arabic as a medium of instruction and the lack of initiative across the years of the successive Lebanese governments to solve this issue, economic incentives as well as the growing international influence of Europe and the United States of America as a world power led to the increased use of foreign languages. English has gained ground over other languages in the Lebanese curriculum and in Lebanese social life (Shaaban & Ghaith 1999, p. 128; Baydoun 1998).

At present, the learning objectives for shaping the Lebanese students socially, culturally, and politically seem to be formulated in the new Lebanese curriculum. First, Lebanese children are educated as Arabs; second, they are taught to be proficient in foreign languages rather than their second or third language. The new educational framework was institutionalized in 1997-1998, three years after its conception, with revised curricula and formally trained local and foreign teachers. In the Plan for Educational Reform (Center for Educational Research and Development 1994) and The New Framework of Education in Lebanon (Ministry of Education 1995), the role of language and culture are central issues.

> To form a citizen ... who is committed to the Arabic language as an official national language and able to use it efficiently and effectively in all domains ... [and] who is proficient in at least one foreign language for the activation of openness to international cultures to enrich and be enriched by them (1995, p. 36).

It is clear from the preceding analysis that the Lebanese people and governments were practical in their choice of language(s) as the medium of instruction in their curriculum. Despite the 1946 Decree # 6968 which legislated that all school subjects be taught in modern standard Arabic, foreign languages and especially English have continued to be taught and
used as the language of instruction in public and private schools at all levels and pre-levels as a result of Decree # 5589. This tradition of bilingualism began in the nineteenth century and is "entrenched in the Lebanese psyche" according to Shaaban (1997, p. 252). For many Lebanese people, French is the language of culture and the link to the francophone countries; English is viewed as the language of commerce, information processing, interpersonal communication, and political power; and Arabic is the language of ceremonial and social functions. Such a tradition may be the result of their school system's philosophies and objectives (Zakaria 1992).

1.3.2 **Language Learning in Private Schools**

In this section, two main issues are discussed: First, learning languages across the levels of the education system and, second, the countervailing factors which may influence learning English.

As mentioned earlier, in Lebanon, the formal system of education is the national baccalaureate. Established in 1943 and amended in 1968 and 1994, it is a thirteen year system of learning similar to the French Baccalaureate. It requires students to learn a second language beginning in kindergarten and to study science and mathematics in that second language later on; moreover, it requires that another foreign language be taught by seventh grade. The private or public school system use Arabic and French or English as the medium of instruction. The admission test to pre-elementary students, who are four years old, is given in the choice of language medium of that particular school. By the end of that year, most students can speak one of the two foreign languages fluently. Having completed the first two years in the Kindergarten phase of education, children then spend five years in elementary, three in intermediate, and four in secondary schooling, to graduate at the age of 18. Students are introduced to one or two of the foreign languages from the pre-elementary stage depending on the school system and are taught the languages for a specific number of hours in each of the three stages of learning. They also take Arabic language as a school subject throughout the years (Ministry of Education 1968-1971, p. D, p. 4, p. 16) (see Table 1.1).
Table 1.1: Number of Hours of Language Taught per Week Across the Three Levels

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Stage</th>
<th>Elementary</th>
<th>Intermediate</th>
<th>Secondary</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1st &amp; 2nd Literature</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Arabic</td>
<td>8 hrs. Grade 1 -3</td>
<td>7 hrs. Grade 6 - 8</td>
<td>7 hrs.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>7 hrs. Grade 4 -5</td>
<td>6 hrs. Grade 9</td>
<td>OR</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>French</td>
<td>8 hrs. OR</td>
<td>7 hrs. Grade 6 - 8</td>
<td>7 hrs. OR</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OR</td>
<td>OR</td>
<td>6 hrs. Grade 9</td>
<td>OR</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>English</td>
<td>8 hrs.</td>
<td>7 hrs. Grade 6 - 8</td>
<td>7 hrs.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>6 hrs. Grade 9</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


Although Arabic is the national language, all Lebanese children attending school are required to achieve mastery in at least one foreign language, and, for many, the acquisition, of the foreign language is facilitated by its use at home. By puberty, many adopt their second foreign language which they have learnt simultaneously with Arabic, with little or no foreign accent. Thus, the Lebanese educational practice is a trilingual system which begins in Kindergarten and covers thirteen years of schooling (Bahous 1999). Even with a learning certificate from secondary school, students intending to continue their education at university level need to pass the official Lebanese or French Baccalaureate exam. The Lebanese Baccalaureate presumes that Arabic is the native language and that either English or French is their second language (see Table 1.1). On the other hand, as noted earlier, the French Baccalaureate, which is registered in France and was designated as equivalent, assumes that French is their first language and Arabic or English their second. Therefore, one can conclude that English may be taught as the language of instruction or as a second or third language in the educational system.

1.3.2.1 Issues of Concern with Respect to Learning English: Some issues perceived as limitations in the schooling system with respect to learning English through English medium instruction in Lebanon are discussed below. These include the manner in which English language and literature are learnt.

First, in the baccalaureate educational system prior to the years 1997-1998, most of the classroom environments were teacher-centered, where competitive and/or individualistic
learning occurred (Ghaith 2003a; Wakim, Assaf & Abboud 2001; Ghaith 1996; Faour 1974, p. 76). In these school systems, an administrative hierarchy was imposed where authority was situated in the form of the teacher (in the classroom) and the playground superintendent (out of classroom). A rigid and disciplined rule of order was established in the code of conduct, in the system of learning, and in the dress code.

Second, in that setting, mastery of language structure was seen as the ultimate goal of foreign language teaching. In many private schools, the foreign languages were taught by natives—French or British/Americans. The teachers commonly introduced the culture and the customs of their country in the classrooms. However, in many of the other schools in Lebanon, the teachers who taught the foreign languages were local, and few included in their syllabi the cultural aspects of a foreign language even though they were required by the Ministry of Education to do so. Some of the teachers were not properly trained. They did not have the knowledge nor did they have access to the materials necessary for such instruction (Diab 2002, p. 61). This was not perceived as a problem since it was believed that in order to be proficient in the foreign language, students must master the formal mechanism by which language works (Mikati 2002, p. 41). Therefore, learning English was reduced to a process in which the teachers focused on structured drills without allowing students to learn the language for self-expression. Students were preoccupied with mastering techniques rather than assimilation: For example, the focus was on how to form the declarative, interrogative, and negative sentence rather than the why. This system of learning was reinforced by lengthy practice sessions until command was achieved (Hussein 2001, p. 83). It was very much as Brumfit and Johnson (1979, p. 183) stated, “A structure is taught in this manner: teachers present it; then, students drill it and practice it in context; then, they proceed to the next structure.” Students’ success was measured by their ability to manipulate structures; it was not in performing diverse functions with language (Bahous 2001, p. 7). Many of the Lebanese students became structurally competent but could not communicate effectively because language teaching did not integrate rules of use (Khairallah 2001, pp. 40-42) nor the appropriate teaching/learning strategies for language application in real settings (Diab, 2001, pp. 45-46).

Third, foreign literature was lectured on, but the students were not expected to engage with it. Critical thinking and discussion were not encouraged. Students had to memorize poems, plays, and novels with ample and proficient critical analysis already provided by the instructors in class. Oral and written communication was controlled and defined (Abi Saada 2001, pp. 33-35). Meyers and Hillard (1997) observe that, even today, speaking and
listening skills are often overlooked in English classrooms worldwide. According to Rogers (2001), this includes Lebanese ELT classrooms. At lower grades, students were neither being taught the process of nor the joys of reading and critical analysis. Students were provided with literacy texts, criticism of these texts, and answers to standardized questions that would probably appear on their official examination. Material lectured on would be regurgitated at each official exam (Mikati 2002, p. 41). Literature was seen as a luxury for the intelligent, beyond the classroom, and inaccessible to the average intellect (Rogers 2001).

Based on personal observation and professional practice and given the philosophies above, it can be assumed that prior to 2001 the Lebanese educational practice generated many secondary students who were not taught to take responsibility for their own learning. Rather they had been taught to be dependent on teachers/professors who lecture and answer all questions. As a result, students did not develop sufficient problem-solving or metacognitive skills. They remained teacher-centered in their learning. Such a system of education did not encourage the application of higher level cognitive skills because what they learnt was out of context and irrelevant in their everyday life. Passivity, dependence, lack of initiative, and poor self-confidence were reflected in many ESL students in college. Even though the new National Baccalaureate curriculum has been in force since 1998-1999 (Wakim, Assaf, & Abboud 2001), many educators in the university setting still complain of students being too dependent on them.

1.3.3 ESP in Private Universities where English is the Medium of Instruction

Students at the university where the present study was carried out were required to take two English courses: Sophomore Rhetoric and English for Specific Purposes, ESP. This tends to be the requirement in most English medium universities in Lebanon. However, because of students' scores on the English entrance exam, many were obliged to take additional intensive courses in which the four integrated skills—reading, writing, speaking, and grammar—were emphasized through drill and practice. Once the remedial courses were successfully completed, Sophomore Rhetoric was taken wherein argumentative essays were read, critiqued, and developed by students. Students also practiced debating topics spontaneously in class as well as formally before an audience of a lecturer and peers. Moreover, Sophomore Rhetoric students developed a critical term paper on contemporary issues. The second English course required was an ESP course. The ESP syllabi tended to vary. In some universities, learning interview skills and techniques was included: However,
submitting an audiotape of a job-interview was not included, except in the university in which I taught. There, business majors took a course referred to as Technical English for Business Students. The course objectives included:

- identify the importance of communication psychology and human relations in vocational situations, in traditional and modern technological settings;
- recognize and produce the various language patterns and conventions to achieve desired purposes;
- acquire a wider vocabulary related to field of study;
- develop sufficient oral skills for giving effective talks;
- develop writing skills or producing various types of correspondence, such as for memos, minutes of meetings, agenda, diverse business and cover letters;
- recognize, design, and carry out the steps needed for a report; and recognize and develop essential parts to a curriculum vitae (University Syllabus, ENL 235).

Some practical skills were learnt including writing agenda, minutes, memorandum, letters, job-application forms, cover letters, a curriculum vitae, and business reports. Students also learned about how meetings were held and how job-hunting was conducted. Based on personal experience in teaching ESP at four private English medium universities in Lebanon, I found that many Lebanese students had difficulty in performing well at the job-interview. In addition, many of the ESP students were neither interested in nor motivated to learn job-interview skills and techniques.

Students' general attitude to learning ESL may influence their academic performance. Many ESP students show unwillingness to become seriously involved in the interview-learning process and other ESP material (Goff-Kfoury 2001). According to Bovee, Thill, and Schatzmann (2003, p 544) and Ober (2001, p. 520), the first step of which is student self-assessment (see further chapter three, Table 3.1) which includes answering such questions as who they are, what their level of information is on relevant job-related issues, or what their long-term ambitions. Many took this and other exercises lightly. Given these observations, and knowing that few students internalize the material, it is difficult to understand how most ESP students pass this course. The explanation might be that despite the apparent relevance of the course material for future application, most ESP business students simply memorize what was taught and regurgitate it in their exams.

Most students are not motivated to participate actively in ESL class-work or to learn new skills and techniques (Sabieh 2002, pp. 193-194; Maalouf El-Alfy 2002, pp. 74-75; Sabieh 2001, p. 105;) for at least four reasons: First, this may very well stem from the similarity of the formal school and university educational contexts (Rogers 2001, p. 26). The
school and university structures are both controlled environments where rules, regulations, order, discipline, and a single source of authority are strictly maintained. The organizational structures are rigid, and as founders of the quality movement noted, 85% of the behavior of members of an institution is directly related to the structure of the context (Johnson & Johnson 1994, p. 13).

The second cause may be the nature of the course content. As framed in the Spring 2001 syllabus, the course content was rigid whereby the ESP students were not given a free practice stage. The syllabus prepared students for two major exams and two minor tests.

The third area of concern was the time span allotted to learning the course content. During their semester, students did not have much time to learn and practice alternative ESP material because of institutional and pedagogical rigidity. In such an environment, it was the teacher’s role to make the content meaningful, theoretically and practically. According to Cochran-Smith (2003a, p. 4), “Teaching is unforgivingly complex. It is not simply good or bad, right or wrong, working or failing. [It is about] real students collected in actual classrooms in the context of particular times and places.” Given this, I perceived that my students needed more time to learn the material.

This raises the fourth cause: that of the qualification of the ESP teacher. According to Cochran-Smith (2003b, p. 96):

> From a professional perspective, the highly qualified teacher knows subject matter (what to teach) and pedagogy (how to teach) but also knows how to learn and how to make decisions informed by theory and research from many bodies of knowledge and also as informed by feedback from [learning organizations] and classroom evidence in particular contexts.

As an American ESP lecturer in Lebanon, I observed that most lecturers adopted a formal teacher-centered classroom approach, using an authoritative stance, keeping a distance, lecturing throughout the session rather than using an interactive, cooperative or learner-centered approach. Most university lecturers chose drills and controlled practice rather than open interactive discussion, analysis, and reflection on key issues in class; moreover, lecturers maintained strict adherence to their formal agenda and particular pedagogy. Such a closed system may be perceived as stifling by students. Within this context, it seems natural for students to consciously or unconsciously behave as they used to do when they were in school, expecting their university lecturer to be similar to their teachers in school, an all-knowing academician on whom they should depend.
Holding this to be true, based on the preliminary findings discussed earlier (Akhras 2001, 2000a, 2000b), I decided that I would bring about change in my learning context. I developed an intervention curriculum which caters to ESP students' need to perform well in job-interviews in Lebanon and proceeded to evaluate it. I consider this study important because it deals with the reality of classroom behavior and classroom culture and tries to generate a situated learning environment meant specifically for the ESP students in Lebanon.

The innovation intervention curriculum evaluated in this study was based on the assumption that for students to be motivated to learn job-interview conducts, the curriculum and the teaching methods need to be reconceptualized. First, formal or informal needs analysis should be conducted by the university lecturer. S/he ought to be a practitioner-researcher who first is able to identify and understand what is happening in the language learning classroom and be able to develop an intervention that addresses the problem areas identified (see further chapter two). Second, what I posit as integral to an ESP course is that the lecturer be perceived as a facilitator creating an informal cooperative learning approach, an interactive climate, or an active learning environment. Ghaith (2003a; 2003b), Marshall (2003/2002), and Goff-Kfouri (2002) have shown that this learning approach in ESL/ESP leads students to participate in different types of classroom activity, adopting an interdependent and accountable role and generating a class climate which is perceived as supportive, fair, and cohesive. Third, evaluation of the intervention should be conducted in order to determine whether the intervention efficiently and effectively served its purpose.

Thus, based on the literature research, personal observation, and pilot-studies (Akhras 2000c; 2000b; 2000a) I conducted, I developed what I perceived as a contextually appropriate intervention curriculum that seemed to address many of the problems faced and expressed by ESP students in job-interviews in Lebanon. The literature searches I conducted on ESL/ESP educational systems, particularly in Lebanon were drawn from material gathered from the OPAC at English medium universities, Educational Research in Lebanon between 1950-2000 (CD-ROM), electronic resources as ERIC, Proquest 500, and Google/Google Scholar, and attending conferences/workshops, that is 'Education and technology: a look at language teaching' (2005); 'Inputs in English Language Teaching Today' (2004); 'The second English Language, and change regional conference' (2003); 'Language and change' (2002); and 'New Lebanese curriculum for Languages' (2001). Current literature searches of research conducted in Lebanon (Sabieh 2003a; 2003b; Ghaith 2003a; Maalouf-El-Alfy 2002; Nasr 2002; Wakim, Assaf, & Abboud 2001; Goff-Kfoury 2001) indicated that ESP students in Lebanon needed ESP material that was relevant to their
situated context. Such an approach may lead to higher achievement among Lebanese university students (see further chapter two).

1.4 Purpose of the Study

The study sought to determine whether learning materialized in the form of a gradual improvement of interview behavior for each participant. Specifically, the purpose of the study was to evaluate to what extent the intervention curriculum I developed created more professionalism in the job-interview.

- The first research objective of the study was to evaluate whether the participants' job-interview performance progressed positively across the intervention curriculum and became more professional in the authentic job-interview context.
- The second research objective was to evaluate whether the intervention curriculum was perceived as an effective one by the participants and by myself, the practitioner-researcher.

1.5 Scope of This Study

This is a small scale study carried out in a private Lebanese university. The subjects were five students of ESP who volunteered to take an active part, their ESP classmates, five company-interviewers, the ESP class, and myself, the practitioner-researcher. The five main participants belonged to an ESP class of 20 students which I taught in Spring 2001. They were business majors taking business/workplace English. These participants attended class on the main university campus where English is the medium of instruction. In their ESP course, the participants learned about practical skills. One of the stated objectives of the course is to "develop job-interview skills and techniques" (Technical English 2001 University Syllabus), and this is what this study was concerned with. The study examined and evaluated the five participants' interview performances across the stages of the job-interview preparation process implemented (see Table 1.2).
Table 1.2: The Six Stages of the Curriculum Intervention and Evaluation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Stages</th>
<th>Curriculum Intervention and Evaluation</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Stage One</td>
<td>Learning in the ESP Classroom</td>
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<tr>
<td>Stage Two</td>
<td>Simulations of the Interview in the Classroom Context</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stage Three</td>
<td>Group Interview</td>
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<tr>
<td>Stage Four</td>
<td>Simulations of the Interview in the Authentic Job-Interview Context</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stage Five</td>
<td>Research Interviews with the Company-Interviewers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stage Six</td>
<td>Assessment Interviews with the Participants</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

The study consisted of six stages of curriculum intervention and evaluation whereby stage one through four were the intervention and stage five and six were the evaluation of the curriculum. Stage one included the ESP classroom in which interview skills and techniques were taught. I explained the nature and purpose of the job-interview and pointed to key teaching points in the course text book. Then, I divided the class in pairs to practice interviewing. I asked them to practice the two roles of the job-applicant and job-interviewer. Stage two covered the five simulations which took place in the classroom on the podium upfront. Each simulation was videotaped. In each simulation, the participants adopted the role of the job-applicant, and the 'job-interviewer' was played by a classmate. Stage three included the group interview, the class discussion which followed the observation of the audio-videotaped simulations. The five participants and their classmates all contributed to the evaluation of each participant's simulation. Most of stage three was audio-taped. Stage four was the job-interview conducted by the company-interviewer in established companies. It was also perceived as a simulation of the interview in the authentic job-interview context. The participants themselves selected the interview site after they had engaged in a job-hunt. Each interview was videotaped. Stage five was the research interview I conducted with the company-interviewer in order to gather information on each participant's performance and to listen to the company-interviewer's evaluation of the participants as a job-applicant. Stage six was the interview I conducted with the participants to gather information as a personal self-appraisal of their performance in the job-interview and as a self-assessment of their performance across the intervention curriculum. These interviews were audio-taped.
1.6 Plan of the Study

The dissertation is divided into seven chapters: the introduction, conceptual framework, intervention and evaluation curriculum, methodology, findings, discussion, and conclusion and recommendation chapter. Below, I will briefly describe the contents of each chapter.

The introduction has provided the rationale of the study and the background of the problem area. By providing an overview on the Lebanese socio-cultural and educational system prior to and at the time of the study, it has shown why the study is important. Moreover, the purpose, scope, and the structure of the thesis are included.

In chapter two, different views on developing a curriculum and an intervention curriculum are discussed. In addition, teaching and learning English at home in BANA countries and abroad as a Second Language (ESL) and as English for Specific Purposes (ESP) are discussed. Moreover, a general view on the pedagogy and course content on teaching the job-interview in English medium university in ESL in Lebanon and in the West is provided. My position on the nature of teaching interview skills in Lebanon is put forward. The site of the study in which English is the language of instruction is discussed focusing on the sequence of ESL courses and developing the ESP curriculum, particularly the job-interview section. Central issues related to the job-interview, in general, and the pilot studies, conducted, are reflected on. These include the teaching/learning approach, interview context, oral skills, and silent language. The new conceptual framework for teaching the job-interview in the ESP course that includes a situated form of informal cooperative learning and audio-visually recorded simulation is promoted. The pedagogical framework is developed clarifying the value of these tools as they relate to the students, the context, and the practitioner-researcher. The chapter concludes by presenting the six stages of intervention curriculum and evaluation proposed.

In the third chapter, the intervention and evaluation curriculum undertaken is described. In chapter four, the methodology is discussed. The chapter opens with the overriding purpose and research questions of the study. Next, the research design as a case study is presented accompanied by a discussion on the qualitative characteristics of the design. Sampling and a profile on the participants are included and are followed by the data collection and analysis section.

The findings are presented in chapter five. The chapter opens with a thumbnail sketch of the people who played a role in the study. This includes the five participants, the
five volunteers, the ESP class, the company interviewers, and the practitioner-researcher. Then, the information drawn from the data collection process is categorized into the five research questions. Based on these findings, a discussion follows in chapter six that evaluates the responses to the research questions and compares them to the literature reviewed.

The final chapter makes some concluding remarks and implications that can be drawn from them. The intervention and evaluation curriculum process is summarized and its original contribution to knowledge in the field as a contextual small scale localized study is stated. The limitations of the study with respect to the research design, particularly its congruence, consistency, dependability, and generalizability are noted, and recommendations are made for policy and practice change in a newer and amended version of the intervention process. Propositions for further research are cast. The chapter concludes with the recognition of the power of teaching-learning, researching with others, and the creation of new patterns of communication since, as Nunan (2001; 1988) and Kemmis and McTaggart (1988) noted, qualitative research involves, first, the understanding of practice and the situation in which it occurs and, second, its improvement.
Chapter Two: The Conceptual Framework

2.1 Introduction

This chapter develops the conceptual framework for the intervention process implemented in the standard curriculum of an English for Specific Purposes (ESP) course for business majors. The literature related to teaching and learning English For Specific Purposes (ESP) is reviewed. Specifically, the conceptual framework discusses literature related to the design, implementation, and evaluation of what may be perceived as an innovative, situated, culturally appropriate intervention process. English Language Teaching in Britain, Australasia, and North America (BANA) has explored important concepts in the study. The first topic discussed below is curriculum/syllabus development including intervention and evaluation of ELT practices (Henson 2001; Richards 2001; Nunan 1988; Burton & Nunan 1986). The review then moves to language learning. Language classrooms and the use of different types of structure, particularly cooperative learning (Johnson & Johnson 2003) are discussed in terms of goal directed behavior, complementary skills, synergy and personal/mutual accountability. Third, the topic of ESP as an important field of study and in terms of Business English is reviewed. This section also discusses the role of context, the job-interview, and training in ESP course material in BANA.

2.2 Curriculum

Below, I will discuss curriculum development, intervention, and evaluation. First, I will define ‘curriculum’ and ‘syllabus’, and, then, I will develop the meaning that I associate with the terms. The term ‘curriculum’ (2004) according to Encarta, was the subjects taught at an educational institution or the elements taught in a particular subject. Curriculum has been understood by educators to be means versus ends, content versus experiences, process versus plan; that is, planned actions for instruction (Taba 1962) versus all planned outcomes for which the learning institution is responsible (Popham & Baker 1970) or knowledge from the disciplines (Hutchins 1936) versus experiences set up in schools (Smith, Stanley & Shores 1957) or all of the experiences under auspices of the school (Doll 1989) versus Taba’s (1962) plan for learning (cited in Henson 2001, pp. 7-11). As such, a curriculum may be said to
be the broad range of knowledge acquired during the learning process. In contrast, according to Rodgers (1989, p. 26 cited in Richards 2001, p. 39) a syllabus prescribes the content to be covered by a given course.

A curriculum focuses on values, social interactions, methodology, and formal and informal learning and assessment (Allen 1984; Yalden 1984; Stern 1984) whereas a syllabus focuses more narrowly on what is formally taught in a particular subject area and usually includes notions of structure and evaluation in terms of how the course content is shaped (Widdowson 1984, p. 23). Other ELT practitioners and specialists include a very active role for teachers (Hammond 2005, p. 21; Summerson 2005, p. 29; Henson 2001; Candlin 1984) and students (Turner 2005, p. 11; Breen 1984).

According to Henson (2001, pp. 22-30) and Nunan (2001; 1988), there is a trend towards teachers becoming more actively involved in curriculum/syllabus/course design. Since the classroom is the context where teachers are the prime agent of teaching/learning development (Bynam 2003), educational reality is not always what educational planners have designed. Rather the educational reality is what teachers and students do. Teachers are not always able to follow a prespecified plan set by others (Dee Fink 2003; Burton & Nunan 1986) because teaching is essentially a practical activity. Sometimes, teaching has very little to do with the theoretical deliberations of educational philosophers, psychologists, and curriculum designers, yet implicitly teachers’ decisions include a theory about the nature of language and the nature of language learning (Stern 1984, p. 23). Language teachers are the real source of curriculum/syllabus/course development. Curriculum is the “what is” rather than the “what should be” and is based on what language teachers have found “desirable and possible” (Nunan 1988, p. 1). That is why curriculum design can also be seen as the systematic attempt by educationalists to specify and study planned intervention into the educational enterprise. Another way of looking at the curriculum is to see it as an attempt to specify what should happen, to describe what actually does happen, and to attempt to reconcile the difference to minimize what Lawton (1973, pp. 7-8), among others, saw as the gap between theory and practice (Turner 2005; Nunan 1988). A brief review of curriculum development is discussed below.

Much earlier than Lawton (1973), Tyler (1949) presented a model for the systematic development of school curriculum. He asserted that the development of
any curriculum for any subject must be based on a consideration of four fundamental questions. These are as follows:

- What educational purposes should the school seek to attain?
- What educational experiences can be provided that are likely to attain these purposes?
- How can these educational experiences be effectively organized?
- How can we determine whether these purposes are being attained?

However, Tyler’s model, which suggests discrete sequential stages, and its ends-means linear view of education faced criticism. Wheeler (1967), in criticizing Tyler (1949), developed a more integrated model that included evaluation and feedback. Kerr’s (1968) interactive curriculum model, which had four major phases—objectives, evaluation, knowledge, and school learning experiences—also improved Tyler’s (1949) model by including interaction in the learning/teaching situation and an awareness that a change in one element in the model leads to changes in all other elements. Stenhouse (1975) also reflected on the interactive integrated social, political, and educational context of the curriculum. His definition of curriculum was “an attempt to communicate the essential principles and features of an educational proposal in such a form that it is open to critical scrutiny and capable of effective translation into practice” (Stenhouse 1975, p. 4). He suggested that a curriculum is a process which consists of three major parts relating to planning, empirical study, and justification.

The process model developed by Stenhouse has three particularly useful things to say about curriculum development (Nunan 1988, p. 13). First, a curriculum process is one that analyzes what is actually happening versus what ought to be happening. Second, it recognizes the central role played by the teacher/practitioner-researcher in the curriculum development process. Third, the practitioner-researcher brings about a change by critical analysis and reflection on current performance in developing his/her class curricula (Henson 2001, p. 126; Kemmis & McTaggart 1988). Therefore, the practitioner-researcher plays a key role in the process model. As such, there is room to measure the practice of learning against intended learning outcomes.

Using the process model enables the teacher to decide specifically what gets taught and in what order and thus enables the measurement of learning. For English
as a Second Language (ESL), decisions have traditionally been made on linguistic grounds because language learning has been seen as applied to linguistics rather than education. “A language teaching syllabus, then, is the linguistic and subject matter that make up teaching” (Krahnke 1987, p. 4). This is a subject-centered approach. However, other educators hold that the key elements in ESL curriculum planning are the objectives, content, and methodology. The two views oppose each other. The problems to be solved in the makeup of the curriculum design are (1) whether ends or objectives should be determined or left open, (2) whether the content and the methodology should be selected to meet determined ends or be based on inherent merits, and (3) how conflicting issues and views about learning can be translated into effective and diverse use of methodologies (Clark 1985, p. 3).

Much criticism exists (Henson 2001, 99. 12-25). The ends-means approach of Tyler (1949), Taba (1962) and the 1980 Council of Europe (a regional organization of European countries designed to promote cultural and educational cooperation) seem to undermine teachers’ and students’ expression because class time is controlled by specific educational ends. Garcia (1976, p.2 cited in Todd 2004, p. 1) claims, “Decisions on the educational ends, that is on what to teach, guide decisions on the educational means, that is on how to teach.” Stenhouse’s (1975) criticism of Garcia’s stance asserts the value of unpredictable rather than predictable student behavior. From my point of view, Garcia’s (1976) line of argument has weaknesses because such an approach concentrates on products—specific objectives/outcomes of learning, rather than the process of learning itself. I believe that learning tasks and activities create meaning for students best achieved when students deal with conflicting debatable concepts.

Process curricula are less concerned with specifying content or output than with the sorts of learning activities in which learners should engage. In such curricula, specification is more in terms of tasks and problems for the students to grapple with than in terms of linguistic items. Such emphasis is relevant in language learning classrooms. The process curriculum encourages interaction of and a balance between “‘external’ subject-matter and those ‘internal’ resources of language learning offered by learners and classrooms” (Breen 1984, p. 59). In the 1980s, applied linguists recognized the need to set language teaching within the broader educational context such that needs analysis, methodology, context, and evaluation were all perceived as important aspects of curriculum development. Nunan’s (1985) model
differed from this in that it included an initial, ad hoc needs analysis for the purpose of grouping learners by their level of competence for the course material. As noted earlier, another difference was the prominence given to teachers and their students in their course design process. As Nunan, Richard's (2001) curriculum development process included situation analysis and teacher and student participation. Curriculum development is seen as a practical activity including needs analysis, situation analysis, planning goals and outcomes, course planning, teaching, material development, and evaluation whereby policy makers, needs analyst, methodologists, materials writers, teacher trainers, teachers, and students have decision making roles and generate curriculum-related products (p. 41).

Based on informal observations made in relation to ESP curriculum, I hold that curriculum development occurs in the classroom during the process of teaching and learning. After a topic has been explained, activities are generated by the teacher to ensure students problem-solve. Problem solving initiates their actual learning of the subject and is integral to full understanding. Thus, curriculum development is interactive in that the impetus for it can begin with any of the elements in Nunan's model and a change in one element will influence the others. The processes put forward by Stenhouse (1975) and by Nunan (1992a; 1989; 1986; 1985), including the key role teachers play and the involvement of the students in developing a syllabus/course design, are central in the innovative process I put forward in the study.

In summary, this section has briefly reviewed some concepts related to language curriculum development models. Many language curriculum developers have begun to pay more attention to the general field of educational research and theory, to be systematic, and to give due consideration to key situational elements, particularly the central role of the teacher. This helps to address the imbalance between theory and learning/teaching process. Awareness and inclusion of situational variables in terms of environmental factors, participants, and teachers facilitates achieving the learning objective in a flexible manner. In such a flexible context, teachers are key players. Teachers need to define the parameters, provide direction, and have adequate resources in order to make ESL "learnable and worthwhile" (Stern 1984, p. 12).
2.3 The Language Classroom

Teachers play a central part in the language classrooms' survival and growth. Moreover, they adopt a key role in developing the course design based on their awareness and effective management of the language classroom. A language classroom has been defined as the gathering of two or more people for a period of time for the purpose of language learning according to vanLier (1988, p. 47). Others specify that the language classroom is the setting for classroom interaction, management, and culture (Holliday 1999; Allwright & Bailey 1991). Before I develop an extended definition of a language classroom, I will first define the term classroom.

ESL research on classrooms focuses on finding the right relationship between plans and outcomes: the right teaching method. As such, based on my experience syllabus, method, culture, input, practice opportunity, receptivity, as well as assessment are central in a classroom. I have added 'assessment' to Allwright and Bailey’s (1991, p. 25) conceptualization. (see Figure 2.1 below). More research has shown that the classroom is a setting where teachers and students meet and learning happens (Latham & Millman 2002; Gaies 1980). Each participant carries his/her past experiences and expectations of learning into a classroom (Maalouf-El-Alfy 2002; Rogers 2001).

As a result, the classroom is a context of interaction and participation between students and the teacher (Wakim, Assaf, & Abboud 2001). Successful interaction is not simply the outcome of quality curriculum planning. It is the result of management by the teacher and all the participants who listen (Erickson & Schultz 1982), observe, and play an active part within the learning setup (Dudley Evans & St. John 1998; Stahl 1994). In my experience, students and teachers jointly create success through classroom interaction, and the teacher's success may stem from knowing how to appropriately manage her students' behavior.
Teachers need to encourage student production of language. According to Swain (1985), if students are to gain mastery of the target language, they should try to speak and make themselves understood. It has been consistently shown that teachers typically do between one half and three quarters of the talking time in language learning classroom to inform and to control learner behavior (Allwright & Bailey 1991, p. 139). As a result, students may be left with very little opportunity to negotiate meaning or to engage in genuine communicative use of language in a full range of functional moves (Goll^biowska 1990).

Insofar as (the findings) are representative of at least elementary level ESL instruction, the second language classroom offers very little opportunity to the learner to communicate in the target language or to hear it used for communicative purposes by others (Long 1983, p. 219).

Teachers need to generate opportunities to practice English, but students' interlanguage development determines the extent to which they participate in class (van Patten 1987). It may not be right to force participation on all students alike since there are various learning styles at play and some students learn by observing others (Allwright & Bailey 1991, pp. 149-150). In general, students display a range of proactive to reactive behavior in relation to communicative behavior in class (Ghaith 2003a).
In the ESL classroom, some learners are open to language learning; however, many are not receptive to face-to-face communication for many reasons. It may stem from their lack of self-confidence and self-esteem in interpersonal relations (Allwright & Bailey 1991, p. 164) or from communication apprehension which may be more severe in second or foreign language. According to Gardner, Smythe, Clement, and Glickman (1976), many students may feel anxious in language learning setting creating a debilitating anxiety which gets in the way of learning and performing skills. Likewise, there appeared to be a consistent relationship between anxiety and competitiveness. For example, “This guilt was a result of my competitive feeling that if I didn’t work as much as he did, he would get further ahead....Instead of causing me to work harder, this competitiveness resulted in my feeling frustrated and led to a reduced effort” (Schumann 1980, p. 53). More so, students’ receptiveness may be influenced by a particular language learning task (Heyde 1977) where both competitiveness and anxiety are related to self-esteem and are the most strongly related to performance. As a language teacher, I believe in channeling the students’ receptivity towards self-improvement by working with them. Assessment of the strong relationship between self-esteem, performance, anxiety, and competitiveness is relevant as is awareness of the relationship of the syllabus, the daily plans, and the teacher-student interaction in classroom culture/small culture. Below, the discussion will focus on defining small culture (Holliday 1999), differentiating it from language culture, and gaining awareness of colonial hegemony and possible impact on the language learning classroom.

2.3.1 Small Cultures versus Large Culture in the Language Learning Classroom

It is held that language learning classrooms are small cultures. A small culture is a dynamic ongoing group process which operates to enable members to make sense of and function meaningfully in certain circumstances as an ESP class. It involves an underlying competence where members are skilled and are collaborative (Holliday 1999, p. 248; Crane 1994 in Holliday 1999, p. 248). Each small culture as each language classroom is unique: it is self-defined with students from different districts, neighborhoods, schools, fields of education, and with different interests, value systems, personalities, and attitudes. Each culture has its own paradigms (Holliday
It relates to any cohesive social grouping. It is concerned with social processes as they emerge.

A small culture is not necessarily a subset of a large culture but is a self-defined entity. A 'small' culture is an alternative to what has become the default notion of 'large' culture (Holliday 1999, p. 236). A 'large' culture signifies that which is perceived as ethnic, national, or international. The idea of a small culture is non-essentialist in that it does not relate to the essence of ethnic, national or international entities. A 'small' culture signifies any created cohesive social grouping. As a language teacher, I need to understand the small culture of the social grouping in which I work to teach well the subject matter appropriately. These small cultures may be influenced by the nature of the subject matter being taught.

2.3.1.1 English Culture: English has become an international language. It has brought a challenging factor into language teaching; British, Australasian, or North American (BANA) culture (McKay 2000, p. 7). As a result, there was a growth of interest among academicians in ‘English’ cultural issues. English culture as part of English language learning may be perceived by some as a challenge in the worldwide English language teaching community on ideological and methodological grounds. ESP practitioners, such as Gim’nez (2004/1996) in Argentina, Kuznetsova (2004/2002) in Ukraine, Pinto da Silva (2004/1993) in Portugal, Stapa (2004/2003) in Malaysia, Marshall (2003/2002) in California, Turtledove (2003/1993) in Mexico, Fuentes (2002/2000) in Spain, Campbell (1998) in New Mexico, Lut and Ingels (1998) in Belgium, Piet Verckens, De Rycker, and Davis (1998) in Belgium and Indiana discussed key teaching-learning areas and/or the related countervailing issues in the language learning context. The learning areas included reading skills, writing different types of texts, proficiency, and job-interview competence whereas the problems related to ideological and methodological differences. Students entered the classroom with an educational history embedded in their native culture (Sharifian 2004/1999). Their understanding of English was influenced by their differing perceptions of the English language as a foreign language (Hassan 2001), an international language (McKay 2000), a colonial/imperial language (Pulverness 2000/2004; 1999/2004) or maybe only a transactional language. Their perception and expectation of English might differ from their teachers’ and might differ with that
propagated by the university they attend. As a result, these differences in perception might be a source of students’ poor performance.

Based on informal observation, it seems that outside BANA, when English is taught by native speakers, the language was often perceived as symbolizing cultural imperialism. It is believed that a native English speaker would inevitably teach their culture along with their language. According to Pulvermess (2000; 1999), English is seen as a colonial tool, ‘by other means,’ sustaining the hegemony of English. In the following section, the perception of colonial hegemony is discussed in terms of language, ideology, context/methodology, and classroom activity.

It is held that language as a cultural tool may affect student performance (Kramsch 2002; Dudley-Evans & St. John 1998; Holliday 1994; Nunan 1986). Sharifian (2004/1999) reflected on how, when language and culture are paired in culturally inappropriate classroom activities, the outcome may be negative in terms of classroom culture and student performance. For instance, students may not value nor perceive as relevant the topics they are studying, such as Saint Patrick Day, Thanksgiving, July 4th, and the Independence Day since these are applicable in Britain, Australasia or North America. Lebanese students may feel this most when the information is in conflict with their national, religious or cultural orientation (Shaaban 1999). For many Lebanese students, English is perceived as a means rather than an end in itself. For them, the language is perceived along transactional lines rather than as an end in itself. Learning English is perceived by many ESL students as a way in which they can improve their standard of living (Sharifian 2004/1999). They need to learn an international language to conduct business.

In some cases, the ideology propagated by the university or the teachers may be inappropriate. Decision making, responsibility, and accountability are key concepts in BANA universities. In my opinion, these concepts as implemented are defined by BANA culture and environment. Many of the students I advice each semester have difficulty in making decisions and in being responsible because they have been brought up in contexts where decisions were made for them. For instance, some ask me to choose the courses they will take each semester. Some of the others, who have selected their courses, do not feel accountable for the decision they have made. When faced with challenges, they drop the course with little remorse.

Moreover, culturally inappropriate methodology (Holliday 1999; Holliday 1994a) and classroom tasks may lead to student reaction. An example of this might
occur in a remedial oral communication class. Such courses might include asking students who belong to particular religions to explain how they pray. These issues might be perceived as personal in Lebanon whereas in BANA countries answering such questions may be perceived as socially and culturally acceptable since tolerance and cultural diversity is encouraged. Another example would be the use of classroom simulations. Role-playing tends to be perceived as 'theater games' (Turtledove 2003/1993) and educational whereas in many non BANA countries, such as Lebanon, it might be perceived as "foreign" and "a waste of time" by some Lebanese ESP lecturers, teachers and students because classrooms are not usually learner-centered but contexts of teacher-centered learning. As a lecturer in Lebanon, I faced some of these reactions to language, ideology, context, methodology and class activities which may be perceived as reactions to colonial hegemony. I decided to become proactive by learning more about and becoming more sensitive to Lebanese cultural, social, economic, and educational differences inside and outside the classroom. I gained a deeper awareness of language and its interplay with large and small culture, an ecological perspective (Kramsch 2002, p. 4).

According to Goodenough (1994, pp. 266-267):

The cultural make-up of [Lebanese] society is thus to be seen not as a monolithic entity determining the behavior of its members, but a mélange of understandings and expectations regarding a variety of activities that serve as guides to their [students] conduct and interpretation.

The classroom context may be enhanced through creating and selecting appropriate classroom structures.

2.3.2 Structuring the Language Classroom

As a language teacher, it is relevant to be aware of the impact that different structures have on students and their performance in class. To clarify this, first I will define and differentiate structures. Second, I will discuss the outcomes of using informal cooperative learning. Then, I will conclude the classroom structure section by pointing to the presumed benefits of using cooperative learning in language classrooms, institutions, and curriculum development.
Classroom structures refer to the modes of work in the classroom and the roles adopted by teachers and students. Based on research by Johnson and Johnson (2003, pp. 164-166) the differences between classroom structures can be summarized as follows:

- In individual work, the learners work at their own pace and in their own space to achieve pre-set criteria of learning;
- In competitive work, the learners compete with each other to see who is best;
- In collaborative work, the learners work together in small groups aiming towards a common goal.

As such, different classroom structures may lead to different types of classroom performance and benefits.

When students attend a college class, they typically expect to sit passively and, listen to a professor "profess"; they expect to be evaluated based on their individual work—exams, papers, and quizzes—and they bring with them a set of norms for interacting with their classmates. Based on their past experiences with school, many students believe that they are in competition with their classmates for scarce resources—good grades.... Competitive interaction among students and no interaction among students (individualistic evaluation) are the two most common ways that students relate to one another in college classrooms ... Cooperative interaction is the least common but most effective approach for promoting students' learning and teamwork skills (Smith 1996, p. 71).

Individualism may lead to powerlessness (Kohn 1993), and competition has the potential to undermine motivation for learning, especially intrinsic motivation (Kohn 1992a cited in Baloche 1998, p. 5) because it generates more interest in how personal performance compares to others performance than in the task itself. If norm-referenced, grades are rank-ordered, and negative interdependence is created in class. When learning is very competitive, high achieving students may be perceived socially by classmates as "weird" and have low status (Slavin 1990; Slavin, Devries, & Hulton 1975). It may be concluded that the students who grow the most academically at university are those who interrelate and cooperate with other students and faculty (Light 1992, p. 6), and this is what the teachers should strive to achieve.
2.3.2.1 **Cooperative Learning:** As a university language teacher, it is relevant to be aware of the impact that different learning structures have on the students and their classroom performance. Henson (2001, pp. 432-433), Lachs (2000, pp. 26-39), and Pratt (1994, pp. 205-210) assert the value of cooperative learning as one of the important principles of effective instruction in curriculum planning. In cooperative learning, it is held that students' work together to accomplish shared goals, and their achievement is evaluated on a criterion-referenced-basis. It is held that since all members share the rewards, they are motivated to work together (Ghaith 2003a; Kagan 1992). Researchers posit that this positive interdependence may lead to promotive interdependence (Johnson & Johnson 2003; Gaith 2003b; Pratt 2003), where students perceive that they can reach their goals best when others, in the same learning group, also do well.

Smith (1996, pp. 71-72) notes that during the past ninety years nearly six hundred experimental and more than one hundred correlational studies have been conducted comparing the effectiveness of cooperative, competitive, and individualistic efforts. These studies have been conducted by a wide variety of researchers in different decades with different-age participants, in different subject area, and in different settings. Based on this research, it is held that the more students work in cooperative learning groups, the more they will learn, the better they will understand what they are learning, the easier it will be for them to remember what they learn and the better they will feel about themselves, the class and their classmates. Based on cooperative learning research studies, it is held that this results in productivity (Katzenbach & Smith 1993, p. 43), positive relationships (Ghaith 2003a), and psychological health (Johnson & Johnson 1983 cited in Baloche 1998, p. 10). Johnson, Johnson, & Smith, 1991) present a summary of studies conducted at the higher education level, a comprehensive review of all studies and a meta-analysis, all of which support cooperative learning.

Cooperative learning teams normally consist of two to four members who work together for a time ranging from a few minutes on a short task, to a week on a team project, or a year on a permanent annual basis. The team mates are deliberately chosen as heterogeneous.

For cooperative learning to function efficiently, the teacher needs to ensure that a number of essential elements are met (Abrami et al. 1995, p. 3). She must clearly describe a clear set of specific student outcome objectives. Moreover, before
the students engage in their group learning effort, she needs to state directions or instructions in clear precise terms exactly what students are to do, in what order, with what material, and, when appropriate, what students are to generate as evidence of their mastery of targeted content and skills. Then, she needs to organize the groups so that students are mixed as heterogeneously as possible and every student has an equal opportunity for success. Furthermore, the teacher must structure learning tasks so that students must depend on one another for their personal, teammates’ and group’s success. She may have to encourage and may need to bring about positive social interaction and attitudes. In addition, it is best if she can position student work in a face-to-face fashion and provide sufficient learning time, opportunity to complete required information processing time and access to essential information. Lastly, the teacher ought to formally and individually test each member, but she must also provide public recognition for group academic success. Having done so, she actively uses post-group-reflection on within group behavior to ensure that the students learn by debriefing (Stahl 1994, pp. 1-4).

Based on their research, Johnson and Johnson (2003) stated that the key to enhanced cognitive processing and higher level reasoning lies first in establishing positive interdependence among teammates, and then in engaging in promotive interactions to help others to learn and resolve disagreement. The fundamental assumption of cognitive development is that interaction increases the mastery of critical concepts. Rosenshine and Stevens (1986) pointed out that the cognitive process of explaining is important. Moreover, the length of time engaged in explaining a concept and the level of difficulty related to evaluating that concept increase learning (Fisher & Berlines 1985).

Incorporating the cooperative learning structure in school and/or university may lead to a number of consequences some of which are discussed below. It has been found that social cohesion may increase when group members’ interdependence is stressed especially through task and role interdependence (Cohen 1994 cited in Abrami et al. 1995, p. 36). Moreover, it may provide an effective context for developing new understanding. In such classrooms, students who had not had the opportunity to voice their thoughts in a competitive class may speak up. They may now feel free to talk in a provisional exploratory way because they do not have to defend their thoughts (Smith 1996; Solomon 1988, p. 81). Moreover, Pradl (1991) found that cooperative learning methods may encourage students to take great
responsibility not only for how they learn but for what they learn. Furthermore, cooperative learning teams who engaged in language learning were said to have experienced success because members engaged in cognitive restructuring when they were relating it to information already in memory and when they were explaining the material to others (Ghaith 2003a). Therefore, it is held that cooperative learning may increase students' autonomy, responsibility, self-efficacy, and self-worth (Johnson & Johnson 2003).

According to cooperative learning researchers and practitioners (Smith 1996, p. 72) positive peer relationships are essential to success in university because isolation/individualism is the best predictor of failure. Competitiveness and failure to become academically integrated in class work are recognized as two major reasons for dropping out of college (Tinto 1994 cited in Smith 1996, p. 72). According to Astin (1992), contextual factors, which included interaction among students and interaction between faculty and students, were the most predictive of positive change in university students’ personal and academic development. These findings suggest that effective curriculum planning would do well to incorporate a broader interpersonal delivery system. As such, as noted earlier, making cooperative and/or collaborative learning possible becomes important in planning.

The biggest challenge for me is to ask what the details all add up to. Do the many suggestions that interviewers get from their long conversations with undergraduates drive toward any broad, overarching principle? Is there any common theme that faculty members can use to help students, and indeed that students can use to help themselves? The answer is a strong yes. All the specific findings point to, and illustrate, one main idea. It is that students who get the most out of college, who grow the most academically, and who are the happiest, organize their time to include interpersonal activities with faculty members, or with fellow students, built around substantive, academic work (Light 1992, p. 6).

Thus, it appears that cooperative learning is seen by many researchers as essential to success in language classrooms in schools and in university as it creates cohesion, accountability, greater academic achievement, promotive interdependence, self-esteem, and self-confidence on its own (Johnson & Johnson 2003; Neuman & Wright 1999). It appears to be more efficient than content-based classes as a means to enhance student learning (Smith 1996). This broader interpersonal delivery system
may work effectively also in ESP language classrooms taught at university level as Masters and Brinton (1998) established. It is for this reason that I have incorporated cooperative learning in the ESP classes I teach.

2.4 English for Specific Purposes

As a practitioner-researcher of ESP, particularly English for Business Purposes, I hold myself accountable to increase my ESP students' competence. The given curriculum does not clearly define my role or my methodology (Technical English Syllabus, ENL 235). In the review which follows, English for Specific Purposes (ESP) is defined in terms of how it has developed, how it is classified, what it can offer students, and which roles are adopted by the teachers. I believe that ESP teachers need to be aware of this information if they are to teach the course effectively.

Teaching ESP is generally seen as an independent activity within English Language Teaching (Dudley Evens & St. John 1998). Since the 1960s, ESP has become a growing activity in ESL (Anthony 2005; Richards 2001, pp. 28-38). In recent years, the massive expansion of international business has led to the growth of English for Business Purposes (EBP). Consequently, within ESP, the largest sector for published material is English for Business Purposes in which there is deep interest stemming from practitioners, students, publishers, and international companies (Gatehouse 2003/2001). Its research draws on various disciplines in addition to applied linguistics. The main concerns of ESP remain needs analysis, text analysis, and preparing students to communicate effectively in the task prescribed by their study or work situation (Richards 2001, p. 28-32). A theory of ESP could be outlined based on either the specific nature of what learners require knowledge of or on the basis of the needs-related nature of the teaching (Dudley-Evans & St. Johns 1998, p. 1).

It is held that two key historical periods influenced ESP, the end of World War Two and the oil crisis of the early 1970s (Anthony 2005; Hutchinson & Water 1987). The general effect of these events was the emergence of English as an international language and as a language that catered to different learners' needs in different countries (Gatehouse 2003/2001). ESP is perceived as an approach rather than a
product since it does not involve a particular kind of language teaching material or methodology. According to Hutchinson and Waters (1987), ESP tries to satisfy students' need for a particular foreign language in a particular context. These needs are the primary points of ESP practice. Strevens (1988) considered that a clear definition of ESP needed to distinguish absolute and variable characteristics. Dudley-Evans' and St. Johns' (1998) definition of ESP stresses that the absolute characteristics serve the student's needs through course content, methodology, activities, and language. The ESP variable characteristics are that ESP is designed for specific disciplines, such as Business English, uses specific teaching techniques, and is likely to be designed for adult learners or secondary school level learners who generally have basic knowledge of the language system. ESP is also taught as a university communication skills course in Lebanon, entitled Technical/Business/Workplace English.

In order to clarify what ESP means and how it is related to other purposes, the tree diagram of ESP in Figure 2.2 below distinguishes English for Academic Purposes (EAP), according to discipline, from English for Other Purposes (EOP), according to professional and vocational purposes (English for Business Purposes). The classification tree provides a visual depiction, yet it fails to capture the essentially fluid nature of the various types of ESP (Hutchinson & Waters 1987); that is, Business English may be perceived as being a language about particular business areas combined with the language of the general public. This puts it between General English and Specialist English. This is not reflected in the tree diagram.

Figure 2.2: ESP Classification by Professional Area

An additional perspective on ESP and one I find more appropriate can be gained through the presentation of ELT on a continuum that runs from clearly defined
General English to very specific ESP courses, such as English for Business (see Figure 2.3). The use of the continuum clarifies the nature and place of more specific ESP work. The ESP/EBP course I teach would be position 5 on the continuum since it is not a general business course but a support course related to a particular academic course.

It is held that attending such courses can be motivating for ESP students (Leanne 2004; Kador 2002). For instance, attending English for Business Purposes may be perceived by business students as more motivating than General English because of the focused nature of teaching and its relevance to the students' chosen field of practice (Sabieh 2003a; 2003b; Strevens 1988). Moreover, it is held that ESP is sensitive to and brings about awareness of social and cultural differences in the academic and professional world. For example, particularly in teaching Business English, material related to international business, organizational behavior, and cultural differences (Hofstede 1997), and cross cultural communication (Chaney & Martin 2004; Bovee, Thill, & Schatzmann 2003) is often included.

Figure 2.3: Continuum of ELT Course Types

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Position 1</th>
<th>Position 2</th>
<th>Position 3</th>
<th>Position 4</th>
<th>Position 5</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>English for Beginners</td>
<td>Intermediate to advanced EGP courses with a focus on particular skills</td>
<td>EGAP/EGBP courses based on common-core language and skills not related to specific disciplines or professions</td>
<td>Courses for broad disciplinary or professional areas, for example Report Writing for Scientists and Engineers, Medical English, Negotiation/Meeting Skills for Business People</td>
<td>1) An academic support course related to a particular academic course. 2) One-to-one work with business people</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Key:
- EGP : English for General Purposes
- EGAP : English for General Academic Purposes
- EGBP : English for General Business Purposes

Source: Adapted from Dudley-Evans & St. John 1998, p. 9

The principles and approaches of ESP are relevant in Business English; nonetheless, there is a conceptual difference. Pickett (1986, p. 16 cited in Dudley-
Evans & St. John 1998, p. 54) highlighted the fact that there is more than one face to business communication where some of it is "a lot nearer the everyday language spoken by the general public than any other segment of ESP." Pickett (1986) developed a diagrammatic representation which can be applied to Business English (see Figure 2.4). This suggests two particular aspects which are (1) communication with the public and (2) communication within a company or between companies.

![Figure 2.4: The Flow of Communication in Business English](image)

As an American who has taught EBP and Business Management in Lebanon for over ten years, this flow of communication is especially relevant to second-language-learners in Lebanon as they will need to participate in business dialogue both as speakers and active listeners. I encourage this flow of communication with my students. Business English is centered on the individual being a member of a transactional world where the use of the English language is a means and not an end in itself. Business English serves the business field and tries to ensure that the needs of business people are catered for. As such, business English falls within ESP. Business English can thus be defined as the language for national and international business, as public and inter-company communication, and as material related to the course (Gatehouse 2003/2001).

In general, the type of course material offered in ESP/English for Business Purposes courses reflects the nature of the particular course. It is posited that three characteristics of ESP course design include 1) authentic material, 2) purpose-related orientation, and 3) self-direction (Carter 1983 cited in Gatehouse 2003, p. 5). In general, the material taught is drawn from authentic work where students tend to
simulate communicative tasks in target settings and have a degree of freedom in deciding when, what, and how they will study (Masters & Brinton 1998). It seems that such features of ESP course design ensure that students learn how to access and use information in a new culture (Thill & Bovee 2005). Moreover, it is noted that the ESP course curriculum may include teaching communication skills using academic and informal communication (Cummins 1979 cited in Gatehouse 2003/2001, p. 6).

Within such an ESP context, the ESP practitioner tends to adopt multiple roles. As the trend is towards shorter, highly job specific courses with an additional emphasis on technical, clerical, and interactional skills, such complexities place additional demands on practitioners. Current practitioners need to have knowledge of the communicative functions of English in business contexts, an understanding of business people's expectations and learning strategies, an understanding of the psychology of personal and interpersonal interaction in cross cultural settings, and basic knowledge of management theory and practice. Personality, knowledge, and experience are important factors in the make-up of Business English teachers (Dudley-Evans & St. John 1998, pp. 60-72). In addition, it can be said that practitioners in Business English need to be outgoing, tactful, and genuinely interested in business issues (Ellis & Johnson 1994, p. 27). The roles include being a teacher, a consultant, a course designer and materials provider, a researcher, and a collaborator. As EBP practitioner, the role of teacher differs at times because the students are often more expert at the business content of texts than the teacher and so, in that sense, the teacher is not the 'primary knower'. At times, the teacher is the consultant who negotiates writing a business report with the student. The relationship is much more than partnership and the Initiation-Response-Follow Up characteristic of classroom discourse (Sinclair & Coulthard 1975) may be absent. ESP teachers may move into a one-to-one setup while assisting essay and report writing. In many cases, ESP teachers have to design the course and provide classroom materials (Lobo 2005, p. 72). However, Swales (1980) warned that the advantage provided by published ESP material may then be ignored. It seems that ESP teachers need to be up-to-date with ESP literature. They need to conduct research and act as collaborators and facilitators with students, peers, and subject specialists. This study puts these issues into practice.

2.4.1 A Situated Localized Approach to Teaching Business English
In the following section, English for Specific Purposes is further developed especially as it is practiced outside of Britain, Australasia, and North America. I will argue for a localized approach whereby needs analysis, course design, material selection, teaching and learning, and evaluation are used by local ESP practitioners. This section also discusses a localized approach as the best way to help ESP students learn the ESP skills, specifically job-interview skills. The context of teaching/learning is integral for the ESP teacher in that it provides the medium for the language learning.

2.4.1.1 The Context: There are a number of approaches to understanding culture and language teaching today which may incorporate cultural learning as an integral part of language learning. Holliday (1994) states that “language is as it is because of what it does.” According to Holliday (1999), this fundamental approach sees the nature of language as a social practice serving practical needs. Kramsch (1993, p. 27) emphasizes that language cannot but include the identity of its users. Native and non-native speakers of English may feel that language is “encrusted” (Pulverness 2004/1999, p. 1) with the meanings others have given it.

Teachers need to be aware of both the distinction and dichotomy (Pulverness 2004/2000, p. 1) as well as the overlap of language and culture that many students and practitioner-researchers experience. N. Jones (1990, p. 160) noted, “The sense which a reader makes of a given text depends upon the extent of overlap or correspondence between cultures in which the text was produced and the culture in which it is encountered.” He goes on to note that some students feel “comfortable familiarity” whereas others dislocation and bewilderment. Based on informal observation, it seems that some of the ESP students I teach are able to understand and express themselves appropriately in English, be it their second or third language. However, others are not able to do so. Although they memorize the syntax and vocabulary and they understand the ESP format and structure, such students are not able to express their feeling and thoughts appropriately.

Even today the implicit or explicit principles of English language teaching reflect underlying assumptions associated with Western cultural ideology. Sharifian (2004/1999) pointed out that there are certain situations in which the belief system and cultural values held by students are in conflict with those embedded in ELT
practice. Such cultural dissonance has been observed in many ESL contexts as well as indigenous situations such as Aboriginal Australasians (Masemann 1994 cited in Sharifan 2004/1999). Theoretically and practically, a teaching/learning language needs to be compatible with the contexts where it will be taught/learnt. ELT is beginning to take account of broader educational contexts moving away from ethnocentrism (Pulverness 2004/1999). As an American lecturer in Lebanon, I have observed that a few native speaker and non-native speaker/practitioners are creating a more process-oriented model of intercultural learning, what Byram and Fleming (1989) called a “modification of mono cultural awareness”. There is a very slow move towards geocentrism, or the discovering of self through an awareness of the politics of indifference (Pulverness 2004/1999). Such change is necessary. Students need to develop their own identities within the use of the language. However, some native and non-native ESP practitioners in Lebanon still adopt an ethnocentric ‘colonial’ approach intentionally, and some students are reacting negatively. Attitude change and a proactive stance prove to be difficult unless a conscious effort is made.

Sharifan’s (2004/1999) discussion concerning what he perceived as cultural imperialism in some communities in Australasia reflects key issue related to ELT and ESP in Lebanon. At conferences (Education and technology: a look at language teaching 2005; Inputs in English Language Teaching Today Conference 2004: The Second Regional Language Learning and Change Conference 2003) held in Lebanon I conducted some informal unstructured interviews with local nonnative speakers who are ESP practitioners-researchers from the Arab Emirates, Syria, Egypt, Jordan and, Lebanon. Many noted that a good number of their students saw English as a transactional language. It was a ‘means’ rather than an ‘end’ in itself since neither the English language nor the English culture was theirs (see Chapter one). Many of their students had difficulty relating to some of the British, Australasian, and North American textbook, classroom tasks, and activities. Many of these ESP teachers felt that the ideology and teaching methodology incorporated in their country may be perceived as foreign, colonial, and/or unacceptable (Al-Kudah 2005, pp. 101-102). The national curriculum adopted a colonial language classroom context that, in many cases, was not perceived as appropriate by the students (Al-Rabai 2005, pp. 57-58). Another problem was that expatriate teachers were not familiar with the students’ cultural system (Pulverness 2004/1999). Furthermore, many local teacher education programs did not familiarize teacher-trainers with the multiplicity of local cultural
systems (Nunan 1992a; 1989; 1986). This background information can broaden teachers’ perspectives and help them improve their course material by making them aware of the nuances of the local culture. Moreover, few local teachers were practitioner-researchers. As noted earlier, this role would help them understand the dynamics of the teaching (Henson 2001; Burns 1997; Kemmis & McTaggart 1988). A situated approach needs to be based on the practitioner-researcher understanding the local language classroom context. This implies a constant need to collect information, design the course, develop the material and learning activities, and implement an ESP methodology appropriate to the particular cultural context.

2.4.1.2 Needs Analysis: Behind successful ESP courses/syllabus design is a continuous process of questioning. Practitioners need to clarify what the purpose of the course is, what a course should contain, how it should be run, checking throughout how valid the original answers were and how effective the ideas they lead to are. Thus, key steps in creating an ESP setup are determining a needs analysis, a course/syllabus, the materials selection/production, the teaching and the learning, and the evaluation (see Figure 2.5).

![Figure 2.5: Linearly Related Needs Analysis](image)

Source: Adapted from Dudley-Evans & St. John 1998, p. 121

The linearly related needs analysis reflects a traditional but superseded notion of ESP where communication of thoughts/ideas flows in one direction, stage by stage. However, the current view of ESP realizes that each stage is not separate or linearly
related; rather the stages overlap and are interdependent (Nunan 1988). Based on informal observation, it seems that many ESP courses now reflect this interdependence and complexity because these ESP teachers understand their practice from a broader perspective than those in the earlier period of ESP (see Figure 2.6).

Figure 2.6: Interdependence in Needs Analysis

The concept of needs and needs analysis has changed radically and the contemporary approach is contingent on the situation context (Henson 2001; Richards 2001). As a practitioner of ESP, the topics that I teach were related to the business world. Consequently, my teaching practice was contingent on the changing business context. My awareness and practice of the interdependence of needs analysis led to a deeper understanding of the ESP domain, particularly the job-interview. From there, this study arose. Most practitioners then held on to the traditional approach. Needs may be described as objective or subjective (Brindley 1989, p. 65), perceived or felt (Berwick 1989, p. 55), target-oriented or goal-oriented and/or process-oriented and product-oriented (Brindley 1989, p. 63) or in terms of necessities, wants, and lack (Hutchinson & Waters 1987, p. 55). Each term represents a different philosophy or educational value. Objective and perceived needs are derived from facts and can be verified. Subjective and felt needs are derived from students and reflect cognitive and affective factors. For instance, ‘following directions’ is an objective/perceived need whereas ‘feeling confident’ is a subjective/felt need. In like fashion, product-oriented needs stem from the goal/target situation and the process-oriented needs stem from the learning situation.
It has been suggested that needs analysis should establish in a targeted situation both a target profile of language skills, which clarify the actual activities that the students have to carry out, and a profile of personal ability, in which proficiency is evaluated (Pilbeam 1979). Moreover, needs analysis in Business English identifies general and specialist language and general and professional communication skills according to Brieger (1997, pp. 85-89). For instance, needs analysis in Business English, particularly “pre-vocational Business English” (Dudley-Evans & St. John 1998, p. 7) may deal with terms of professional communication skills in job-interviews, including contextual, linguistic, and silent language factors. For instance, in developing the job-interview context, sensitivity to cultural issues and an understanding of both of the interlocutors’ values, language, and behaviors is important (Holliday 1999). Not only inappropriate use of language but also inappropriate understanding of behavior (Chaney & Martin 2004; Hall 1998; Kress 1988, pp. 82-107) may lead to poor communication or lack of communication.

Therefore, for a teacher to establish a workable course design, the environmental situation needs to be examined. According to Dudley Evans and St. John, (1998, p. 125), needs analysis in ESP includes eight factors. I have added the ninth, nonverbal learning needs, based on the findings from my pilot studies (see Figure 2.7). Awareness of the students’ environmental and target situation is primary. This knowledge bank includes awareness of the type of language used in these contexts and how communication is processed, verbally and nonverbally there. Based on the findings drawn from needs analysis, one establishes what the student will learn in the course. It also provides professional information on the students’ present and future tasks and personal information on students’ wants and needs (Hutchinson & Waters 1987). From this, needs analysis establishes what will be learnt given and what is missing. Such findings are relative to and congruent with each individual student because each has unique needs, yet Berwick (1989, p. 56) acknowledged, “…our perceptions of needs are not simply out there waiting to be counted and measured.” In general, language learning needs and knowledge of the professional communication environment of an ESP classroom and the targeted jobs lead to a broader and more complete system of relevant information.

Figure 2.7: What Needs Analysis Establishes
Needs analysis provides teachers, and/or curriculum developers with an awareness of the interests that ought to be served, such as the job-interview. In ESP courses, university students who are searching for their first jobs can prepare for such critical moments. In order to enhance students' job-interview potential, learning about job-interviews and writing curriculum vitae and the cover letter in class is part of the ESP syllabus in many English speaking universities worldwide. I was interested in this focal area of ESP. In order to deal with some of countervailing issues I noted earlier, I conducted some informal exploratory research on the ESP material taught and the ESP students' job-interview skills. As noted earlier, first, I gathered information on students' and their general interviewing skills (Akhras 2000a). Next, I conducted research on their job-interviewing skills (Akhras 2000b). Finally, I conducted research on their discourse in the job-interviews (Akhras 2000c). This led to conceptualizing the job-interview in a task-based syllabus design (Nunan 2001, p. 1), a realization of communicative language teaching. The exploratory research I conducted helped me develop an innovative intervention curriculum which I used to intervene in the established ESP course design.

2.4.1.3 Materials Selection, Teaching and Learning, and Evaluating: Below, I will discuss the material selection, teaching and learning/implementation, and evaluation of ESP material for such a focal area. Selecting material to teach an ESP course is
very much related to the ideology and methodology adopted by the university. As noted earlier, many universities automatically adopt BANA ESP literature. Syllabi are developed from the text to fit the course and university culture propagated. The universities in Lebanon which use English language as the medium of instruction as American University of Beirut; Balamand University; Lebanese American University; and Notre Dame University use different classroom practices/activities to teach such ESP material as job-interview skills and techniques; for instance, some teachers skim through the interview material, briefly discussing domestic market search for jobs and the interview skills and techniques whereas others discuss job-interviews in more depth explaining the role of the market, company, job, interviewer, and the job-applicant. As noted earlier, very few evaluate the ESP students’ job-interview skills. In the university in which I taught when I conducted the research, the job-interview was explained theoretically in class, and students were expected to go and get interviewed by a company-interviewer. This interview was to be audio-recorded and later graded by their teacher. The evaluative criteria were left to the lecturer’s discretion.

Learning about and actually performing in a job-interview is influenced by multiple factors, and this is well-reflected in ESP university students’ performance in classroom simulations of a job-interview. Latham and Millman (2002, p. 483) posit, “There is a need for a research-based job-applicant’s interview handbook to balance the effects of available employment interview handbooks.” Latham and Millman’s (2002) observation reflect three important issues. First, it illustrates that contemporary practitioner-researchers are aware that job-applicants may face difficulties in their job-interview. Second, it reflects that many contemporary practitioner-researchers perceive the job-interview as a structured event. Third, it reflects the current structured approach many large Western companies use to evaluate job-applicants.

Below, the job-interview is discussed and critical features are highlighted in terms of the job-applicants’ expected performance. The majority of the research conducted on job-interviews has been conceptual and descriptive (Gilmore & Ferris 1989a; Eder & Buckley 1988).

2.5 The Job-interview
One of the most commonly used procedures for getting information about job-applicants is the employment interview. It is a critical moment in a student’s life, but many students do not realize this. Making them aware of it through teaching and classroom simulations is a challenge.

Considerable research (Eder & Ferris 1989; Gilmore & Ferris 1989a) on the job-interview has investigated the impact of variables such as applicant gender, physical appearance, type of job, applicant qualifications, stereotypes, order of importance, and contrast effects on the overall evaluation of job-applicants. The limited empirical research in this area has focused per study more on nonverbal strategies than verbal or only on one impression management tactic (Gilmore & Ferris 1989b). In general, past research asked applicants to create a specific image(s) for the interviewer to modify their appearance or behavior to meet the interviewer’s expectations (Baron 1989). However, research did not examine the interview contexts (Latham & Millman 2002; Posthuma, Morgeson, & Campion 1999). Moreover, research did not examine normal communication behavior, the combined impact of the applicant’s verbal, the nonverbal, and the articulative resources.

This study does.

Learning how to behave appropriately in an interview is important, especially when the spoken language is not one’s native language. It is important to prepare university students in five main ways (see Chapter three). First, students need to become aware of who they are and what they want. Second, students need to be aware of their context and the structure and content of job-interviews. These will be discussed below as external and internal factors and macro and micro factors. Third, students need to be aware of how valuable the job-applicant’s oral communication is and how this reflects intelligence, competence, education, background, potential, and preparation for the interview. Fourth, students need to be aware of the job-applicant’s silent/nonverbal communication in terms of appearance, proxemics, kinetics, facial expressions, and paralinguistics. Awareness of nonverbal behavior and how it might influence the interviewer is relevant since according to Mehrabian (1972) most interpersonal communication is nonverbal. Fifth, students need to practice what they have learned.

It follows that in order to prepare ESP students for job-interviews, awareness of the nature of the job-interview is helpful. Below, the history of the job-interview is
first reviewed from the late 1950's up until today. Second, contextual factors are elaborated on at length.

2.5.1.1 A Brief History of the Job-interview: In industrial and organizational psychology, the history of research on job-interviews is long. In the 1950's and 60's the reliability and validity of the selection interview which were conducted in an unstructured manner (Ulrich & Trumbo 1965; Webster 1964; Mayfield 1964; Wagner 1949) were low. For instance, there was an element of bias, such as first-impression errors and stereotyping that many employment interviewers were aware of (Webster 1964), yet employment interviews continued to be conducted in a micro-analytic way. In the 1980's, job-interviews began to be conducted with awareness of behavioral processes (Arvey & Campion 1982) as the situational interview (Latham, Saari, Pursell, & Campion 1980), the patterned behavior description interview (Janz 1982), comprehension selection battery (Campion, Pursell, and Brown's 1988), and the Walk-Through interview (Hedge and Teachouts 1992). These interview procedures were structured, that is, all applicants were asked the same battery of questions derived from job analysis or behavior would be scored using a reliable procedure based on a behavioral rating scale to evaluate whether the applicant would be hired. This system minimized the role of the interviewer's skill and experience. Instead, it was based on the interview content (Hough & Oswald 2000; Dipboye & Jackson 1999; Pulakos, Schmitt, Whitney & Smith 1996). However, it seems that only certain types of job-applicants need to prepare for such a structured interview.

First, the battery of questions is probably more appropriate for most structured/manufacturing jobs; however, for in-service jobs, where interpersonal communication is essential, it appears that such an interview procedure would not be appropriate. In face-to-face contact jobs, it is not only the content of the response which is important but the quality of the nonverbal communication (Kador 2002; Fontana & Frey 1999; Hollandworth et al. 1979). Second, such a battery of questions may prove to be efficient where jobs are highly specialized in medium-sized to large companies but that may not be the case in relatively small companies (Snell & Dean 1992 in Latham & Millman 2002, p. 479). Third, what is appropriate in developing countries with a particular environmental climate (Kashima & Triandis 1986; Fry & Ghosn 1980) may not be in a different one. Therefore, preparation for such an interview is not applicable in all cases.
2.5.1.2 Moderators of the Job-interview Process: Prospective job-applicants need to be aware of external and internal moderators which may influence the job-interview. It was found that interactive dynamics are receiving increased attention (Posthuma, Morgeson, & Campion 1999). Posthuma et al. (1999) asserted that external and internal organizational factors may influence selection interview decision-making. These contextual factors might act as moderator variables:

- The external organizational moderators may include national culture, legal requirements, labor market conditions, and the industry sector.
- The internal moderators may include the character of the job, the interview medium, interviewer training, and characteristics of the interviewer and interviewee.

Below, I will discuss some of the moderators. For instance, in terms of the organization’s external factors. National culture is a likely moderator on the validity of job selection decisions because a nation’s culture may influence the values, attitudes, beliefs and behavior of job-applicants (Daniels, Radebaugh & Sullivan 2004; see further chapter one). Relative to American students, the Japanese attributed more failure and low success to themselves (Kashima and Triandis 1986). American-Indian children attributed much of their success to luck whereas Anglo-Saxon children attributed it to their ability (Fry & Ghosh 1980). These findings indicate that different ethnic groups and cultures respond differently to interview questions. Research is needed to determine not only whether typical interview questions that are valid in one country [BANA] are valid elsewhere, as Lebanon, but also whether educating/training job-applicants for job-interviews in their own situated context where presumably different predictor and criterion constructs hold prepares them for both the local and international market (see further chapter seven).

The labor market conditions and the industry sector acting as moderators also provide relevant information for an applicant. For instance, the hiring process may also be influenced by the number of applicants interviewed (Webster 1982); that is when the number is small, the interviewer “sells the company” to the applicant (Arvey & Campion 1982) whereas when there is an abundance of job-applicants, the interviewer’s rating may reflect negative leniency (Eder & Buckley 1988). Moreover, interviewers may also be influenced by the industry sector, whether it is
manufacturing or service. It was found that a stronger relationship existed between the interlocutors in the labor intensive than in the less labor intensive sector (Terpstra & Rozell 1993): that is, in such settings, interviewers need to determine whether the job-applicant can handle challenging interpersonal interaction. It seems that job-applicants need to be aware that the employment interview for a service sector position may focus on a variety of interpersonal, conceptual, decision-making as well as technical skills.

Internal moderators as interviewer perception, personal characteristics of the interviewer or the job-applicant, and the interviewer-job-applicant relationship all provide meaningful job-interview information to an applicant. It was found that the interviewer's positive perception is based on the applicant's competence, informativeness, perception of the job, and intention to accept the job (Harris & Fink 1987). In terms of interviewer characteristics, accountability would seem to be an important factor that can affect interviewers' behavior because interview decisions are social judgments (Johns 1998). In terms of job-applicant characteristics, interpersonal accountability would seem to be a factor that affects the applicant as well. Another variable is the interviewer-applicant relationship. The nature and history of this interpersonal relationship has not yet been investigated (Eder & Harris 1999). It should be added that even though the interview is an information exchange between the interview participants, so far the studies have focused on the validity of the interview for predicting person-job fit from the point of view of the employer. Few studies have examined validity from the applicants' point of view. Based on the research that I conducted, studies of this nature have not been conducted in Lebanon or the neighboring region. As noted earlier, this research included using OPAC, Educational Research in Lebanon between 1950-2000 (CD-ROM) (2002), and electronic resources as ERIC and Proquest.

Questions related to the job-applicant's interview performance and where job-applicant accountability lies were the starting point of this study. I began to consider the job-interview from the applicants' point of view a number of years ago before I started to work on my doctorate in education. I began to teach ESP in 1991, and the course material related to teaching the interview was brief, that is as an ESP teacher, I was told to introduce my students to the concept of the job-interview. A few years later, submitting an audio-taped authentic job-interview was included on the syllabus. It was at this point that I felt that ESP students were not properly prepared for a job-
interview. I perceived a problem area because I assumed that training ESP students may professionalize their job-interview conduct.

2.6. Training for the Job-interview

Training prospective job-applicants who are ESP university students might include teaching them how to use their context in terms of its physical and interpersonal aspect. Such training would include their verbal, nonverbal, and articulative resources (Eder & Harris 1999; Hollandsworth et al. 1979).

When there is legitimate concern by academic planners, teaching and training are based on a full appreciation of the student/job-applicant (Nunan 2001, p. 1). Students need to develop necessary communication skills and attitudes that would enable them to project a positive image to the interviewer. Teachers would explain the procedural and the substantive factors evaluated by interviewers (Stewart & Cash 2000, pp. 260-271). The procedural nature of the interview is illustrated below (see Figure 2.8). As noted earlier, it is important that applicants analyze themselves and conduct research on the market, the company, the job and the interviewer. Before the actual interview, applicants need to prepare themselves and their formal documents. During the first few minutes of the interview, applicants need to create a favorable impression. Throughout the interview, questions are to be answered in an intelligent, full, and coherent manner. As the interview concludes, the applicants may be asked a few questions. As the interview closes, they ought to conclude with positive remarks and then, if appropriate, send a thank-you letter to the interviewer for the interview, again highlighting their good points (Thill & Bovee 2005, pp. 489-504; Burgess 1993).
Given the ESP students awareness of job-interviews, I presumed that awareness of the different stages involved in preparing for and conducting an interview was relevant for ESP university students. Another important factor is the criteria job-interviewers may consider in evaluating the job-applicant (see Figure 2.9).

Research studies posit that what is communicated in job-interviews reflects whether the job-applicants have prepared for the job-interview (Latham & Millman 2002, p. 473; McDaniel, Whetzel, Schmidt, & Maurer 1994, p. 599) and effectively prepared to use their three resources—verbal, nonverbal, and articulative. This is reflected in whether they listen (Morreale & Bovee 1998 cited in Bovee, Thill & Schatzmann 2003, p. 45; Erickson & Schultz 1982; Erickson 1975) are conscious of their choice of words (Kador 2002), and other nonverbal communication during the interview.

In general, according to Martin (1974 cited in Robbins 2000, p. 270), company interviewers in the United States of America evaluate job-applicants based on whether they reflect the following criteria in ascending order: integrity, general intelligence
and knowledge, ability to communicate, maturely directed energy, ambition, and specific abilities related to the job.

Figure 2.9: Criteria For Evaluating Applicants.

Source: Adapted from Martin 1971 cited in Stewart & Cash 2000, p. 270

Awareness of these criteria and the order they may be perceived in is relevant for ESP university students. However, in different fields of work and in different countries the order may change. Moreover, in the same field of work, in multinational companies, company-interviewers at home may perceive different criteria as relevant.

Some interviewers tend to form a very early impression based on the written documents already submitted (Dipboye & Jackson 1999; Dipboye, Fromkin, & Wibok 1975, p. 43). Intelligence, logic, coherence, comprehensiveness, and honesty are factors reflected in the job-applicant's discourse and may be relevant to different company-interviewers. Fluency is an area of concern for second-language-speakers of English who are being interviewed for their prospective jobs in English (Marshall
It is recommended that the job-applicant pose questions (Leanne 2004, p. 111; Kador 2002; Burgess 1993). This reflects that the applicants are evaluating their potential in terms of the company and are interested in long-term commitment.

Jenkins & Atkins (1990) advise job-applicants to wear a formal conservative neutral suit. Keeping a distance in interviews, even in polychromic society is suggested by Hall (1998). The job-applicants' posture is said to reflect apparent level of confidence (Kendon 1992). The nature, diversity, frequency, and rapidity of gestures may also reflect a level of confidence according to Streek and Knapp (1992). Moreover, the movement of the head (Streek & Knapp 1992) may reflect the job-applicants' attentiveness to the interview discourse. The expression on the job-applicants' face (Ekman 1980; Ekman & Friesen 1974) is also said to have an impact on the company interviewer's appraisal. Eyes are a decisive factor in conveying interpersonal communication. Maintaining eye contact (Chaney & Martin 2004, p. 115; Erickson 1992) is said to reflect the job-applicant's sense of self-esteem and esteem for others. Paralinguistics (Chaney & Martin 2004, p. 111), silence (Pinder & Harlos 2000 cited in Robbins 2003, pp. 300-301).

These factors are said to be relevant in job-interviews in BANA. Based on experience, observation, and the research I conducted, these factors may be relevant currently in Lebanon.

Awareness of the procedure and the substantive factors cited above may be perceived as a relevant factor in preparing for the job-interview. Simulating the job-interview is a promising method in employment communication where the role of self-awareness and problem-solving may be exercised. Students have the opportunity to exercise their right as equals and learn a repertoire of behavior to act in their own self-interest (Robbins 2002/1988; Frodden, Picon & Usma 2001; Lundelius & Poon 1997; Golebiowska 1990; Jones 1982). Simulations may be perceived as authentic because the challenges met are similar to those met in the real world; nonetheless, simulations do not reflect all the complexity in real/authentic job-interview (Messick 1994, p. 17 cited in Hutchinson 1995, p. 2). Nevertheless, simulations/learning by doing/training may provide candidates with an opportunity to learn how to use their job-interview communicative and contextual skills. Performance in future simulations may also be enhanced if participants have the opportunity to observe their earlier role-playing (Sheridan 1993).
have been recommended as a learning tool (Pink 2004; Fox 2003/2000; Lundelius & Poon 1997).

In this chapter, I have defined and constructed the conceptual framework of this study. As an ESP practitioner-researcher, I felt that ESP students were only theoretically prepared for the job-interview. Practical exercises that help them understand who they are, what their objective is and how the company can help them fulfill it, what a job-interview is, and how to interact professionally in such an interview context ought to be included as practical work to reinforce the theoretical framework. Consequently, I developed an innovative task-based process which intervenes in the ESP course design to address and enhance students' job-interview performance (see further chapter three). Below, I will sum up the conceptual framework.

2.7 Conclusion

As noted in chapter one, the problem that I perceived was that many ESP students may not be performing as well as they might at job-interviews. The first purpose of the study is to evaluate whether the participants' job-interview performance progressed positively across the intervention curriculum and became more professional in the authentic job-interview context. The second purpose is to evaluate whether the intervention curriculum was perceived as an effective one by the participants and myself, the practitioner-researcher.

This chapter has provided the conceptual framework for such a study. It has reviewed a process orientation to curriculum development that allows for a greater flow of information and integration between planning, implementing, and evaluating ELT curriculum. Prominence is given to student feedback on course work and the teacher as a curriculum designer. Curriculum development, implementation and evaluation were reviewed. Language learning classrooms were discussed in terms of the class context, interaction management, and small culture. Also, informal cooperative learning was posited as a relevant structure of language learning. It was discussed in terms of higher cognitive achievement and a stronger social network. Lastly, ESP and English for Business Purposes were reviewed. English for Business Purposes was developed as a specialized course where students learn a number of business-related communicative skills, particularly job-interview skills.
A process oriented approach and socio-cultural awareness are key ideas put forward in this study stemming from my perception as a practitioner-researcher of the need for change in the language learning classroom (Pulveress 2004/2000; Burns 1997; Kramsch 2002) in terms of English as an International Language, curriculum, small culture, structure, textbook, classroom material, and tasks/activities. Curriculum in the contemporary world of education is no longer a statement of intent but rather it is about what is actually going on in the language classroom (Nunan 1988). In the language learning classroom, the teacher is accountable (Burns 1997; Candlin 1984) and instrumental (Richards 2001; Dudley Evans & St. John 1998). As a result, curriculum intervention and evaluation may be deemed necessary by that teacher (Todd 2004/1997; Henson 2001; Pratt 1994). Curriculum intervention may be found necessary because many students face presentation problems in their course work. A teacher may also question the cultural appropriacy of the content, text, material or methodology used. In a climate of relativism, automatically using the British, Australasian, and North American course design may not be deemed appropriate by the teacher. What it is being replaced by is a situated approach. This includes, first, understanding the immediate language learning context and, second, understanding the social practice in a small culture (Holliday 1999).

Teachers need to look for practical, significant, and creative ways (Dee Fink 2003; Henson 2001) in which ELT/ESP might develop an agenda for learning and intercultural learning without deviating from meeting the needs of its nonnative speakers of English (Pulvereness 2004/1999). Teaching ESP to non-native speakers means that the curriculum, syllabus, pedagogy, small culture, structural approaches, and teaching and evaluating instruments need to be situated (Holliday 1999; Nunan 1988). In this study, the context of language-learning is the job-interview in an ESP course in Lebanon (see Chapter one).

For that context, during the Spring semester 2001, I generated an ESP intervention curriculum which was an essentially practical activity since it sought to improve the quality of language teaching through the use of systematic planning, development and evaluation practices. The intervention and evaluation curriculum that I developed and implemented is described in the following chapter.
Chapter Three: The Intervention and Evaluation Curriculum

3.1 Introduction

The intervention and evaluation process is a six-stage process: Learning in the ESP classroom; simulation of the interview in the classroom context; group interview; simulation of the interview in the job-interview context; the research interview(s) with the company-interviewer, and the assessment interview(s) with the participants. It includes both pedagogy and assessment. The pedagogy included the first four stages and the assessment, the last two. The six stages of the intervention and evaluation process are explained below beginning with learning in the ESP Classroom.

3.2 Intervention Curriculum

Below, I will explain what took place in the first four stages of the intervention curriculum.

3.2.1 Learning in the ESP Classroom

The first stage took place in the ESP class. The context was a second language learning classroom for English for Business Purposes. The class learned about common formal transactions in the business world: Business Meetings, Memorandum, Minutes, Agenda, Reports, and Employment Communication. These students were also to be assessed by handing in an audio-tape of an authentic job-interview which they had recently had. I strove to generate an informal cooperative learning environment in which students were at ease in the learning context. I tried to provide an opportunity for them to work cooperatively and to be able to participate freely in a language learning environment.

Stage one of the intervention process was to expand on the material normally assigned to job-interviews for business English students. My objective during this class session was to thoroughly discuss searching for jobs and the job-interview itself: its context, its physical and relational content, and the interlocutors' time-frame. I explained what precedes it, its process, and what follows. The participants became familiar with 'job hunting' which is the term used in the ESP course text (Wolford &
Vannman 1992, p. 331) in the local business environment. The ‘Job Hunt’ was illustrated as a sequential process which included three steps. Step one was a self-assessment in order to know oneself and one’s best choice of job (see Table 3.1); step two included searching for jobs and using recruitment agencies; and, step three was awareness of the job and the company and preparing the required documents which included a job application form, Curriculum Vitae (CV), and cover letter (see Table 3.2). In addition, the class was given copies of authentic (Clifton 2005, p. 1) application forms, CVs, and cover letters which I held were valuable learning tools to read, discuss, and evaluate. Some of the students in the class were part-time or full-time employees. They shared their experiences and shared core ideas with their classmates.

Table 3.1: Self-Analysis

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Self Analysis</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Goals</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a. Why do you want this job?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b. Where do you want to be in five (ten, twenty) years?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c. What do you want from a job?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>d. What is your definition of professional success?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a. Why did you choose this major?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b. Why did you choose this school?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c. How did you finance your education?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>d. What was best about college?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>e. What was worst about college?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>f. What single most important thing did you learn in college?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Experience</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a. What did you like most (least) about your last job?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b. Why do (did) you want to leave the job you have (had)?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c. This job requires ____ and _____. What experiences have you had in ____?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>d. What important things did you learn from your last job?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Describe Yourself</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a. What are your strong points?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b. What are your weak points?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c. How have you changed during the last ____ years?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>d. How well do you work with others?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>e. How well do you work alone?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>f. Why should we hire you?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>g. Are you willing to relocate?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Knowledge</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a. What do you know about this company?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b. What do you know about this job?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c. What do you think qualifies you for this job?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>d. What do you think is the most difficult part of this job?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Inquiry: Do you have questions for me?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Adapted from Wolford & Vanneman 1992, pp. 337-338
Table 3.2: Requirements in the Job Hunt

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>Job Hunt</strong></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>• Self-evaluation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Work vacancies</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Employment Agencies</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Media Channels</td>
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<tr>
<td>• Alumni</td>
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<tr>
<td>• Red tape</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Standard documents</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Job Application Form</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Curriculum Vitae</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Cover Letter</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The second topic covered in class was the concept of interviewing. It included the central processes that are related to interviewing and the interview context (see Table 3.3). These concepts were discussed at length in class.

Table 3.3: Overview of Course Lecture on the Job-interview

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>The Job-interview</strong></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>• Interview Context and Content</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• The Office</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Verbal Behavior</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Nonverbal Behavior/Silent Language</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Interviewing</td>
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<tr>
<td>• Schedules</td>
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<tr>
<td>• Sequence</td>
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<tr>
<td>• Question Format/Response Mode</td>
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<tr>
<td>• Company Interviewer/Job Candidate</td>
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</table>

Class time included an interactive discussion on the job-interview context and interviewing skills and techniques. First, the physical context was discussed. The interviewer's secretary and the waiting room were described. The job-interviewer's office was illustrated: the seating arrangement, the desk and chairs, and role distance.
[proxemics] were described in order to make the setting familiar. Next, the personal and relationship factors were discussed. I explained the job-interviewer's role and the type of questions which might be posed and which are perceived as legitimate (Chaney & Martin 2004; Bovee, Thill, & Shatzmann 2003). I also explained the job-applicant's role. Moreover, I discussed relationship factors which might influence the job-interviewer's perception of the job-applicant (see further chapter two). I supported the explanation with examples I had drawn from informal observation of other job-interviewers' and participants' verbal and nonverbal behavior (see further chapter two; Akhras 2000c; Akhras 2000b). Some of the material I explained was covered in the ESP textbook (Wolford & Vannman 1992, pp. 301-352). I also explained the job-interview sequential and procedural process (Stewart & Cash 2000; see Chapter two, Figure 2.8 and Figure 2.9). I told the class to pool what they understood from my explanation of the job-interview and what they understood from their text book into their role of job-interviewer or job-applicant at a job-interview. As a reinforcement exercise, I asked the students who were seated side by side (see Figure 3.1), to pair and informally practice the job-interview (Johnson & Johnson 2003; Johnson, Johnson, & Holubec 1994, pp. 4-5) in order for them to experience what an 'authentic' interview might be like. Pair and group-work was not common in the Lebanese university context. I asked each student to practice two roles—that of the job-interviewer and of the job-applicant. They might first adopt the role of the job-interviewer while their classmate assumed that of the job-applicant. The second time, they would adopt the role of the job-applicant while their classmate assumed the role of the job-interviewer. As a result, each student experienced practicing the role of both 'the job-interviewer' and 'the job-applicant'.

In short, in stage one I built on the topics normally covered in class. In the regular ESP course syllabus, explaining the job-hunt and interviewing takes no more than half a session. I restructured the class into more of an informal cooperative learning environment where students (Johnson & Johnson, 2003; Slavin 1990, p. 2) might pool synergetically their effort into learning new skills/goal that were first explained by their teacher. The first stage of the innovative process filled up an entire class session. As already described, it included interactively discussing the job-hunt and the job-interview, using colorful and illustrative handouts, and practicing informal cooperative pair-work in class.
3.2.2 The Simulated Interview in the Classroom Context

The second stage of the process was the simulation of the job-interview conducted in class. The objective was for the participants and volunteers to prepare for their real interview by 'practicing' interviewing skills and techniques in a simulated office which was the front of their ESP classroom. The simulation was observed by the rest of the class and was audio-visually recorded.

The ten volunteers from the ESP class simulated the interview, five as job-applicants, and the others as job-interviewers. On the predetermined date, the class podium was 'transformed' into a job-interviewer's office (see Figure 3.1). The desk was placed at a 180 degree angle to the class/the audience. The candidate's chair was placed to the manager's right. An audiovisual camera was placed behind the manager's back so that it would focus on the participant's interview performance.

Figure 3.1: The Simulated Interview in the Classroom Setting

The students simulated the interview in front of the class. Figure 3.1 reflects the classroom setup during the simulation. It shows that the interview was conducted in front of the class, at a right angle to the class, marginally separating participants from eye contact with the class. In the figure, the participant/job-applicant has not yet properly seated him/herself for the interview. S/he will face the job-interviewer. I sat on the floor behind the interviewer, near the audiovisual recorder, and intentionally out of sight of the participant. Just before the first simulation began, I told the class to
take the five simulations seriously and to critically observe and take notes on the performance paying special attention to the participant's role as a job-applicant. Five simulations of the job-interview were conducted. After each simulation, I directed a positive remark to the participants and volunteers concerning their performance.

3.2.3 The Group Interview

A week later, the following ESP class-session was a classroom discussion of the simulation. The objective was for the five participants and the class members to share information in a positive and cooperative manner (Philips 2004; Johnson & Johnson 2003; Felder & Brent 1996; Slavin 1990) concerning their appraisal of the simulation. This session was not held in their regular ESP class but in the audio-visual room where the five recorded simulations could be watched and heard. The class and the participants had the opportunity to gain awareness of the participants' use of content, eye contact, facial expressions, gestures, posture, dress, paralinguistic, and the context. First they observed the participants' behavior on screen and then they evaluated it.

The group interview was audio-recorded so that there would be a record of what was said by the ESP students, the five participants, and myself, as the ESP university lecturer. I distributed two different handouts (see Appendix A & Appendix B). On one, there was a reminder of the key issues relevant in job-interviews such as context, job-interviewer, and job-applicant. On the other, there was a list of points on which the class might base their evaluation of the job-applicant: knowledge, content, clear concise structure, use of posture, gestures, and facial expressions. I reminded the class that this session was mainly devoted to observing and evaluating the performance of the five participants who simulated the role of the job-applicant. After each recorded simulation had been observed, time was given for a written evaluation on the second hand out. After the class had observed the five simulations, the floor was open for a discussion of the participants' performance. After I had introduced the topic, I turned on the audio-recorder. The participants, volunteers, and ESP students all participated in the group interview. I made an effort to keep the discussion constructive in order for the participants and the class-members to behave ethically and to learn from the pooling of information.
3.2.4 The Simulated Interview in the Authentic Job-Interview Context

Stage four is perceived as the second simulation. It took place outside the university, in the private offices of particular company-interviewers. Video footage was taken of the interview. The objective was to observe how the participants behaved as they interacted with their company-interviewer. I was not, as such, interested in the company-interviewer’s behavior, but in the participant’s response to it and the participants’ general interaction with the interviewer.

The interviews were set up by the participants themselves. As mentioned above, students of ESP are required, as part of their assigned material, to submit an audio-tape of their job-interview. However, these five participants’ interviews were audio-visually recorded. Hence, they searched for business organizations that would interview them and accept that the interview be recorded. I did not in any way intervene in the setting up of the interview. The company and the interviewer were selected by the participant. The company-interviewer and I met for the first time at the interview, at a time and date set by the company-interviewer and participant. After I had been introduced to the company-interviewer, I set up the recorder to focus on the participant’s performance as it had in the classroom simulation. The interview officially commenced after I left the office. During the interview, it was the job-applicant’s oral and nonverbal behavior that was recorded.

3.3 Evaluation Phase

Following the intervention curriculum, evaluation was conducted. Two interviews were included in the evaluation phase.

3.3.1 Research Interview with the Company-Interviewer

This interview was the first evaluation interview. Stage five was the research interview which I conducted and audio-taped. The objective was to gather immediate first-hand information concerning the authentic job-interview context. It was also to collaboratively discuss the participant’s performance. The company-interviewer was interviewed immediately after the simulated interview held in his office to get feedback on the participant’s verbal and nonverbal performance while it was still
fresh in the interviewer’s mind. In this way, evaluative benchmarks and general evaluations could easily be discussed (see Appendix C).

3.3.2 Assessment Interview with the Participant

Stage six was an assessment interview which occurred directly after stage five. I gathered information on the participants’ evaluation of the curriculum particularly their second simulation which had just been conducted in the authentic job-interview context. I audio-taped the assessment interviews which included discussions on what participants perceived as a relevant or critical incident and their reaction to their performance.

3.4 Conclusion

Chapter three recounts the implementation of the intervention and evaluation curriculum across six stages. It serves to link the conceptual framework developed in the preceding chapter to the methodology chapter which follows.
Chapter Four: Methodology

4.1 Introduction

This chapter discusses the methodology used in the study. First, the purpose and the five research questions are stated. Second, the rationale behind the selection of case study as the research design is developed. Third, a description of the dependability, consistency, generalizability, triangulation, and ethical issues of the study is provided. Fourth, the role of the participants is clarified. Fifth, the data gathering and analysis process is explained.

4.2 Purpose and Research Questions

The purpose of the study was to see whether the intervention curriculum was able to bring about a professional change in the participants' job-interview performance. Two research objectives were proposed:

- The first research objective of the study was to evaluate whether the participants' job-interview performance progressed positively across the intervention curriculum and became more professional in the authentic job-interview context.
- The second research objective was to evaluate whether the intervention curriculum was perceived as an effective one by the participants and by myself, the practitioner-researcher.

The research questions, stated below, focus on key issues to evaluate whether the intervention curriculum as a process approach was able to bring about a professional change in the participants' job-interview performance. There are five key research questions addressed in the study:

**Research Question One:** Where in the four-stage intervention curriculum have the participants been able to gain job-interview skills?

**Research Question Two:** How in the four-stage intervention curriculum have the participants gained job-interview skills?

**Research Question Three:** Has the students' interview performance changed from the simulation in the classroom to the simulation in the
authentic job-interview context? Has it become more professional?

Research Question Four: Do the participants evaluate the intervention curriculum as an effective one in their ESP course?

Research Question Five: Does the practitioner-researcher evaluate the intervention curriculum as an effective one in the ESP course?

4.3 Research Design

The case study was selected as the research approach because it is the most appropriate qualitative research method to evaluate the educational innovative process. The case study is contextual, small scale, and localized (Burns 1997, p. 30). It is bounded (Hammersley & Gomm 2000, p. 4). The case study is framed in the same terms as the everyday practices (Yin 2003, p. 41) I am involved in. It identifies and investigates problems within a specific situation. It focuses on teaching, student outcomes, and the relationship between them across the stages of the process.

Case studies will often be the preferred method of research because they may be epistemologically in harmony with the researcher's experience and thus to that person a natural basis for generalization (Stake 1978, p. 5).

Moreover, this research study evaluates each participant's performance where issues such as similarity (Lincoln & Guba 2000, pp. 40-44) or difference are relevant.

The case study was selected as the research design for five main reasons. First, the case study deals with "concrete practical context-dependent knowledge" (Flyvbjerg 2004, p. 421) that may tie in a case. A case study deals with a unit of study (Stake 1995), a bounded system (Smith 1978), an "integrated system" (Stake 1995, p. 2), "a phenomenon of some sort occurring in a bounded complex" (Miles & Huberman 1994, p. 15), "processes" (Yin 2003, p. 12), or "a specific, a complex, functioning thing" (Stake 1995, p. 2). It may then "reveal the properties of the class to which the instance being studied belongs" (Guba & Lincoln 1981, p. 371). It deals with concrete practical knowledge, and this may generate "general theoretical statements about the regularities in social structure and process" (Becker 1968, p. 233 cited in Merriam 1998, p. 29). Stake (1978) calls this naturalistic generalization.
Second, the qualitative case study was selected because it can be characterized as being particularistic, descriptive, and heuristic (Merriam 1998, pp. 29-30). By taking a holistic view, a case concentrates attention on how a particular group of people deals with problems. A case is descriptive because it uses prose and literacy techniques to describe, elicit images, analyze situations and/or a process across time. Moreover, a case study writes about the sample selected, the events they experienced, and makes quotes which are about significant issues. A case study is also heuristic because it explains the reasons, the background of a situation, what happened, and why it happened. It may explain why an innovation worked or failed to work. It evaluates, summarizes, and concludes. A case illuminates the readers' understanding of the phenomena, brings about discovery of new meaning, extends the readers' experience, or confirms what is known.

Third, the qualitative case study can be defined by disciplinary orientation and by function. By disciplinary orientation, a case study in education might draw upon theory and technique from sociology and attend to constructs of society and socialization, of roles people play, and of social institutions as the family or the school. The approach may focus on behavior patterns or structures of students conducting job-related interviews in a particular ESP class. By function or overall intent, the case study may be seen as evaluative. As an evaluative process, the case study involves description, explanation, and judgment. It provides "thick description", is grounded, is holistic and lifelike, simplifies data, clarifies meaning, communicates tacit knowledge, weighs information, and judges (Guba & Lincoln 1981 cited in Merriam 1998, p. 39).

Fourth, it is particularly suitable for process research. Here, process is viewed in two ways. Reichardt and Cook (1979, p. 21) note:

The first meaning of process is monitoring: describing the context and population of the study, discovering the extent to which the treatment or program has been implemented, providing immediate feedback of a formative type and the like. The second meaning of process is causal explanation: discovering or confirming the process by which the treatment had the effect it did.
Yin (2003) added another important aspect. As a process, the case study investigates a contemporary phenomenon within its real-life context particularly when the boundaries between the phenomenon and context are not clearly evident.

The fifth reason was that the case study allowed the researcher to consider the falsification of her preconceived notions more than their verification (Flyvbjerg 2004, p. 425). As Campbell (1975, pp. 181-182) notes:

In a case study done by an alert social scientist who has thorough local acquaintance, the theory he uses to explain the focal difference also generates prediction or expectations on dozens of other aspects of the culture, and he does not retain the theory unless most of these are also confirmed. ... Experiences of social scientists confirm this. Even in a single qualitative case study, the conscientious social scientist often finds no explanation that seems satisfactory. Such an outcome would be impossible if the caricature of the single case study were correct — there would instead be a surfeit of subjectively compelling explanations.

These five reasons led to the selection of the case study as the research design of this study. As Stake (1981, pp. 35-36) affirms, a case study is concrete, contextual, unique, developed by reader interpretation, and based more on reference population determined by the reader. The case study allows a richer, thicker, particularistic account of the participants' performance across the innovative process. This helps to evaluate an innovative educational process. Kenny and Grotelueschen (1980, p. 5 cited in Merriam 1998, p. 39) held that for evaluative processes, the case study is a "tailor made approach" because it is able to develop an understanding of the dynamics of a program and to convey a holistic and dynamically rich account of an educational process.

4.4 Dependability, Consistency, Triangulation, Generalizability, and Ethics

The issues of reliability, validity, and ethics in this study are very much related to the research design selected, the qualitative case study. Qualitative research seeks to be systematic. Yet, it is not conducted so that laws of behavior can be isolated. Researchers seek to describe, explain, and evaluate the world as it is experienced. Because there are many interpretations, it may be difficult to identify a benchmark.
Lincoln and Guba (1985, p. 288 cited in Merriam 1998, pp 206-207) suggest using the term "dependability" or "consistency" in relation to qualitative data collected rather than reliability and validity. They noted that an outsider, instead of getting the same data, would concur that the results make sense and that the results are consistent with the data collected. As a result, researchers need to ensure the results are dependable by clarifying their position, using a multi-method approach termed triangulation to explain "how they arrived at their results" (Dey 1993, p. 251 cited in Merriam 1998, p 207).

A major assumption of the triangulation strategy is that it is a research process aimed at truth. Denzin (1978a cited in Miller 1998, p. 25) points out that triangulation is a research strategy that involves using several methods to reveal multiple aspects of a single empirical reality. Miller (1998, p. 25) notes that triangulation allows researchers to look at an object from more than one standpoint and provides them with more comprehensive knowledge about the object. It uses multiple investigations, multiple sources of data or multiple methods to confirm emerging findings (Merriam 1998, p. 204) and as such, in case study data collection is recommended as a research strategy (Yin 2003, p 97).

Mathison (1988, p. 17 cited in Merriam 1998, p. 204) suggests shifting the notion of triangulation away from "a technological situation for ensuring validity" and instead relying on a "holistic understanding" of the situation to construct "plausible explanations about the phenomena being studied." As a result, Brannen (2004, p. 313) concludes that a multi-method approach can add up to a "rounded reality" as is advocated by exponents of triangulation (Denzin 1970).

In this research study, the information to be used is triangulated. Information was collected over time using more than one source or method concerning a single empirical 'reality' or 'truth'. Figure 4.1 (see below) illustrates the sources of information that are to be drawn from. The three sources of information at each simulation are what Foreman (1948 cited in Merriam 1998, p. 205) called 'pooled judgment'. These include the participants, the ESP class, and myself who observed the simulation of the interview conducted in class, (see Figure 4.1a) and the participants, the company-interviewer, and myself who observed the simulation conducted in the authentic job-interview context (see Figure 4.1b). The multi-methods of data collection include audio-visual recording of the simulation in the classroom context and the authentic job-interview context, the audio-recording of the
group interview the research and assessment interviews, and the participant observation (see Figure 4.1c).

Figure 4.1: Triangulation in the Research Process

a. Participants

ESP Class

Practitioner-Researcher/Myself

b. Participants

Company

Interviewer

Practitioner-Researcher

c. Participant Observation

Audio Recording

Video Recording

Another important issue in qualitative research is that of generalizability. In qualitative research, external validity is concerned with the extent to which the findings of one study which is internally valid can be applied to other situations. Case studies rely on analytical generalizations whereby the investigator is striving to generalize a particular set of results to a broader theory (Yin 2003, p. 37). This can be done through using representative sampling (Miles & Huberman 1994) or "replication logic" (Yin 2003, p. 37; p. 54) in multiple cases where theory has specified that the
same results should occur. Generalizability would include working hypothesis (Cronbach 1975), concrete universals (Erickson 1986), naturalistic generalization (Stake 1978), and user/reader generalizability (Walker 1980). Working hypotheses replace the notion of generalizability because they take account of local conditions and offer educators practical guidance in making decisions (Cronbach 1975). Erickson (1986, p. 130) writes “the search is not for abstract universals... but for concrete universals arrived at by studying a specific case in great detail and then comparing it with other cases studied in equally great detail.”

Quite similar to a concrete universal (Erickson 1986, p. 130) is a naturalistic generalization (Stake 1995; 1978). The process of naturalistic generalization is done “by recognizing similarity of objects and issues in and out of context and by sensing the natural covariations of happenings.” Like Cronbach’s ‘working hypothesis’ ‘naturalistic generalization’ develops from experience. These can guide the researcher but not predict behavior. Generalizability may also be thought of in terms of the reader/user. According to Walker (1980, p. 34), “It is the reader who has to ask, what is there in the study that I can apply to my own situation and what clearly does not apply.” As the practitioner-researcher, I had an obligation to provide a detailed description of the study’s context to enable the reader to compare situations. The aim was to produce Geertz’s (1973 cited in Delamont 2004, p. 225) classic formulation, a thick description of the setting and the actors in it. I tried to enable this without violating its basic tenets by making the settings sufficiently rich. I developed a rich thick description and multi-site design to enhance generalizability.

Ethics, too, are a central issue in qualitative research. “Qualitative researchers are guests in the private spaces of the world. Their manners should be good and their code of ethics strict” (Stake 1994, p. 244 cited in Merriam 1998, p. 214). Three issues will be discussed in this section. The first is the manner in which participants are handled—codes and consent. The second is the way in which withdrawn information is disclosed—confidentiality. The third is the issue of trust (Punch 1994). The three main issues are those frequently raised in Western discussions of ethical issues in research (Ryen 2004, p. 231). The first issue which is codes and consent has been defined as:

..... informed consent. This means that the research subjects have the right to know that they are being researched, the right to be
informed about the nature of the research and the right to withdraw at any time (Ryen 2004, p. 231)

The issue of concern is the problem of access to groups with differential power to resist intrusion. As noted earlier (see Figure 4.1a & 4.1b), the data was collected from different sources in the four stages of the intervention curriculum. Interviewing and participant observation may carry with it risks and benefits to informants. It is posited that those who are weaker and/or more vulnerable may distort their picture of social reality in order to impress and/or conceal information. During field work, respondents may be embarrassed and feel that their privacy has been invaded (Tuckman 1972). In participant observation, it may lead to changes in some of the participants’ activity, especially those who seek approval from the practitioner-researcher. Others, when reporting their observed behavior, may feel embarrassed about doing so to the observer/interviewer.

The second standard ethical issue of concern is confidentiality. Practitioner-researchers have an obligation to protect the “participants’ identity, places, and the locations of research.” Moreover, they have an obligation to “do no harm” (Thorne 1998 in Ryen 2004, p. 233). For instance, if the researchers have audio or videotaped, they have to make “ethically acceptable choices” concerning listening to or observing the type. Researchers may also choose to be “economical with the truth” or “engage in systematic concealment” (Hornsby-Smith 1993, p. 61).

Analyzing data and disseminating findings can raise the third ethical problem which is trust. Trust is the relationship between the researcher and the participant and also the researcher to other researchers, that is, not to spoil the field for other researchers (Ryen 2004, p. 234). Punch (1986, p. 41 cited in Hornsby-Smith 1993, p. 61) suggests:

some measure of deception is acceptable in some areas where the benefits of knowledge outweigh the harms and where the harms have been minimized by following convention on confidentiality and identity. One need not always be brutally honest, direct, and explicit about one’s research purpose. One should not normally engage in disguise. One should not steal documents. One should not directly lie to people and, while one may disguise identity to a certain extent, one should not break promises made to people, Academics, in weighing up the balancing-edge between overt and
covert, and between openness and less-than-open, should take into account the consequences for the subjects, the profession, and, not least, for themselves.

Moreover, when academics and/or practitioner-researchers have reflected on the ethical dimensions of their study “sound ethics and sound methodology go hand in hand” (Sieber 1992, p. 4 cited in Punch 1994, p. 94).

In summary, it is essential that the participants are handled ethically. It is important to critically examine the extent to which the research procedure and tools are dependable and consistent. Wording questions, physical setting, mood, and interaction are critical issues. Ethics in research is a difficult domain because it is “socially constituted and situated” (Ryen 2004, p. 245); that is, it is about respect for humans who are entitled to dignity and respect in “contextualized dilemmas” (Haimes 2002, p. 105 in Ryen 2004, p. 245).

4.5 Sampling

As noted earlier, the research undertaken is a qualitative study whereby social reality is based on individual cognition, knowledge is based on personal construction, and one’s understanding of the environment is based on self-initiation (Cohen & Manion 2000). With this interpretive understanding of reality, non-probability sampling was selected as the unit of analysis which is “logical as long as the research expects mainly to solve qualitative problems such as discovering what occurs, the implication of what occurs, and the relationships linking occurrences (Honigmann 1982, p. 84 cited in Merriam 1998, p. 61).

The sampling form chosen used was the purposive (Chein 1981 cited in Merriam 1998, p. 61), which is based on the assumption that the practitioner-researcher had special expertise and confidence in the field and wanted to discuss, understand, and gain insight into the participants’ job-interview experiences. The purposive sample was a typical, unique, and convenience one (Yin 2003, pp. 41-42; Merriam 1998, pp. 62-63). The participants volunteered to participate in the study, and they also volunteered to be the job-applicant rather than the job-interviewer. I asked for volunteers because I wanted the participants to be intrinsically motivated, that is that they had personally selected to participate rather than that they had been randomly selected. Another issue in terms of the sample was its size. I selected five
participants because I was aware that the data that would be gathered from each participant across the six stages of the intervention and evaluation curriculum would be copious (see List of Illustrations). As I was working alone, five participants seemed to be an appropriate number.

During the Spring Semester 2001, the participants attended the same section of ESP, three times a week. I was their teacher. From the beginning of the semester in February, I began to observe and reflect on the class members. Based on informal observation, I felt familiar with the class members before primary research occurred mid-April.

In class, after I had explained the job/selection interview to my ESP students, I asked for ten volunteers to participate in this study. I told them that it was an innovative pedagogic process. I also informed them that it would be audio-visually recorded. Of the ten volunteers, five would simulate the interview in class as the interviewer in a simulated job-interview. The other five would simulate the role of the job-candidate both in class and at a targeted job-interview. A number of students raised their hands. I recorded the names of ten and said we would meet after class.

When class was over, the ten volunteers and I met. I described the study and then I discussed its objective and the role that they would play across the five stages (see Table 4.1 below). I explained that some of the stages would be audio and/or video recorded. I told them that I was interested in observing and evaluating their performance across the stages of the process. Evaluating their performance would help judge whether the process was effective in teaching job-interview skills and techniques. After I completed the explanation, the ten broke off into pairs and began to prepare their simulation which was the second stage of the process. I moved among them clarifying ideas and roles. I also recorded the names of those who had chosen to simulate the role of the job-candidate. These five students were the ones I have called participants and those remaining were termed volunteers.
The five participants were sophomore, junior, and senior level students at a private university in Lebanon. They were Lebanese and were relatively fluent in three languages (see further chapter one). The participants were university business students attending a required three credit ESP class for business majors. The participants volunteered to participate in the study. In order to maintain their anonymity, the names used in the study are fictitious. One of the participants was a female, named Josiane, and four were male, named Michel, Tony, Khalil, and Rani.

4.6 Collecting Data at Each Stage and Across the Study

In the following section I will describe data collection in the intervention process—stages one through four—and the evaluation process—stages five and six (see Table 4.1: Overview of The Research Process)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Stages</th>
<th>Activity</th>
<th>Data Type</th>
<th>Data Analysis</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. ESP input session</td>
<td>Teacher input</td>
<td>• Participant Observation</td>
<td>• CL</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Pairwork (in class)</td>
<td>P.R</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Simulation in classroom context</td>
<td>5 simulated interviews in front of the class</td>
<td>• Participants observation: ESP class.</td>
<td>• CL</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• Simulation (PEM)</td>
<td>• Moderators</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• Moderators</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Group Interview</td>
<td>• Self-Evaluation</td>
<td>• Audio tape</td>
<td>• CL</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Feedback from class</td>
<td>• Standard transcript</td>
<td>• Peer-feedback/Self-evaluation (verbal, nonverbal, &amp; articulate resource)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Simulation in Authentic Job-Interview Context</td>
<td>• 5 job-interviews in real setting</td>
<td>• AV</td>
<td>• Simulation (PEM)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• Interactive Transcript</td>
<td>• Moderators</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Research Interview of Company-Interviewer by PR</td>
<td>• Evaluation of Participant in Company-Interviewer’s office</td>
<td>• Audio</td>
<td>• Simulation (verbal, nonverbal, &amp; articulate resource)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• Standard Transcript</td>
<td>• CL</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Assessment Interview of Participant by PR</td>
<td>• Assessment of Performance and Curriculum</td>
<td>• Audio</td>
<td>• Simulation (verbal, nonverbal, &amp; articulate resource)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• Standard Transcript</td>
<td>• Self-evaluation</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Key
PR: Practitioner-Researcher
CL: Informal Cooperative Learning
AV: Audiovisual Recordings
PEM: Participant Evaluation Measure
4.1, above). Information on the five participants' performance was gathered across the intervention and evaluation curriculum. Participant observation and/or fieldwork was used extensively in the study. It is a useful tool in the description of the data collection techniques and the location of data collection (Delamont 2004, p. 218). Participant observation is both observing and interviewing since the practitioner-researcher aims to understand "how the cultures they are studying work" (Delamont 2004, p. 218). In this study, it was designed to see how the participants understood their context by watching and talking to them about what they were doing, thinking, and saying, and not only by being with them out in the field.

I observed the participants directly and indirectly from stage one through six, and I interviewed them and their interviewers in stages three, five, and six. I also reflected across the stages which according to Hammersley and Atkinson (1995 cited in Delamont 2004, p. 226) is the way qualitative researchers strive for reliability and validity.

- Data on stage one which was the ESP learning session included (1) learning how to use the interview and (2) pair-work
- Data on stage two which was the simulation held in the classroom context included (1) participants performance in the simulation, (2) volunteers conduct in the simulation, (3) participant observation: ESP class, and (4) contextual factors
- Data on stage three which was the group interview included (1) the participants' personal feedback on their own and the other's performance in the simulation, (2) feedback from the class on the participants' simulation, (3) my evaluation as the practitioner-researcher of each participant's performance, and (4) contextual factors
- Data on stage four which was the simulation held in the authentic job-interview context included (1) the participants' performance in the second simulation, (2) the company-interviewer's conduct, and (3) contextual factors
- Data gathered in stage five which was the research interview I conducted included (1) the company-interviewer's evaluation of the participants' performance, (2) the practitioner-researcher conduct in the research interview, and (3) contextual factors
- Data on stage six which was the assessment interview I conducted included (1) the participants' self-assessment of performance in second simulation, (2) the
participants' assessment of the intervention curriculum, (3) the practitioner-researcher’s conduct, and (4) contextual factors

Below, I will describe the data collection tools and how they were used to collect data across the six stages. First, I will discuss the audiovisual and audio recorder. Then, I will discuss the interviews which I designed and conducted.

4.6.1 The Audio-Visual Recorder

In the following section, video-recordings and audio-recordings are discussed in relation to the function they served in the data collection process. I will discuss the reason why these tools were selected and how I used them.

As a pedagogic tool, the video-recording was a perfect avenue to provide immediacy to the simulations in the classroom and authentic job-interview context for the participants, the ESP class, and myself. All parties concerned with these contexts may gain access to the job-applicants' performance. Being recorded may encourage participants to (1) perform well, (2) gain access to the verbal, nonverbal, and articulative communicative resource of all the participants, themselves included and thus (3) bring about improvement (see further chapter six).

As a research tool, the video-recordings of the participants performing simulations in class and the authentic job-interview context can be presented immediately. Recordings can be electronically transmitted to other concerned practitioner-researchers interested in analyzing the images. Furthermore, digital images can also be anonymised to protect the participants and to encourage the participants to make inferences and judgments on their own behavior (Pink 2004; Kasper 2000). As mentioned earlier, visual interviews allow the researcher to access, analyze, and evaluate the oral interview, visual images, gestures, and body movements (Pink 2004, p. 395).

I recorded both of the interviews. The camcorder was used to provide a permanent record ESP students simulating interviews in class was meant for simple rather than professional recording purposes. It had a built in microphone and a primitive zoom. As a result, it recorded the participants in one of two ways: either as an enlarged persona whose features could be clearly seen but out of context or as a member of the context but one whose nonverbal behavior could not be clearly discerned. Nonetheless, the recordings were adequate for the purposes of the study.
These “representations” are “portraits” (Waltin 1995, p. 2) of their job-interview-performance in a class simulation. The same was the case at the targeted job-interview. As a result, key moments drawn from the recording can be further studied in terms of contextual behavior and verbal, nonverbal, and articulative resources of the participants’ performance.

The video-recordings of the interviews may be used in the language learning context. As a pedagogic tool, the video recording may motivate a good performance in stages two and four. It also provides an opportunity to learn from the recorded footage in at least two ways which include learning about oral communication, nonverbal, and articulative resource of communication, and comparing it with the other participants (Lundelius & Poon 1997; Stempleski & Tomalin 1990, pp. 3-4).

The videorecording of the interview may also be used for evaluative purposes. The recording may be reflected on and used to evaluate and judge the efficiency of the study (Pink 2004, p. 396-397) in stage three and after stage six. Moreover, interactive transcriptions may also be developed where both the oral communication, the nonverbal and articulative communication are transcribed and comparisons between participants may be drawn.

4.6.2 The Audio-Recorder

The audio-recorder which was the second tool used in the study was used for research purposes. It was selected as a permanent record of oral communication in three of the stages, the group interview and the evaluation interviews. These audio-recordings were also transcribed, reflected on, analyzed and evaluated to judge the efficiency and effectiveness of the study.

4.6.3 The Group Interview

The group interview was constructed as a data collection tool. It is an unstructured series of questions which I generated for two reasons; first, to collect data on how the participants simulation in the classroom simulation was evaluated, and second, to strengthen the participants’ and the ESP classes’ awareness of the effective and efficient use of job-interview communicative resources.
4.6.4 The Research Interviews

The research interviews were unstructured interviews which I designed to collect information on the company-interviewer's evaluation of the participants' performance, particularly the three key communicative resources.

4.6.5 The Assessment Interview

This unstructured interview was conducted to collect data on the participants' personal evaluation of their performance in the authentic job-interview context and the participants' self-assessment of the intervention curriculum.

4.7 Data Analysis Tools

In the following section, I will discuss, separately, the manner in which the data was evaluated for each data collection instrument. First, I will discuss how the audio-visually recorded and audio-recorded data were transcribed. Second, I will discuss how the two simulations were analyzed and the manner in which the data collected in the group, research, and assessment interviews were analyzed.

4.7.1 Transcriptions

The audio or audio-visually-recorded dialogues were transcribed. Interactive and standard forms of interviews were used. The interactive form attempts to transcribe what is heard and seen from the recording. On the other hand, the standard attempts to transcribe what is heard. Below, the techniques adopted are explained.

The simulation held in the classroom and the authentic job-interview context were audio-visually recorded and interactively transcribed whereas the group, research, and assessment interviews which were audio taped were put in standard transcription form. Each transcript includes general information about the context, the genre of the interview, the date, location, interlocutors, and duration. The interlocutors might be participants, volunteers, students, the company-interviewers, or myself and were denoted by a letter. To denote the participants I used M (Michel), J (Josiane), TY (Tony), K (Khalil), and R (Rani). To denote the volunteers and the
company-interviewer, I used (T) and (CI). To denote the students who participated in the group interview, I used ($S_1$, $S_2$, $S_3$) with different subscripts. Moreover, the transcript of each audio-visually recorded interview included a brief preview providing information related to the participants' general appearance and manner. The transcript included seven other pieces of information. For example, at times, the participants became very involved in the interview, and then the dialogue at times overlapped. This was indicated by a vertical line connecting the two pieces of related communication. Below, Rani (R) and myself (T), in the research interview, were involved in discourse related to how he felt in the job-interview:

T: Just tell me how you felt; I mean
R: I think
T: I mean
R: I think I was

Just as the participants perhaps became involved in heated conversation, during the interview, at times, they also refrained from conversing and paused (.). Sometimes, participants emphasized key ideas: these are indicated by italicized words. For example, Rani humorously commented on his use of nonverbal behavior in the job-interview.

T: What about your (.) uh (.) you know (.) body language? Did you use any of that (.) Do you think?
R: There is no cleavage

At times, some of the participants and their interviewers shifted into their native language—Arabic—or their second language—French. These words were typed in bold. They were translated in the formal transcripts in end notes though in the study they are translated in square bracket.

T: You are happy about your performance.
M: Inow$^3$ [I mean] it takes some (.) I should have replied in a quicker manner.

Also included in the transcripts were relevant pieces of information that were not verbalized but were understood by the interlocutors from the text and context. These were included in curly brackets {}. For example, as I was explaining the role of the group interview in understanding the job-interview, I stated:

80
T: Let us briefly talk about their {participants} performance .... We are doing this {group interview} to learn about your {participants} ....

The standard transcript also included references to relevant nonverbal behavior by the participants made by others in the context. These were in square brackets [ ]. For example, the participant, Tony (TY) smiled:

TY: Miss, usually, when I am wearing a suit, I don't have body language [smiles].

T: So the clothing had an effect?

Moreover, the transcript included the sounds—a laugh, chuckle, or cough—that naturally emerged as the interlocutors are speaking. These were placed within parenthesis ( ) where they occurred. For example, Michel (M) laughed as he was reacting to my comment:

T: How funny! It had to be the same room. I should have put you over there then.
M: Yeah (laughs)

When excerpts were included from the interactive transcripts, two columns were presented, that is, in the first, the interlocutors dialogue was placed; in the second, the nonverbal and articulative resources were placed. For example,

CI: Very good ........(.)...... Do you have contact with your customers. 
TY: (.) Uh, I have a lot of contact with the customers. It is a contact job. I am close to my customers, and I oversee the work: What do they need and whatever their car needs and uh and if they like the service we do | and (.)

Uses arms for emphasis, moves head up and down. Waves hands—pulls self up.

Within the study when excerpts from the transcript were included, if an interlocutor repeated/confirmed an idea a superscript is added (K²) or if other students also repeated/confirmed an idea, their participation is denoted [K....S2, S3].

Therefore, in transcribing the dialogue, whether audio or audio-visually recorded, I encoded overlapping sentences, pauses, key ideas, foreign words, relevant pieces of related information, and nonverbal behavior. Moreover, when including excerpts, if parts of a sentence or sentences were removed, coding was also used to allow the reader to understand the dialogue in a richer and more interactive sense.
4.7.2 The Participant Evaluation Measure (PEM)

The Participant Evaluation Measure (PEM) is an eight item measure used to evaluate the participants' performance in the simulations in the classroom and authentic job-interview context. It was modified from the Candidate Evaluation Scale of Hollandsworth, Kazelskis, Stevens, and Dressel (1979, pp. 361-362). It was used to evaluate the simulations in the classroom and job-interviews context. The PEM is an eight-item qualitative measure based on how descriptive the participant's job-interview behavior is in terms of an ideal. This ideal is an 'image' I generated of job-applicant behavior based on an interpretation of a thorough literature review (see Chapter one and two) and personal experience.

The PEM categorizes eight concepts into verbal, nonverbal, and articulative. The verbal category includes appropriacy of content. The nonverbal includes eye contact, body posture, personal appearance, composure, and proxemics. The articulative category includes fluency of speech and loudness of voice. The eight verbal, nonverbal, and articulative resources are defined as follows:

1. Appropriateness of content: whether the participant responded concisely, comprehensively, knowledgeably, included information on company history and job description, stated personal opinion when relevant, and kept to the subject at hand.

2. Eye contact: whether in general, the participant maintained appropriate eye contact when speaking or listening to the interviewer.

3. Body posture: whether the participant sat erect, used hand/arm gestures, and facial expressions appropriate to verbal message.

4. Personal appearance: whether the participant dressed appropriately and was neat and clean in appearance.

5. Composure: whether the participant reflected ease and self-confidence.

6. Proxemics: whether the participant maintained appropriate distance from the company-interviewer, not too close nor too far.

7. Fluency of speech: whether the participant spoke naturally, used words well, and was able to articulate thoughts clearly.

8. Loudness of voice: whether the participant spoke with clarity and appropriately loud, without whispers or shouts.
4.7.2.1 **Subjective Measures:** The tables which reflect the PEM also include a subjective measure of how often certain behavior occurred and/or how long certain behavior occurred out of the total length of the interview.

4.7.2.2 **Moderating Variables:** Moderating variables that may have influenced the participants' behavior were considered inside and outside the job-interview setting. The moderating variables that I perceived in the simulation were (1) role-playing the job-interview, (2) ESL, as well as (3) the teacher, (4) the ESP class, (5) the audiovisual recorder, and (6) the location/setting.

4.7.3 **Data Analysis Tools for the Group Interview**

The data collected in the group interview was categorized differently, that is, the participants' performance was categorized into the three communicative resources: the verbal, nonverbal, and articulative. The data collected in the group interview was analyzed as peer-feedback and self-assessment. Peer feedback categorized the ESP classes' evaluation of the participants' performance in the simulation based on usage of the verbal, nonverbal, articulative resources, general comments on the performance, and the participants' immediate feedback on comments made. The second data-analysis tool was one which categorized the participants' self-assessment based on their usage of verbal, nonverbal, and articulative resources as well as general comments they made on their performance.

4.7.4 **Data Analysis Tools for the Research Interviews**

As noted earlier, I designed and conducted these interviews to collect data on the participants' performance in the simulation conducted in the authentic job-interview context. The data collected from research interviews was categorized based on their use of the verbal, nonverbal, and articulative resource and any general comment made.
4.7.5 Data Analysis Tools for the Assessment Interviews

As noted earlier, the data collected from the assessment interview conducted on the participants was analyzed as self assessment and assessment of the intervention curriculum. However, the manner in which the data was categorized was on the verbal, nonverbal, and articulative resources used and any other comment made.

4.8 Conclusion

The role of this chapter has been to clarify the methodology used. In order to understand whether the intervention curriculum was able to bring about professional change in the participants' job-interview performance, five research questions were posed. In the following chapter, the findings drawn from the use of the methodology explained above are illustrated.
Chapter Five: Findings

5.1 Introduction

Chapter five provides the evidence on the extent to which the intervention curriculum succeeded and led to more professional conduct in the simulation conducted in the authentic job-interview context. Five participants took part in the intervention process which incorporated informal cooperative learning, simulations, and the impact of the audiovisual recordings as pedagogic tools.

The findings from participant observation, audiovisual recording of the simulations in the classroom and the authentic job-interview context, and personally conducted interviews are structured to answer the five research questions, respectively. An overview of the findings presented in this chapter is found below (see Table 5.1)

Table 5.1: Overview of The Findings

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Stages</th>
<th>Activity</th>
<th>Data Type</th>
<th>Data Analysis</th>
<th>Table</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. ESP input Session</td>
<td>Teacher input Pairwork (in class)</td>
<td>* Participant Observation P.R.</td>
<td>* CL</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Class Simulation</td>
<td>5 simulations in the classroom context</td>
<td>* AV</td>
<td>* CL</td>
<td>5.6 – 5.15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Group Interview</td>
<td>* Self-Evaluation</td>
<td>Audio Standard transcript</td>
<td>* CL</td>
<td>5.16 - 5.24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Job Interview</td>
<td>* Simulation #2</td>
<td>* AV Interactive Transcript</td>
<td>* Simulation (PEM)</td>
<td>5.26, 5.27, 5.29, 5.30, 5.32, 5.33, 5.35, 5.36, 5.38, 5.39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Research Interview of Company-Interviewer by PR.</td>
<td>* Evaluation of Participant in Company-Interviewer’s office</td>
<td>Audio Standard Transcript</td>
<td>* Simulation (verbal, nonverbal, articulate resource)</td>
<td>5.28, 5.31, 5.34, 5.37, 5.40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Assessment Interview of Participant by PR</td>
<td>* Assessment of Curriculum</td>
<td>Audio Standard Transcript</td>
<td>* CL</td>
<td>5.41 – 5.45</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Key:
PR: Practitioner-Researcher
CL: Informal Cooperative Learning
AV: Audiovisual Recordings
PEM: Participant Evaluation Measure
Before I relate this evidence, I will provide an overview on the participants. I will also provide a thumbnail sketch of the volunteers and company-managers who participated in the study to set in place the context of the findings on the participants' performance.

5.1.1 A Thumbnail Sketch

In the following section, I will provide an overview of the participant and volunteers who were my ESP students. I will also give an assessment of the company-interviewers drawn from my formal introduction to them and our interaction in the research interview.

From the beginning of the semester, I informally observed the participants' classroom behavior. Based on general appearance and classroom behavior, the five participants' class behavior is illustrated below (see Table 5.2a). In general, it can be said that the participants were competitive students. They paid attention in class, sought the teacher's recognition, and performed very well in ESP graded work.

Table 5.2a: The Five Participants in the ESP Classroom

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Resources</th>
<th>Personally Selected Seating Classroom Behavior</th>
<th>Appearance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Participants</td>
<td>Front row seat centered.</td>
<td>Well-dressed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Attentive</td>
<td>Clean</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Active</td>
<td>Neat</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Actively participates</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Michel</td>
<td>Third row seat centered</td>
<td>Elegant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Quiet</td>
<td>Clean</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Observant</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Competitive</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Participates</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Josiane</td>
<td>Second row seat centered</td>
<td>Casually dressed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Attentive</td>
<td>Clean</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Calm</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Actively participates</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tony</td>
<td>Front row seat centered</td>
<td>Well-dressed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Interactive</td>
<td>Clean</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Loud</td>
<td>Neat</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Actively participates</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Khalil</td>
<td>Second row seat on left side of the class</td>
<td>Well-dressed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Quiet</td>
<td>Clean</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Calm</td>
<td>Neat</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Attentive</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Actively participates</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rani</td>
<td>Second row seat on left side of the class</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Quiet</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Calm</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Attentive</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Actively participates</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

86
Below, I will provide some general information on the five participants (see Table 5.3b). Of the five participants, most grew up in Lebanon, experiencing around six years of the 15 year civil war (1975-1990). Josiane and Michel both attended private, reputable, trilingual English medium schools. They were active and popular members in school, participating in clubs and performing well academically. Tony attended a bilingual school where the language of instruction was French. He began to learn English at the age of twelve in the first year of intermediate school (see further chapter one). Tony excelled academically in school and graduated with distinction. He also belonged to school clubs such as chess and football. Khalil and Rani were also very good students, attending Lebanese schools during their primary (elementary) years and moving overseas as a result of the intensity of the civil war. Khalil lived in Saudi Arabia for around ten years in a cosmopolitan society where he attended the American community school. Rani on the other hand, moved to South Africa for around ten years and attended a local school where the language of instruction was English. From the alternatives that were available to the five participants in the Lebanese market (see further chapter one), the five participants chose a bachelors degree from a private university where the medium of instruction was English. They belonged to the Faculty of Business Administration and Economics. They were second, third, or fourth year students of business with different core areas. Josiane was in international business; Rani and Tony were in finance; Khalil in marketing; and, Michel in business administration.

The five participants were conscientious students because they had achieved a good grade point average. They aimed to excel in the course whether the university course was a general requirement as ESP or a core area course. Khalil and Rani were smart and competitive. Khalil was charismatic. He was a popular student and was very involved in university social life. In class, he was outspoken, and confident. On the other hand, Rani was quiet, and conservative. Rani was sweet and considerate with his peers and cordial towards his teachers. That fall semester, he worked part time to earn some pocket money. Quite different from Khalil and Rani, who were full time students, Josiane was a part-time student. She decided to earn a bachelors degree in business after her career in design was successful. She had a few customers in Lebanon and in the Arabian Gulf. At the university, she had an excellent record of academic performance, and, in class, she tended to adopt a conservative role. Michel
and Tony did well in their ESP course work. They were competitive, vying for attention in class. Apart from their demanding academic load each semester, Michel and Tony had part-time jobs in their family-run-business. When Michel entered university, he chose to work in a different line of business to assert his independence and ‘professionalism’. He was earning a bachelor's degree, and he felt he was a ‘professional’ business man. However, Tony continued to work for his father though he had begun to feel the need to become involved in ‘professional’ work.

Though from different backgrounds, these five participants had two things in common. They were business majors with the intention to get their university degree as soon as they feasibly could, and they wanted to advance quickly in life. Two of the participant had just begun their academic career. Khalil and Rani were still sophomore students. Josiane and Tony were juniors while Michel was a senior.

Table 5.2b: General Characteristics of the Participants

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Job Candidate</th>
<th>Age</th>
<th>Major at University</th>
<th>Life Overseas</th>
<th>Proficiency in English</th>
<th>Job Experience</th>
<th>Income</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Michel</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>Management</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>Third Language; Good</td>
<td>Part-time sales person in products and services; Uses 3 languages.</td>
<td>3 years part time</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Josiane</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>International Business</td>
<td>Work experience</td>
<td>Third Language; Very good</td>
<td>Part-time professional designer; Uses 3 languages.</td>
<td>5 years</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tony</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>Finance</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>Third Language; Good</td>
<td>Part-time assistant manager; Uses 3 languages.</td>
<td>5 years part time</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Khalil</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>Marketing</td>
<td>Family residence &amp; Schooling</td>
<td>Second language; Excellent</td>
<td>None; Uses 2 languages.</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rani</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>Finance</td>
<td>Family residence &amp; Schooling</td>
<td>Second language; Excellent</td>
<td>Some experience in being a waiter; Uses 3 languages.</td>
<td>2 months in Lebanon</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Second, the following brief sketch of the five volunteers who role-played the company-interviewer in the class simulation is based on classroom behavior and general appearance (see Table 5.3). In general, it may be said that the volunteers fell into two groups. Rawan and Sherine were both loud, temperamental and less conservative in terms of general appearance. They sat on the front row and competed for the teacher's attention. On the other hand, Diana, Alain and George were calm, quiet, and well-dressed students who tended to perform well in class.
### Table 5.3: A Profile on the Five Volunteers

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Resources</th>
<th>Personally Selected Seating and Classroom Behavior</th>
<th>Appearance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Volunteers</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rawan\Michel</td>
<td>Front row seat on the right side of the class</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Attentive</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Temperamental</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Loud</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Casually-dressed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Clean</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Alain\Josaine</td>
<td>Third row seat centered</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Quiet</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Attentive</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Very well dressed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Neat</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Clean</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sherine\Tony</td>
<td>Front row seat on the right side of the class</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Attentive</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Temperamental</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Interactive</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Very casually dressed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Clean</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Diana\Khalil</td>
<td>Second row seat centered</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Observant</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Quiet</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Well-dressed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Clean</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Neat</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>George\Rani</td>
<td>Fourth row seat centered</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Quiet</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Casually dressed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Clean</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Third, the brief description of the company-interviewers below is based on behavioral characteristics and appearance (see Table 5.4). The company-interviewers seem to fall in two categories: (1) less experienced but relatively professional and perceptive or (2) more experienced, professional, and perceptive. Michel and Tony were interviewed by company-interviewers who fell in the first category. Mr. Rabih, Michel’s interviewer who was a first line supervisor in a courier agency was dynamic, friendly, and informative whereas Tony’s a first-line supervisor in an insurance company was shy, calm, and noncommittal. As a result, I learnt much from the first research interview and little from the second. Josiane, Khalil, and Rani were interviewed by company-interviewers who fell in the second category. These interviewers were experienced business people. As those in the first, they evaluated the applicants based on their line of business.

These sketches of the participants, volunteers, and company-interviewers are intended to provide supportive background material which may help in understanding the nature of the pedagogic process that the participants experienced.
Table 5.4: The Five Company-Interviewers

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Resources</th>
<th>Characteristics</th>
<th>Appearance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mr. Rabih\Michel</td>
<td>Energetic, Positive, Informative</td>
<td>Casually-dressed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mr. Habib\Josiane</td>
<td>Calm, Informative, Knowledgeable</td>
<td>Wearing a dark suit</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mr. Michel\Tony</td>
<td>Quiet, Abrupt</td>
<td>Wearing a light gray suit</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mr. Phillip\Khalil</td>
<td>Calm, Informative, Knowledgeable</td>
<td>Wearing a dark suit</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mr. Chady\Rani</td>
<td>Conversant, Informative</td>
<td>Casually-dressed</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

5.2 Location and Structure of Learning

Respectively, in the sections that follow, the five research questions are answered by information drawn from the participants' performance across the four-stage intervention curriculum and the two-stage evaluation (see Table 5.5).

Table 5.5: Answering the Five Research Questions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sections of Chapter</th>
<th>Research Questions</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>5.2: Location and Structure of learning</td>
<td>RQ 1: <em>Where</em> in the four-stage intervention curriculum have the participants been able to gain job-interview skills?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>RQ 2: <em>How</em> in the four-stage intervention curriculum have the participants gained job-interview skills?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.3: Professional Change</td>
<td>RQ 3: Has the students' interview performance <em>changed</em> from the simulation in the classroom to the simulation in the authentic job-interview context? Has it become more <em>professional</em>?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.4 Participants' Evaluation of Their Job Interview</td>
<td>RQ 4: Do the <em>participants</em> evaluate the intervention curriculum as an effective one in their ESP course?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.5 Practitioner-Researcher's Evaluation of the Intervention Curriculum</td>
<td>RQ 5: Does the <em>practitioner-researcher</em> evaluate the intervention curriculum as an effective one in the ESP course?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Below, I will show how the participants' performance in the four stages of the intervention curriculum answers the first and second research question.

The participants engaged in an innovative pedagogic process where the learning stages were structured to include different contexts, roles, and pedagogic tools. The evidence on each participant's performance across the six stages is presented in the following order: Michel, Josiane, Tony, Khalil, and Ramy, as this was the chronological order of the second simulation held in the authentic job interview context.

5.2.1 Learning Process

As mentioned in chapter three (see Chapter three, pp. 57-61), the first stage was the ESP class session. It included four central concepts which were self-assessment, job hunting, the job interview, and informal cooperative learning. The participants each filled out a self-assessment form (see Table 3.1) categorized into personal goals, education, experience, self-description, knowledge related to the targeted company/job, and a company-related self-generated question. The participants listened to a lecture on job-hunting (see Table 3.2) and on job-interviewing (see Table 3.3). Lastly, for a few minutes, each participant practiced with the classmate seated by him/her basic interviewing skills as either a job applicant or a job-interviewer. For example, Khalil and Sherine, seated side by side practiced their skills directly in front of me. In doing so, each practiced what may be perceived as informal cooperative learning (Johnson, Johnson, & Holubec 1994) characterized by behavior that is goal-directed, and reflects synergy, accountability, and complementary skills (Robbins 2004, p. 258). For example, they teamed-up and Khalil said, “Listen, you’ll be the company-interviewer right! Then, I’ll ...” Sherine remarked, “Hey, don’t forget to ...” These examples seem to reflect sharing ideas, using complementary skills, and being accountable and goal-directed.

5.2.2 Simulation in Classroom Context

The participants engaged in learning through simulating the interview in stage two (see Chapter three, p. 61). Each adopted the role of the job-applicant and practiced the verbal, nonverbal, and articulative resources in a job interview (see Chapter four, pp. 82-83). The following is a reflection on their performance.
Michel: Michel's five-minute interview performance was evaluated using the PEM (see Table 5.6) that also included subjective measures (see Chapter four, p. 83). As noted, the eight categories of the PEM include appropriateness of content, personal appearance, eye contact, body posture, composure, proxemics, fluency of speech, and loudness of voice. Some of these communicative resources can be seen in the excerpt drawn from the interactive simulation transcript below which was explained earlier (see Chapter four, pp. 79-81) that presents the dialogue in one column and the nonverbal and/or articulative in the other (see below and throughout the chapter).

While Michel was providing job-related information, he was also involved in nonverbal communication which seemed to reinforce his message. For example,

I: And how do you describe yourself? How do you work with people?
M: I have no
I: Yes over here there is a lot attraction {interaction} with people ... you have to sell products. Are you able to do that.
M: Ok I have no problem to deal with people. I don't just shut the door and say now [That is] bli aksî [contrarily] I negotiate and try to find a solution ... for each and every problem.

Moreover, Michel dressed professionally for the interview. He maintained eye contact, used gestures, tended to nod as he or the interviewer spoke to reinforce what was said, and spoke loudly and could be heard relatively well. However, he did not always use nonverbal and articulative resources to strengthen his professionalism. For most of the interview, he did not sit upright. He crossed and uncrossed his legs and changed his proxemics during the simulation. He spoke quickly, paused a few times, and used Arabic.

Table 5.6: Participant Evaluation Measure of Michel's Class Simulation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Resources</th>
<th>Appropriateness of Content</th>
<th>Personal Appearance</th>
<th>Eye Contact</th>
<th>Body Posture</th>
<th>Composure</th>
<th>Proxemics</th>
<th>Fluency of Speech</th>
<th>Loudness of Voice</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Michel</td>
<td>Three interesting examples</td>
<td>Well dressed</td>
<td>Maintained eye contact (90%)</td>
<td>Upright: 10% Gestures: 4</td>
<td>Serious (90%)</td>
<td>At times maintained appropriate distance of others Leaned forward (once)</td>
<td>Used a long pause (once) Used three Arabic words to express himself Spoke quickly</td>
<td>Could be heard relatively well</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

UD: Up-Down
LR: Left-Right

92
His overall performance may have reflected the potential impact of moderators as role-playing/acting, ESL, and an audience (teacher, ESP class and audiovisual recorder) (see Table 5.7). For instance, his verbal and articulative resources may have reflected his ESL proficiency since at times, he poorly phrased his sentences, hesitated, used discourse markers and code-mixed. In the excerpt drawn from the interactive transcript, Michel’s verbal and nonverbal resources are illustrated. For example,

M: Ok I have no problem to deal with people. I don’t just shut the door and say inow ² [That is] bil akis ³ [contrarily] I negotiate and try to find a solution ... for each and every problem. Again, a serious expression is on his face – though a smile plays there.

The excerpt above reflects his ESL particularly “I have no problem to deal with people.” Moreover, the presence of an audience may have had an impact on his performance especially at the beginning of the simulation when he tended to look at the audiovisual recorder quite often. For example,

I: Why don’t you tell us about your background.
M: ....And, (.), my working experience, um, I worked, (.) uh, two years, at spare parts (.) uh, automotive spare parts, selling, and, I have experience in sales, ok, about, tangible goods. Now, (.) uh, your company, (.) uh, may be is a service company.

Table 5.7: Summarizes Possible Influence of Moderators in Michel’s Class Simulation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Issues</th>
<th>Job-interview/Roleplaying</th>
<th>English as Second Language</th>
<th>Teacher as Audience</th>
<th>Class as Audience</th>
<th>Video Recorder</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Michel</td>
<td>Script/Lines “The sun is shining and I like that”</td>
<td>Use of Arabic “Yanee, inow, Bil Akis, Ya Hallah”</td>
<td>The level of Confidence “Ok I have no problem to deal with people”</td>
<td>The level of confidence “... we will try each other ...”</td>
<td>Observes video-recorder</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Appearance</td>
<td>Discourse makers</td>
<td>Observes teacher’s reaction</td>
<td></td>
<td>Often hesitates</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Suit</td>
<td>Hesitation</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Choice of words</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Josiane: Some examples of Josiane’s behavior are elaborated on below based on an evaluation of Josiane’s 10 minute interview performance (see Table 5.8). In terms of appropriacy of content, Josiane did not always relate her ideas in a coherent and cohesive manner. Consequently, her response was not well-developed, For example,
I: What are your (.), what do you want from this job?
J: (. ) Uh, (. ) um, I was very happy to work well in the position you are offering me. That is exactly what I am aiming for right now. (. ) Um (. ) uh (. ) I am very interested in public relations because I am a social person, and I like to be in contact with customers. Though that I have a certain background in beauty and fashion, and I have been in Europe with cosmetic products so this would give me the opportunity to exert my skills.

Moreover, Josiane seemed to credit herself with the ability to fix the companies problems. For instance,

I: And what do you know about our company and do you relate to it?
J: Your company is an international brand and is one of the (. ) uh top five cosmetic (. ) uh products and (. ) uh I know (. ) uh that the cosmetic business in (. ) uh is one of top of the list of all business’s and (. ) uh some (. ) uh difficulty penetrating the Middle East market. (. ) Uh, probably because you need to get more compatible with our culture, and me, I’m willing to try to uh to work in this, (. ) uh

In the examples provided above and throughout the first simulation, Josiane used nonverbal and articulative resources to strengthen her argument, yet the impression she left was not of an applicant reflecting professional job interview conduct, but of an overconfident applicant. She maintained eye contact and used facial expressions, proxemics, and kinetics.

Table 5.8: Participant Evaluation Measure of Josiane’s Class Simulation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Resources of Content</th>
<th>Appropriateness of Content</th>
<th>Personal Appearance</th>
<th>Eye Contact</th>
<th>Body Posture</th>
<th>Composure</th>
<th>Proxemics</th>
<th>Fluency of Speech</th>
<th>Loudness of Voice</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Josiane</td>
<td>Interesting responses</td>
<td>wore a long sleeved blouse and dark trousers to the interview</td>
<td>Used eye contact to convey message (95%)</td>
<td>Sat erectly</td>
<td>Self-confidence</td>
<td>Maintained appropriate distance</td>
<td>Spoke naturally, emphasized key ideas</td>
<td>Articulated; could easily be heard</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>“the company is an international one and would offer me”</td>
<td>Nod UD 21 LR 8</td>
<td>Used appropriate postures</td>
<td>Gestures (4)</td>
<td>Serious (95%)</td>
<td>Reached over to be kissed at end of interview</td>
<td>Used many discourse markers, (. ), uh, oh, “... and me ... I’m willing”</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Played with her hair</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>“I think this could help ...”</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>“Like we said uh all the time”</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

UD: Up-Down
LR: Left-Right
Josiane’s performance may also have been affected by the moderators (see Table 5.9); that is, she may have been influenced by role-playing, ESL, and the audience. For example, at the interview, she wore a smart casual outfit. Moreover, when asked to evaluate her strengths and weaknesses, Josiane spoke at length about herself and her work experience which reflected her command of the English language, her use of discourse markers, and some nonverbal mannerisms (see excerpt below)

I: Could you tell me about your strong points and weak points
J: My strong points is that (.) um I, I have a certain background that I am familiar with beauty and fashion and design that (.) uh that could help, and I could tell consumers about the latest products and I can understand better their style and could even help them to develop their own style and (.) uh and uh (.) I think that this can help in your work. You know your company and could help promote your products. (.) Oh, as well help promote your products. (.) Uh, as well (.) um, I’m very interested (.) um, I have this memory, and I can remember consumer’s names and their preferences, and this can help most (.) and I also I think that I am sort of well known in this region and the Middle East and, (.) uh, I understand the (.) uh and I understand well the Middle East countries and their culture and probably this could help uh your product to penetrate our market better.

Moreover, when she spoke about her job-relevant experience, she raised her voice and emphasized what she said. This may have been an attempt to distinguish her from others in her class—her classmates and the other four participants.

Table 5.9: Summarizes Possible Influence of Moderators in Josiane’s Class Simulation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Issues</th>
<th>Participants</th>
<th>Job-interview/Roleplaying</th>
<th>English as Second Language</th>
<th>Teacher as Audience</th>
<th>Class as Audience</th>
<th>Video Recorder</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Josiane</td>
<td>Script/Lines</td>
<td>&quot;I am very interested in public relations ...&quot;</td>
<td>Discourse markers &quot;Uh, oh, (.)&quot;</td>
<td>“Experience” &quot;Connections”</td>
<td>Reference to her experience &quot;... I have a certain background”</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Appearance</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Dress</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Style</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Tony: Based on an evaluation of Tony’s simulation which lasted five minutes, some examples of Tony’s behavior are illustrated in Table 5.10. In terms of Tony’s content, he seemed to be well-informed. He knew details about the multinational company with respect to its performance both in the headquarters and overseas. For example,
I: And what do you know about our company?
TY: Well, I know that ALICO company is one of the most important insurance company in Lebanon and in the whole world, and it is part of the ARG, American International Group. It is ranked sixteen in the organizational system’s world wide...
It has about 10,000 employees world wide, 400 of them are in Lebanon.

In addition, not only was Tony able to speak with confidence based on the research he had conducted on the targeted company, but he was also able to have that same level of confidence when spoke about his view on professional success.

I: Well, Ok. Can you give me your definition of professional success.
TY: Well, I think professional success is the ability of the employees to reach the organizational goals in addition to personal success, (.) uh, (.) to achieving his own goals.

Moreover, Tony wisely chose to speak about developing interpersonal relations with different types of people as an asset he had gained at college.

I: In college, you learn different things, but I don't know. In your opinion what was the single, (.) the single most important thing you learnt?
TY: Well, the most important thing was that I had social relationships and with different people, and I learnt from them to be their friends, and to.

Even though Tony's content was rich, he spoke too softly and could not be heard by the interviewer. Moreover, to his simulated interview he came dressed very casually, and his nonverbal behavior was too relaxed. Nonetheless, Tony used eye-contact, facial expressions, head-movements, gestures and proxemics at the interview to reinforce his message.

Table 5.10: Participant Evaluation Measure of Tony's Class Simulation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Resources</th>
<th>Appropriateness of Content</th>
<th>Personal Appearance</th>
<th>Eye Contact</th>
<th>Body Posture</th>
<th>Composure</th>
<th>Proxemics</th>
<th>Fluency of Speech</th>
<th>Loudness of Voice</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Tony</td>
<td>&quot;Um uh (.)&quot; (question is repeated)</td>
<td>Neat Clean Jeans and a Tee shirt</td>
<td>Used eye contact to emphasize ideas (80%)</td>
<td>Minimal Used gestures (15)</td>
<td>Serious demeanor (85%)</td>
<td>Leaned back on chair</td>
<td>Discourse markers</td>
<td>Spoke very softly</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Did not answer it not on script</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

UD: Up-Down
LR: Left-Right
Tony may have been influenced by moderators during the simulation (see Table 5.11). For example, Tony may have been influenced by role-playing in front of an audience since he checked my expressions often and looked at the audiovisual recorder.

I: What important things did you learn in your last job?
TY: Well, I found that employees like business ethics, like to depend on their companies, and like to serve them and give them what they want.

Table 5.11: Summarizes Possible Influence of Moderators in Tony's Class Simulation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Issues</th>
<th>Job-interview/Roleplaying</th>
<th>English as Second Language</th>
<th>Teacher as Audience</th>
<th>Class as Audience</th>
<th>Video Recorder</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Tony</td>
<td>Script/Lines</td>
<td>Discourse markers</td>
<td>Checks teacher's expression</td>
<td>Does not seem to pay attention to class</td>
<td>Checks audiovisual recorder</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Data</td>
<td>Hesitation ‘well’</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Numbers</td>
<td>Sentence structure</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>“well, I think that most of my ...”</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Articulation</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Whispers</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Khalil: Based on an evaluation of Khalil’s four and a half minute interview performance (see Table 5.12), the following is reflected with respect to content. Khalil, like Tony responded at length and was well informed about the company he had applied to. Unlike Tony, he did not express his thoughts clearly as the excerpt below illustrates.

I: I am pleased to meet you. I will get straight to the point. Tell me, why did Marketing...Why did you choose your major as marketing?
K: Well, (.) uh, I think my major is very (.) uh it has a lot of (.) to do with (.) uh social attitude towards people and how to have (.) to treat different customers, and I am very interested in. So I thought that since I am a sociable kind of guy (.) um (.) I thought that (.) uh (.) I can understand the different consumer behavior and know their needs more, to satisfy them.

Khalil seemed to speak English naturally, and he articulated relatively well. As the excerpt indicates, he supported his verbal communication with nonverbal.
Some moderating factors may have influenced Khalil’s class simulation (see Table 5.13). Because he was an outgoing and sociable person, Khalil may not have been influenced by role-playing and the audience factors, though he did seem to take advantage of the opportunity to pull up close to the interviewer. In relation to ESL, some of Khalil’s responses included semantics or sentence structure which did not appropriately express his intention. For example,

I: How do you work with others?
K: ... I understand them if they understand me.
I: And finally, what kind of salary are you expecting from the job?
K: The salary is not in my hands. It is in the hands of the way I perform...should you (.) then you should be able to tell should I perform well. It depends on my performance.

These two responses made by Khalil assume the existence of a relationship which does not necessarily follow. Khalil did not develop a logical argument. His choice of semantics and sentence structure was weak.
Table 5.13: Summarizes Possible Influence of Moderators in Khalil’s Class Simulation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Issues</th>
<th>Job-Interview/Roleplaying</th>
<th>English as Second Language</th>
<th>Teacher as Audience</th>
<th>Class as Audience</th>
<th>Video Recorder</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Khalil</td>
<td>Script/Lines</td>
<td>Interesting words selected:</td>
<td>Be positive</td>
<td>Pulls up close to</td>
<td>Hesitates</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sociable applicant</td>
<td>“Professional” “Right”</td>
<td>Be communicative</td>
<td>interviewer</td>
<td>Um</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Sentence structure “I</td>
<td>“I am a sociable</td>
<td>Stays up close</td>
<td>(•)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>understand them if they</td>
<td>kind of guy…”</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>understand me”</td>
<td>“I feel I am right</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>for you”</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Rani: Based on an evaluation of Rani’s five-minute class simulation (see Table 5.14), the following was observed. Rani was a calm young candidate, who spoke softly, concisely, and fluently, emphasizing keywords. With respect to the content of his interview, when asked about his experience in the job he had applied for, Rani explained both the technical and interpersonal nature of his job experience (see excerpt below). Moreover, Rani’s content was reinforced nonverbally.

I: Please tell me what kind of experience you had in this job.
R: I worked in Bank Audi for around four to five months as an assistant in the Finance Department. At the beginning, it was really scary and hectic, but, later on, I got used to the job, and I learnt a lot of stuff on the computer. The personnel there were very friendly, and taught me a lot, and I learnt about bookkeeping and book journals; how to open certain accounts and how to close them.

Table 5.14: Participant Evaluation Measure of Rani’s Class Simulation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Resources</th>
<th>Appropriateness of Content</th>
<th>Personal Appearance</th>
<th>Eye Contact</th>
<th>Body Posture</th>
<th>Composure</th>
<th>Proxemics</th>
<th>Fluency of Speech</th>
<th>Loudness of Voice</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Rani</td>
<td>Concise</td>
<td>Neat and clean</td>
<td>Used eye contact (90%)</td>
<td>Sat upright (95%)</td>
<td>Used gestures (3)</td>
<td>Calm</td>
<td>Used standard</td>
<td>Fluently emphasized key ideas</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>“I know quite enough”</td>
<td></td>
<td>Nod UD: 15 LF: 8</td>
<td>Used gestures 90%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>“Are you strict…”</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Potential moderators may have influenced Rani’s class simulation (see Table 5.15). For instance, a possible impact of role playing might have been using a script or adopting a relatively serious demeanor. Moreover, another possible impact could have been the presence of the audiovisual recorder. Rani looked at me and the audiovisual recorder, every now and then.
Table 5.15: Summarizes Possible Influence of Moderators in Rani’s Class Simulation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Issues</th>
<th>Job-interview/Roleplaying</th>
<th>English as Second Language</th>
<th>Teacher as Audience</th>
<th>Class as Audience</th>
<th>Video Recorder</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Rani</td>
<td>Script/lines</td>
<td>Soft spoken</td>
<td>Soft spoken and serious</td>
<td>Checking the 'presence' of the recorder</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Question unanswered</td>
<td>&quot;I was looking at you&quot; [R]</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Answer and ask questions</td>
<td>&quot;I was looking at you&quot; [R]</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

5.2.3 Group Interview

In the third stage of the intervention, the participants and the class observed the recorded simulations and then the participants and the ESP class responded to questions I posed concerning the participants’ performance. They generated comments themselves (see Chapter three, pp. 62-63). These comments were based on verbal, nonverbal, articulative, and other resources (see Table 5.16). Such discussions, which are active forms of learning (Philips 2004), were encouraged in the ESP classroom.

Michel: For instance, after Michel’s simulation was projected onto the large screen in the audiovisual room, Michel’s performance was commented on. The excerpt below reflects an example of Michel’s use of verbal and nonverbal resources.

M: Well, (.) uh, I see myself as qualified for that job because I, (.) I, have "yanee" [more or less] lots of computer experience, and I have certificates in Microsoft, and Word, and Excel and moreover, I have experience in sales where I can top on such experience for two years to

Eyes not on interviewer, then, focus on her. Nods. Head up and down. Eyebrows raised. When interviewer not looking at him, closes jacket, crosses knees, looks away from her. Then as she begins to speak, M. looks at her.

When the class watched this on video, a student whom I denoted as S2 (see Chapter four, pp. 78-81) noted that Michel looked like a professional. She stated, “He maintained eye contact.” S6 said, “Michel had his head like this [tilted rather than upright].” This was supported by S7, S8, and S9. S2, S3, S4 who mentioned that he often looked at the audiovisual recorder. Moreover, it was said that he also used terminology which seemed inappropriate such as “problem” when discussing
customer relations and “try each other out” when discussing his relationship to his immediate superior in the simulation. Students engaged in assessment and so did the participants themselves, but to a lesser extent.

Table 5.16: Feedback of Class on Michel’s Class Simulation and His/Her Reaction

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Resources</th>
<th>Verbal</th>
<th>Nonverbal</th>
<th>Articulative</th>
<th>General Comments on Participant’s Performance</th>
<th>Reaction</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Participant</td>
<td>“Michel had his head like this” [S6, S7, S8, S9, T]</td>
<td>“He maintained eye contact” [S2]</td>
<td>“shifting back into your mother tongue when you want to get your idea across, like Michel did” [T]</td>
<td>Prepared for the occasion [S2]</td>
<td>Confident [S2, S3]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Michel</td>
<td>“He answered quickly, may be a little too hastily” [T]</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Knowledgeable [T]</td>
<td>Reacting to Camera [S2, S3, S4]</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Michel’s self-assessment is exemplified (see Table 5.17 below). For instance, when the class was discussing discourse markers, Michel said “I think we are reacting at that time.” It seems that Michel realized that whenever he used discourse markers, he was simultaneously reacting to the interviewer’s message. Another remark he made concerning his conduct was that as an applicant he was someone who “knows [about] his job.”

Table 5.17: Michel’s Feedback on Performance in the Class Simulation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Resources</th>
<th>Verbal</th>
<th>Nonverbal</th>
<th>Articulative</th>
<th>General Comments on Participant’s Performance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Michel</td>
<td>“He knows his Job”</td>
<td>“Not that bad, depending (on very self-confident)”</td>
<td>I think we are reacting at that time (discourse markers)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Josiane: In the group interview, when Josiane’s performance was discussed (see Table 5.18), the general reaction was that she had done very well. For instance, Michel said, “Josiane was excellent.” Khalil commented, “I think Josiane spoke clearly.” Others [S3, S4, S5, T] made similar comments. I added, “... terminology [technical jargon], like Josiane’s ... is important in an interview.” Michel said that Josiane asked the interviewer some questions. Khalil noted, “Her answers were very good.” Michel also said, “Josiane ... somehow (...) moved, moved around OK” [S3, S4, T]. However, the class recognized that she had made some mistakes. S3 remarked, “She answered
more superiorily.” Tony also remarked, “I told Josiane that she showed that, that she
knows more than he [the class interviewer] does.” Rani clarified, “She expected the
interviewer to know her experience, what she has done and what she can do.” Others
[R^2, T^3, S_4, S_7] made similar comments. Rani added, “I think she got carried away.”
In terms of nonverbal behavior, I commented, “… she spoke clearly, held herself
well, used eye contact …” However, it was then that S_9 asked, “Do you think we
should show cleavage?” Other students [S_9, R^4, S_8, S_2, K^2] posed similar questions.
S_2 chose to answer it, “Any company wants that [their employee to look as she did].”

Table 5.18: Feedback of Class on Josiane’s Class Simulation and His/Her Reaction

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Resources</th>
<th>Verbal</th>
<th>Nonverbal</th>
<th>Articulative</th>
<th>General Comments on Participant’s Performance</th>
<th>Reaction</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Josiane</td>
<td>“The terminology, like Josiane, the terminology is important” [T]</td>
<td>“I told Josiane that she showed that … that she knows more than he [the interviewer] does.” [TY]</td>
<td>“Josiane spoke clearly” [K]</td>
<td>“Trying to be smarter than the interviewer isn’t smart” [T]</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>“She answered a lot of things [assuming the interviewer knew her experience” [S_1]</td>
<td>“…spoke, held herself, good posture, eye contact.” [T]</td>
<td>“Her ‘of’, ‘uh’, ‘hum’” [S_2…S_1, S_4, S_7]</td>
<td>“I think she got carried away” [R]</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>“Josiane … somehow (.) moved, moved around ok” [M…S_8, S_2, T]</td>
<td>“Do you think we should show cleavage” [S_2, S_2, R^4, S_6, S_2, K^2]</td>
<td>“The way we speak is very important” [T]</td>
<td>“She expected the interviewer to know her experience, what she has done and what she can do.” [R^2,T^3,S_4,S_7]</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>“Josiane (asked the interviewer a question)” [M]</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>“Any company wants that [revealing clothing]” [K]</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>“Her answers were very good” [K]</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>“Josiane was excellent” [M]</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>“Josiane asked two [3,4] questions” [S_1]</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Furthermore, some findings related to Josiane’s self-assessment are also provided
(Table 5.19 below). She was concerned about her usage of discourse markers. Josiane asked, “Like we say uh all the time” and “Isn’t it good to say well?” She was
also uncomfortable about having to monitor her verbal, nonverbal, and articulative
resources all the time. She realized she had to since the audiovisual recorder was only
recording her behavior rather than both interlocutors.
Table 5.19: Josiane’s Feedback on Performance in the Class Simulation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Resources</th>
<th>Verbal</th>
<th>Nonverbal</th>
<th>Articulative</th>
<th>General Comments on Participant’s Performance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Josiane</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>“Like we say uh all the time”</td>
<td>“Does it (the video recorder) have to tape all the time?”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>“Isn’t it good to use well?”</td>
<td>“First of all, it is a Middle Eastern country and that is what they want [sexual appeal]”</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Tony: Tony also seemed concerned about the audiovisual recorder. An analysis of Tony’s simulation is found in Table 5.20. In general, it may be said that many remarks were made about Tony’s simulations, both positive and negative, some of which brought about a response. For instance, $S_2$ remarked, “Tony was self-confident.” I responded, “I think it is good to be self-confident and to respond with the right words.” Tony reacted, “When she asked me, I said I like competition. I showed self-confidence through that.”

Table 5.20: Feedback of Class on Tony’s Class Simulation and His/Her Reaction

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Resources</th>
<th>Verbal</th>
<th>Nonverbal</th>
<th>Articulative</th>
<th>General Comments on Participant’s Performance</th>
<th>Reaction</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Participant</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tony</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>“He was knowledgeable” [T]</td>
<td>“Tony was self-confident” [S]</td>
<td>“When she asked me, I said I like competition. I want to compete” [T]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>“He was prepared” [S]</td>
<td>“Tony was comfortable” [S]</td>
<td>“Showed self-confidence through that” [TY]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>“Some of the interviewees repeated me” [S]</td>
<td>“It (Tony’s performance) was very nice” [M]</td>
<td>“I was leaning back”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>“Like Tony”, [S]</td>
<td>“It was very good” [S]</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>“That is right…I think it is good to be self-confident….right words” [T]</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>“Tony looked at the camera: it is natural” [T]</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>“He maintained eye contact” [S]</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>“Tony gestured to reinforce his message” [S]</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>“He was not in a professional posture” [S]</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>“He smiled” [S]</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>“He nodded” [S]</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>“He gestured”</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Moreover, Tony’s feedback on his own performance is illustrated below (see Table 5.21). These remarks, like others made by other participants, reflect that they seem to have been actively involved in self-analysis and analyzing the peer-feedback during the group discussion.
Table 5.21: Tony's Feedback on Performance in the Class Simulation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Resources</th>
<th>Verbal</th>
<th>Nonverbal</th>
<th>Articulative</th>
<th>General Comments on Participant's Performance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Tony</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>On Self</td>
<td>When she [interviewer] ask me; I said I like competition. I want competition in the organization. I showed self-confidence through that&quot;</td>
<td>&quot;I was leaning back&quot;</td>
<td>&quot;I answered each question with 'well' and 'me'&quot;</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Khalil: Comments on Khalil's simulation are found in Table 5.22. At the group interview, Michel commented, "He was professional... very good." S4 and S2 remarked that Khalil reflected "confidence." Khalil responded, "I agree. I am very self-confident." Rani also remarked, "You are trying to show that you are better than others." S2 said, "Ikteer Hayek [too much]." Then, Rani said, "He was brief and concise" to which Michel added, "He went [straight] to the point." I commented on his articulative and nonverbal resources, "He articulated...[as] a natural." S8 said, "[He used] Eye contact." Rani also remarked on another factor, "He was hitting on the interviewer." Rani's comment indicated that he was aware of the fact that Khalil flirted with the female interviewer during the simulation. S2 said, "He changed positions midway through the interview." Tony added, "He came closer [to the class interviewer]." S4 teased, "You liked it." Khalil reacted, "Let me tell you why. I couldn't hear her, so I approached her means that I am ... I did this [leans forward]."

Table 5.22: Feedback of Class on Khalil's Class Simulation and His/Her Reaction

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Resources</th>
<th>Verbal</th>
<th>Nonverbal</th>
<th>Articulative</th>
<th>General Comments on Participant's Performance</th>
<th>Reaction</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Khalil</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>He went to the point [M]</td>
<td>&quot;You stayed close to her&quot; [S2]</td>
<td>&quot;He articulated&quot; [T]</td>
<td>&quot;He always. He always has an attitude&quot; [S2]</td>
<td>&quot;I agree (I am very self-confident)&quot; [K]</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>He was brief and concise [R]</td>
<td>&quot;Eye contact&quot; [S4]</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>&quot;Let me tell you why I couldn't hear her, so I approached her... I did this (leans forward)&quot; [K]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>&quot;Natural&quot; [T]</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>&quot;He came close&quot; [TY]</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>&quot;He changed position midway through the interview&quot; [S2]</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In addition, in Table 5.23, Khalil’s feedback on his own performance is elaborated. A key issue for Khalil was communication during the group interview, Khalil said, "Communication is very important ....you have to know how to get the message out
... that depends on the job ....and how you relate to people....a CV does not stand by itself....the way you talk ..., the way you show him.” Rani disagreed.

Table 5.23: Khalil’s Feedback on Performance in the Class Simulation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Resources</th>
<th>Verbal</th>
<th>Nonverbal</th>
<th>Articulative</th>
<th>General Comments on Participant’s Performance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Khalil</td>
<td>“You have to know how to get the message out.”</td>
<td>“It depends on the job (very self-confident)”</td>
<td>“Let me tell you why we make them (discourse markers)”</td>
<td>“You should know how to relate to other people”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>On Self</td>
<td>“A CV does not stand by itself”</td>
<td>“I am very self-confident”</td>
<td>“Just to get a great answer”</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>“Communication is very important”</td>
<td>“… not like I am making a move [interviewer]…”</td>
<td>“But the way we talk?”</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>I try very well [class laughs]</td>
<td>“The way you talk to a person, the way you show him…”</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Rani: Below, criticism on Rani’s simulation is expanded (see Table 5.24). As mentioned earlier in the comments on Khalil’s simulation, Rani and Khalil debated. Khalil questioned Rani’s competence. Rani responded with a counter-argument stating that an applicant ought to be humble rather than overconfident.

Table 5.24: Feedback of Class on Rani’s Class Simulation and His/Her Reaction

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Resources</th>
<th>Verbal</th>
<th>Nonverbal</th>
<th>Articulative</th>
<th>General Comments on Participant’s Performance</th>
<th>Reaction</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Participant</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rani</td>
<td>“If you know the technical jargon, if you know, say for example as Rani” [T]</td>
<td>“To be more positive” [T]</td>
<td>[Self-confidence] counts -the difference [between one applicant and another will show on the CV] [R]</td>
<td>“You are wrong” [R]</td>
<td>“You are wrong” [R]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>“He knew the terms of banking” [T]</td>
<td>“People like you are not confident” [K]</td>
<td>“Even though the way you talk (is important)” [T]</td>
<td>“The difference will show in your CV” [R]</td>
<td>“The difference will show in your CV” [R]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>“Rani asked a question. He didn’t get an answer” [T]</td>
<td>“There are some who are like you” [K]</td>
<td>“Preparing questions shows the research you have done” [S2]</td>
<td>“…show superior to others like you” [R]</td>
<td>“…show superior to others like you” [R]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>“He was very quick; he was himself, as well. Himself also” [K]</td>
<td>“Bass [but] way you talk” (S7,S1,S2)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>“He showed us he knows what he is talking about. Knows about the job, about body language” [TY]</td>
<td>“Bass [but] way you show …” [K]</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>“Being confident” [K]</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>“He think if he tries and tries he’ll get the job” [M]</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Rani also evaluated his own performance (see Table 5.25). He said he was careful about the way he presented himself. However, once he was in front of a camera he was nervous.
Table 5.25: Rani’s Feedback on Performance in the Class Simulation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Resources</th>
<th>Verbal</th>
<th>Nonverbal</th>
<th>Articulative</th>
<th>General Comments on Participant’s Performance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Rani On Self</td>
<td>“Try to do that [link ideas]”</td>
<td>“I was looking at you (teacher)”</td>
<td>“Be quiet (discourse markers)”</td>
<td>“The difference [quality] will show in our CV”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>“About regulations [the question]”</td>
<td>“I think, I think you should be humble”</td>
<td>“It is better than to stutter”</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

5.2.4 Job Interview

In the fourth and final stage of the intervention process, the participants had the opportunity to perform as job-applicants in a simulation in an authentic job-interview context. This second simulation was held in an authentic setting with the company-interviewer (see Chapter three, p. 63). In this context, the job-applicants’ use of verbal, nonverbal, and articulative resources is analyzed.

Michel: Michel’s job-interview, which lasted 7 minutes 10 seconds, will be evaluated first (see Table 5.26). As can be seen in the excerpt below, Michel did not respond appropriately to a clear well-defined question because he was not straight to the point.

Cl: Why did you apply to this job?
M: Well, I know it is an international company, and I like to experience my skills (.), uh. I am a graduate in business management(.) to practice my skills in an international company where I follow procedure(.) and I find myself here. Head up and down. Serious expression Posture upright. Eyes focused—Nodded. Head turned slightly left—serious.

The second excerpt illustrates Michel trying to discuss the achievements of his work-life. Again, secondary issues were included.

Cl: Uhh ok, but one last question. Have you ever done an achievement in your life? (.). What do you consider?
M: Ok, uh, when, I service people, (.). uh, with no time limits, yanee 5 [more or less] sometimes, I used to sell goods in the week end (.). I just, (.). I don’t just (.). uh block the way against my customers, and tell them no, I’m let us leave it for Monday till the working hours (.). It is open, I can (.). uh, inow 2 [I mean] I like to serve people and that could be a personal, I consider it as a personal achievement as long as I, inow 2 [I mean] I inow 2 [I mean] provided service for my customers whenever they need one. Head shifts—tilts head. Eye brows go up and then down—shrugs. Arms used for emphasize. Moves backward and forward — moves body forward. Hands on chest—looks around— then at Cl.

Thus, in terms of content, Michel’s responses were not clearly nor coherently developed. He added a lot of secondary information, including some discourse...
markers in Arabic. However, he supported his speech using nonverbal and articulate resources. For example,

M: I am an optimistic type of guy. I work hard, and I see myself as a regional manager if my skills were in the right track, and I was performing well.

He used eye contact, serious facial expressions, proxemics, and kinetics to support his discourse. As he spoke, Michel emphasized a few words and paused a few times. For example,

- "A training period, moreover, it is a family business."
- "Well (.), uh, (.) mainly (.), uh, my target was four Audi, VW dealers."

Nonverbal behavior strengthened his self-presentation.

Table 5.26: Participant Evaluation Measure of Michel’s Second Simulation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Resources</th>
<th>Appropriateness of Content</th>
<th>Personal Appearance</th>
<th>Eye Contact</th>
<th>Body Posture</th>
<th>Composure</th>
<th>Proxemics</th>
<th>Fluency of Speech</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Michel</td>
<td>Stated personal opinion</td>
<td>Casual</td>
<td>Maintained eye contact (95%)</td>
<td>Upright posture (80%)</td>
<td>Serious (95%)</td>
<td>Maintained distance</td>
<td>Emphasized some words “Italian Products”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>“No, no, I have no limits”</td>
<td>Neat</td>
<td>Gestures (7)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Leaned forward once</td>
<td>Paused “(. ) well (.) uh, mainly ”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>“(. ) uh, one thing, uh, I have got some…”</td>
<td>Clean</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Rested arms on table</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As in the first simulation, in the second Michel may have faced similar moderators (see Table 5.27). For example, because English was a second language, Michel may have automatically translated a common Arabic proverb into English when an appropriate proverb in English did not come to mind (see phrase underlined in excerpt below).

Cl: What do you look for in life, (.) as a person?
M: Well, I ( . ) uh, inow ² [I mean], I’d like to achieve success and uh, ( . ) uh, hum. ( . ) I’d like to be a leader where I can manage all my stuff and all my work and teach people how the writing is done ( . ) whenever I do it.

Heaves a sigh—looks left, right—nods-serious—nods—shifts head.
Table 5.27: Summarizes Possible Influence of Moderators in Michel's Second Simulation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Issues</th>
<th>Participant</th>
<th>Job-interview/Role-playing</th>
<th>English as Second Language</th>
<th>Teacher as Audience</th>
<th>Company-Interviewer as Audience</th>
<th>Video Recorder</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Michel</td>
<td>Not scripted</td>
<td>&quot;Well, (.) uh, mainly, (.) my target&quot;</td>
<td>Nonverbal resource</td>
<td>Observant</td>
<td>Nervous</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Serious</td>
<td>&quot;I am not anxious, (.) but, uh, ..&quot;</td>
<td>Posture straight</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Arabic words:</td>
<td></td>
<td>Serious expression</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Is now</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Yasee</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Another evaluation of Michel's performance in the interview is that of the company-interviewer. Based on his behavior (Table 5.28), Michel's company-interviewer said, "He's the type of person I'd like to hire." He added, "I need to work on him." On a scale from 1 to 5, he placed Michel at 3 ½ - 4 (see Appendix C). In terms of Michel's verbal and nonverbal skills, he said that Michel "was trying to make sure it [the interview] was perfect." He felt that Michel could "sell himself" because "he could act in different ways" and "he had this smile." In terms of his articulative skills, the company-interviewer said that Michel was hesitant because "...the audiovisual recorder bothered him a lot."

Table 5.28: The Company-interviewer's Evaluation of Michel

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Resources</th>
<th>Verbal</th>
<th>Nonverbal</th>
<th>Articulative</th>
<th>General Comments on Participant's Performance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Participant</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Michel</td>
<td>&quot;He was trying to make sure it was perfect&quot;</td>
<td>&quot;... We would act in a different way&quot;</td>
<td>&quot;Hesitant&quot;</td>
<td>&quot;He is the type of person I'd like to hire&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>&quot;If you can sell yourself, you can sell ...&quot;</td>
<td>&quot;... Like he had his hands on the table&quot;</td>
<td>&quot;He has this smile&quot;</td>
<td>&quot;I need to work, Bass on him&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>&quot;No I am sorry; you have to be confident you have to be arrogant you have to have ego&quot;</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Josiane: On the other hand, Josiane's job-interview-performance, which lasted nine minutes 38 seconds, reflected the following behavior (see Table 5.29). She answered questions using key personal and management-related-ideas. These were emphasized in her dialogue (see excerpt below). In the job-interview, Josiane described the targeted company quite well in that she explained its place in the international and local market. She included details on its administration and work environment (see excerpt below).
J: It is one of the top leading companies. It is an international company in investment and finance. It’s online. It has a young administration. It has sound relationships with its customers and employees. (.) Um, it, (.) if (.) if it applies new technology to its job and it is growing everyday.

Posture—upright—confident—very sure of herself.
Big smile, nods, eyes focused—arches eyebrows—nods—closes eyes—squeezes them.

She developed her ideas well explaining her work-related capabilities (see excerpt below).

Cl: Um hum. So where do you see yourself in the coming let us say five years?
J: I see myself in a responsible position (.) uh, (.) where I can exert my skills in finance and investment and be a leading character in an investment company.

Cl: And why did you choose this Major?
J: Because I believe in the globalization of the business world and uh in the market and I believe in the necessity and the main role of management in building the success and growth of uh companies, nowadays.

She provided her personal opinion. For example,

Cl: In one word, what makes you qualified for this job?
J: I believe my educational background, my uh my experience in my last job and my personality and my ability to understand customers and to deal with each customer qualifies me; properly for this job.

She answered challenging questions using facial expressions and head movements to emphasize her oral discourse (see excerpt below).

Cl: ... But what, how, do you feel that, uh, you would be, uh, happy about a good income ... in Lebanon?
J: You me | an?
Cl: | Sound, good, income
J: I’m not really after a high salaries or after money. I’m looking for experience, for a job where I can grow, um. This is for you to set as a beginning ...

It can be added that from these five excerpts, it is clear that Josiane supported her verbal message with nonverbal behavior.
Josiane did not seem to be affected much by moderators in the second simulation context, as the following excerpt illustrates:

Cl: Do you have any obstacles on timing and schedules and uh (. ) obligations, social, personal?  
J: (. ) Ah um, (. ) I am a very sociable person and I care for the environment. I am an environmental act, activist; I worked in different teams; I like to work in teams and I believe I have a lot to give this company. I don’t have any difficult in timing, 

She developed her response coherently and cohesively.

Table 5.30: Summarizes Possible Influence of Moderators in Josiane’s Second Simulation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Issues</th>
<th>Job-interview/Role-playing</th>
<th>English as Second Language</th>
<th>Teacher as Audience</th>
<th>Company-interviewer as Audience</th>
<th>Video Recorder</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Josiane</td>
<td>Not scripted</td>
<td>(. ) Ah, um (. ) I am a very sociable person, and I care for the environmental act activist</td>
<td>Serious</td>
<td>Serious expression ... smiles ... then laughs .. serious expression again Concentrates ... Looks away from company-interviewer</td>
<td>Serious Discourse markers Content “Does it have to record all the time?”</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Some examples of the company-interviewer's comments evaluating Josiane are elaborated on below (see Table 5.31). In terms of the verbal and nonverbal, the company-interviewer said, "...she is not very aggressive, eating the job ... she could say, she could have said I already know too many people. I already have public relations ... she is not yet a professional." He added, "She has a good approach to talk ... to listen ... she crosses the brain" i.e. [she comes across without using much body language]

Table 5.31: The Company-interviewer's Evaluation of Josiane

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Resources</th>
<th>Verbal</th>
<th>Nonverbal</th>
<th>Articulative</th>
<th>General Comments on Participant's Performance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Josiane</td>
<td>&quot;She has a good approach to talk to people, to listen, and to talk so, uh ... on the business level too she makes a good point to, in being willing to understand ...&quot;</td>
<td>&quot;Not much&quot;</td>
<td>&quot;...Some people would do this [moves] with body language, with the face with the (), and I think she crosses the brain&quot;</td>
<td>&quot;She is not very aggressive, eating the job. But, I think this is her character&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>&quot;She could say: she could have said, I already know too many people, I already have public relations with all fields ...&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>&quot;I want to work&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>&quot;She is not yet; she is not yet professional ...&quot;</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Tony: Like Josiane, Tony had also applied for a service job. Tony's second simulation which lasted 14:55 minutes reflected his use of three resources (see Table 5.32). In general, the content of Tony's responses reflected an awareness of the job/company he had applied to. However, in terms of Tony's performance, even though Tony was also well-informed in terms of the targeted company, its history, performance, and the number of employees worldwide and in Lebanon, he had difficulty answering the interviewer's questions (see the two excerpts below).

TY: I know that ALICO is a part of the I Group, American International Group. I know that it started in 1921, and it came to Lebanon in 1947. In 1957 around forty years ago. It have about 36 employees world wide.

CI: 36?

TY: 36000 employees world wide out of which around 400 are in Lebanon, four hundred in Lebanon?
CI: Very good ……..(.)…. Do you have contact with your customers.
TY: (. ) Uh, I have a lot of contact with the customers. It is a contact job. I am close to my customers, and I oversee the work. What do they need and whatever their car needs and uh and if they like the service we do | and (. )

His responses reflect his in-depth awareness of the domestic market in terms of customer needs and salesmanship (see excerpt below).

TY: I understand. (. ) I think salesman, in all field, (. ) fields, (. ) they should, (. ) uh (. ) they should work, with the customers; and get his opinion and not to take not to be offended easily because usually the customers if they do not like the product not directly maybe indirectly so while working we shouldn't take things personally.

In this excerpt, and throughout the second simulation, his responses were supported with nonverbal resources that added meaning to what he said. Even though Tony tended to speak softly, he used communicative resources naturally.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Resources</th>
<th>Appropriateness of Content</th>
<th>Personal Appearance</th>
<th>Eye Contact</th>
<th>Body Posture</th>
<th>Composure</th>
<th>Proxemics</th>
<th>Fluency of Speech</th>
<th>Loudness of Voice</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Tony</td>
<td>Responded with detailed/feedback</td>
<td>Maintained appropriate eye contact when speaking or listening to the interviewer (80%)</td>
<td>Upright (90%) moved legs () crossed, uncrossed () used hand gestures while he spoke (90%) pulled forward 4 times often. “uses arm for emphasis”</td>
<td>Confident Serious (90%)</td>
<td>Tended to change proxemics across the interview</td>
<td>Relative “Well, we’ve done (. ) uh (. ) the (. ) uh our …”</td>
<td>soft spoken</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>“I know that ALICO … it have about 36 employees worldwide”</td>
<td>Nod UD: 10 LR: 10</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Cooperated fully in answering questions I: 36? A: 36000</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>State personal opinion “Well, we’ve done (. ) uh (. ) the”</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Moreover, Tony’s second simulation may have been influenced by ESL and role-playing before an audience (see Table 5.30) (see the excerpts below). In the first excerpt, Tony seems to have experienced problems with ESL.
CI: Uh, no experiences (.). Basically if I want to ask you a
question, are you happy at your status, right now?
TY: In my | with my?
CI: | In your current job?
TY: Uh, I am very happy. (.X.)

In the second excerpt, he may have had problems with performing the role of a job-
applicant (role-playing).

CI: | Do you think you’d like to work as a salesman.
TY: Uh, not in any field. I like the job here. I am here because I
like the product you give, the service you are giving and the
exact mention, I did two showings at your very good
company. That gives the opportunity to your employee to go
up in the organization. Hierarchy, I need to have such a good
(.) and to have such uh, (.)

Table 5.33: Summarizes Possible Influence of Moderators in Tony’s Second Simulation

Table 5.34: The Company-interviewer’s Evaluation of Tony

Feedback on Tony’s performance in the second simulation was gathered in the
research interview. With respect to the company-interviewer’s evaluation of Tony’s
verbal and nonverbal resources, the following was said, “... um he has 90% of the
qualifications I need ....I have to try him out on the field” (see further Table 5.34).
Khalil: In Khalil's second simulation, which lasted 21 minutes 42 seconds, Khalil practiced his verbal, nonverbal, and articulative skills (see further Table 5.34). For example, in terms of content, in most cases Khalil's responses were appropriate. However, in some instances Khalil's answers were neither concise nor clear. For example, when Khalil was asked to list local or international industries he might choose to work at, he said:

K: (.) Um, I (.) would (.) um I'm, I always look for (.) I'm a very professional kind of guy. I like things to be very perfect very on time, very straight forward, you know. I like the top. I try to challenge myself to feel that I can be in this company. I can donate my knowledge to this company. Maybe it doesn't need me, but we can work together to establish to, you know we can fit in and make the company better. Halak 2 [now] such a high caliber company as Proctor and Gamble, such as Phillip Morris um Arthur ... the accounting company ...

Khalil seems to have equated himself to employees of foreign industries. He claimed to be as professional as they. When asked to discuss his feelings about working in the cigarette business, Khalil said:

K: Um, you can say that this company because it is so big you can take it as two approaches. You can take it as cigarettes, and since it is such an overwhelming great company, you don't need any advertisements—you don't need to worry about people stopping Marlboro, not cigarettes; Marlboro is a cowboy among other cigarettes. Marlboro is here and other cigarettes are different. When it comes to Marlboro, I don't think personally that yaeel 4 really when people stop they always come back to Marlboro. (.) Um, (.) uh, Everything is connected when, when one has to do to Marlboro itself as a cigarette brand. It is big (.) or you can take another approach that Phillip Morris can be working on youth and sports such as you guys are doing now with this uh. Sports, you take I think every year.

Again Khalil's response included powerful, colorful, youthful images. His response was quite creative; however, Khalil did not respond concisely. When asked what he could do for the company, Khalil said:

K: For example, right now for the brand new Phillip Morris product that's been advertised a lot and it is hitting as the commercial as I understand from the commercial it is hitting at the teenage globalization. Not only in Lebanon not only in the Middle East but in the whole world so you see L&M as the one, as the globe spinning round on every teenager. It is more hitting not only teenagers but the young society so I'd feel

While looking at the CI, cups his hand and moves it in a circular manner to indicate globalization—as speaks moves his hands.
with this so the idea that come from a teenager is more rising
than anyone that has been for example who has already been
through it all. I mean we are growing and we are the growing
generation. So I think that uh I think that uh I think the idea
comes from the young generation is the one is depending now
and as almost has like market stare.

Cups both hands (young society
then)
Flatten hands—they rise, and fall
with idea; then, uses his right
hand, rises, falls (young
generation)

The excerpts reflect that Khalil used nonverbal communication to emphasize or
clarify his ideas. In terms of personal appearance/first impression management,
Khalil was dressed professionally in a tailored dark suit. He had a serious expression
on his face, used eye contact and head movements. He sat up straight and gestured
most of the time he spoke. He spoke reasonably loudly, clearly, and relatively
fluently.

Table 5.35: Participant Evaluation Measure of Khalil’s Second Simulation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Resources</th>
<th>Appropriateness of Content</th>
<th>Personal Appearance</th>
<th>Eye Contact</th>
<th>Body Posture</th>
<th>Composure</th>
<th>Proxemics</th>
<th>Fluency of Speech</th>
<th>Loudness of Voice</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Khalil</td>
<td>“Um, First I would like to say that its, its more than pride…”</td>
<td>Wearing a dark suit with a bright shirt and tie</td>
<td>Used eye contact (90%)</td>
<td>Used posture (85%)</td>
<td>Serious 90%</td>
<td>Distance between the interviewer and Khalil varied.</td>
<td>Fluent</td>
<td>Clear and articulate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>“(.) Um, I (. ) would Um I’m I always…”</td>
<td></td>
<td>Nod UD: 42 LR: 6</td>
<td>Gestures 90% of time he spoke</td>
<td></td>
<td>At times Khalil would be very close to the interviewer— at beginning—and then would pull back</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Khalil’s second simulation may have been influenced by moderators (see
Table 5.36 below). For example, Khalil seems to have taken role-playing and the
company-interviewer seriously.
Cl: Uh, where, where, by chance, do you by chance smoke?
K: Uh, I tried cigarettes. I'm not uh, I don't smoke as in carry a pack, no. That is no problem though.

Sometimes, Khalil’s word choice and sentence structure was not coherent nor cohesive. For example,

K: How is your marketing? What is your strategy your are you using in the marketing department to bring this LM, and what makes you so sure that it is gonna work?

Table 5.36: Summarizes Possible Influence of Moderators in Khalil’s Second Simulation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Issues</th>
<th>Job-interview/Role-playing</th>
<th>English as Second Language</th>
<th>Teacher as Audience</th>
<th>Company-interviewer as Audience</th>
<th>Video Recorder</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Khallil</td>
<td>Not scripted</td>
<td>“I’m a really professional kind of a guy…”</td>
<td>Proxemics</td>
<td>Pulls closer to company’s interviewer.</td>
<td>“forgot the recorder”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Dressed for occasion</td>
<td>“To tell you the truth, I think that the company’s…”</td>
<td>Use of nonverbal resource</td>
<td>Pulls self upright-smiles …</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Suit</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Tie</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Prepared for occasion</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The company-interviewer of the multinational company evaluated Khalil’s performance. The comments were on his verbal, nonverbal, and articulative resource (see Table 5.37). The interviewer seemed to be relatively impressed. He said, “[Khalil] did his little research on the company.” He added, “[Khalil] translated [what he said] with his body language.” In general, the company-interviewer had the following to say:

Cl: He is uh, as I said, he is very enthusiastic. He likes to use the word I, I, which is something that we do not like to use very much. It is used. I am not saying that it is something wrong but he is not self-confident but too much self-confidence....he does like to use his hands quite a lot....translated this to his body....He has got ideas, ways to promote our products.
Table 5.37: The Company-interviewer's Evaluation of Khalil

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Resources</th>
<th>Verbal</th>
<th>Nonverbal</th>
<th>Articulative</th>
<th>General Comments on Participant's Performance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Khalil</td>
<td>&quot;... He likes to use the word I, I, which is something ...&quot;</td>
<td>&quot;... He does like to use his hands quite a lot ... He translated that with his body language&quot;</td>
<td>&quot;... the glooobal approach ...&quot;</td>
<td>&quot;...yeah, he was like pushing himself&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>&quot;He did his little research on the company&quot;</td>
<td>&quot;...He pointed like this (arms extended) ...&quot;</td>
<td></td>
<td>&quot;A forward character&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>&quot;He was very sure. He was not really thinking of lets get done with it...&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>&quot;He’s got ideas ways to promote our products&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>&quot;...over confidence&quot;</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Rani: Rani’s 2 minute 34 second simulation conducted in the job-interview context reflected some clear examples of the participant’s verbal, nonverbal, and articulative communicative resources (see Table 5.38). He responded to questions posed in a relatively concise manner. For example,

Cl: Have you ever done, this field before?
R: Um, actually, no, but our family has a restaurant.
Cl: Yeah
R: I have an idea about how things are, and a little bit about, how the work is done, and things like that
Cl: What are you studying right now?
R: I'm studying Banking and Finance. It has nothing to do with this job, but I need extra experience in some other field and the extra money.

Eyes move from left to right.

Bites lip—tongue comes out and in quickly, hands resting on lap.
Both hands move—right slightly, move.
Hands move—itches palm.
Gesture left and right.
Emphasizes—eyes downward.

The excerpt reflects Rani’s use of nonverbal behavior. As he relayed his verbal messages, fluently and loudly, he emphasized ideas with different resources. In general, he maintained a serious demeanor.
Table 5.38: Participant Evaluation Measure of Rani’s Second Simulation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Resources of Content</th>
<th>Personal Appearance</th>
<th>Eye</th>
<th>Body Posture</th>
<th>Composure</th>
<th>Proxemics</th>
<th>Fluency of Speech</th>
<th>Loudness of Voice</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Rani Responded concisely and developed subject at hand</td>
<td>Looked neat and tidy in beige pants and white shirt</td>
<td>Used eye contact (90%)</td>
<td>Upright (95%)</td>
<td>Serious (85%)</td>
<td>Generally he maintained distance between himself and the company interviewer</td>
<td>Spoke naturally</td>
<td>Could be heard</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stated personal opinion &quot;...I think like, that is up to you. It is up to you&quot;</td>
<td>Eyes moved from left to right</td>
<td>Used hand gestures a bit to emphasize (85%)</td>
<td>Hands play near lap</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Rani’s second simulation may have been influenced by some moderators (see Table 5.39). Some examples which were noticeable were that Rani pulled his shirt away from his chest, rubbed his hands twice, and, then, rubbed his legs a few times during the interview. This behavior is not typical of Rani. He also looked at the audiovisual-recorder and me often.

Table 5.39: Summarizes Possible Influence of Moderators in the Second Simulation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Issues</th>
<th>Job-interview/Role-playing</th>
<th>English as Second Language</th>
<th>Teacher as Audience</th>
<th>Company-interviewer as Audience</th>
<th>Video Recorder</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Rani</td>
<td>Not scripted</td>
<td></td>
<td>Listen attentively to company manager</td>
<td>Looks often at recorder</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>New experience</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

When the company-interviewer evaluated Rani’s performance, he was impressed by his friendliness, willingness and ability to fit in to the job environment, and his positive attitude about work.

Table 5.40: The Company-interviewer’s Evaluation of Rani

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Resources of Participant</th>
<th>Verbal</th>
<th>Nonverbal</th>
<th>Articulative</th>
<th>General Comments on Participant’s Performance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Rani</td>
<td>“He knows how to talk”</td>
<td>“In this job, he will be in high contact with the clients, you know, he don’t have to be shy, we are selling here ...”</td>
<td>“...he must be friendly ...”</td>
<td>“that is the most important word he must say. I wanna work, management, or any body, you know,”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>“Polite”</td>
<td>“he must be friendly”</td>
<td>“He wanna work here with the staff”</td>
<td>“He the camera must tell everything”</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
5.2.5 Research Interview

The participants also took part in the evaluation stage of the intervention curriculum. The participants' personal evaluation of their own performance in the job-interview, i.e. their second simulation, and the intervention curriculum centered around a few key ideas.

Michel: Concerning his own performance, Michel stated the following:

- Well it [my performance] was good but not, uh, (. ) not excellent…..
- No, from that point of view, (. ) uh, (. ) I answered (. ) uh, (. ) fully (. ) but, (. ) uh, (. ) directly to the point about what he asked me, (. ) and, (. ) uh, (. ) and the type of (. ) he didn’t ask me precisely about their kind of business and I mentioned some of the work they do,…
- *My body language* (. ) I was relaxed …. 
- Yes (. ) but mainly, I tried my best to be natural …. 
- Um, in class, in class, I was just waiting to receive the question and I have what to say.
- Of course, there is something looking at you. But I tried my best, and I was *natural*, and I answered the questions as if I was *really* applying for a job.

These excerpts among others (see Table 5.41) may reflect Michel’s assessment of the intervention and what he learnt as he experienced the fourth stage of it.

Table 5.41: Michel’s Evaluation of His Performance

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Resources</th>
<th>Verbal</th>
<th>Nonverbal</th>
<th>Articulative</th>
<th>General Comments on Performance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Participant</td>
<td>&quot;... I, (. ) uh, (. ) tried to maintain as much as I could&quot;</td>
<td>&quot;My body language (. ) I was relaxed and ...&quot;</td>
<td>&quot;( . ) uh (. ) uh (. ) uh thinking about some answers because I want to answer just as long as I feel&quot;</td>
<td>&quot;well, it was good; it was good, but not (. ), uh, (. ) not excellent ....&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Michel</td>
<td>&quot;... I answered (. ) uh (. ) fully but (. ) uh (. ) directly to the point ...&quot;</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>&quot;... in class (. ) was (. ) all students (. ) ... I was just, head to head, with , with ...&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>&quot;I preferred the mock inow because I had had much more time in order to be professional....&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>&quot;... I am confident&quot;</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| | | | | "I’m getting used to it [[the job-interview]"
| | | | | "of course, there is something [video camera] looking at you. But I tried my best, and I was natural, and I answered as if I was really applying for a job" |

Josiane: Some notable examples of Josiane’s assessment are illustrated below (see Table 5.42). Josiane remarked, "... I was under more pressure this time ... I am here to apply for a job ... I wanted to give the impression I am an adult."
Table 5.42: Josiane’s Evaluation of Her Performance

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Resources</th>
<th>Verbal</th>
<th>Nonverbal</th>
<th>General Comments on Performance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Josiane</td>
<td>• &quot;... you are here to do the thing very seriously, and you need to give this message to the interviewer&quot; • &quot;I think it was better not to use too much body language: just straight to the point and act serious ... like a grown person, not like ...&quot;</td>
<td>• &quot;...tried to fix (.) um the mistakes I have done in the first interview ...&quot; • &quot;... I was sort of under more pressure this time, ...&quot; • &quot;... you want to give the impression you are an adult...&quot; • &quot;Here it is probably more the real thing, um, well, ... the clothes, the situation, the place (.) everything is just like real...&quot; • &quot;There, I felt probably as more (.) more in control, here, I felt I’m here to apply for a job, I am not in a strong position ...&quot;</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Tony: Tony also commented on what he considered were key characteristics of his performance and the intervention (see Table 5.43). He said, "... you should control yourself ... I feel confident ... He didn’t pressure me. The lights are very good ... in class ... I did very bad in class ... yeah, yeah, you feel you are in class ...oblige us to wear a suit ...

Table 5.43: Tony’s Evaluation of His Performance

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Resources</th>
<th>Verbal</th>
<th>Nonverbal</th>
<th>Articulative</th>
<th>General Comments on Performance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Tony</td>
<td>• &quot;He didn’t pressure me ... I talked too much&quot; • &quot;I understood all the questions, except one ... I responded the right way&quot; • &quot;Yeah, it was a real simulation for me because I took the same company&quot;</td>
<td>• &quot;... I was comfortable with the manager&quot; • &quot;I still have a low voice in speaking&quot; • &quot;...well ... me&quot;</td>
<td>• &quot;.(.) Uh I think I did well...&quot; • &quot;Here everything, every body is clear. The lights are very good, so you feel comfortable ... seriously ...&quot; • &quot;I did very bad in class, so&quot; • &quot;Yeah, you feel yeah, you are in class...&quot; • &quot;... Oblige us to wear a suit&quot; • &quot;nervous, you should control yourself. I feel confident&quot; • &quot;I am moving upward, ...[the interviewer] is not totally new to me... more simulations, more simulations&quot;</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

120
Khalil: Some key excerpts of Khalil's self-assessment and evaluation of the intervention curriculum are noted below (see Table 5.44). Khalil said, "I felt less tense... this guy is more, you know... he went deeper... I don't think it is a problem, anymore."

Table 5.44: Khalil's Evaluation of His Performance

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Participant</th>
<th>Resources</th>
<th>Verbal</th>
<th>Nonverbal</th>
<th>Articulative</th>
<th>General Comments on Performance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Khalil</td>
<td>&quot;... it is not exactly as we learned in class— the straight to the point...&quot;</td>
<td>Natural</td>
<td>&quot;I don't feel tense&quot;</td>
<td>&quot;I had a great amount of confidence&quot;</td>
<td>&quot;I'm glad we did it in class because, uh, it needed attention... it was more than a great experience...&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>&quot;He went deeper&quot;</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>&quot;That I did better&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>&quot;I'm very, I like to get into details...&quot;</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>&quot;Of course, this is more professional and I felt less tense because... students&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>&quot;I think I gave him a lot over and above&quot;</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>&quot;I don't think it is a problem, anymore&quot;</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Rani: Rani's self-assessment and assessment of the intervention curriculum differed (see Table 5.45). A key issue was the impact of the audiovisual recorder on his performance. Rani said "I'm saying that I'm camera shy, but I think I did quite ok.... I just went straight to the point, just like you said—in class—I didn't go round the bush... I had more self-confidence... maybe not a lot of body language."

Another focal issue was the impact of the interviewer.

R: No ... this is more realistic
PR: More realistic
R: Just the idea, actually, (.) um, um, when you are talking to someone who is much older than you, someone in a position, it is a little different.

Moreover, the third factor was the audience.

R: I feel more comfortable here because we had an audience there; here, we don't
PR: That is right
R: And um, you were around, and I felt more comfortable here.
Rani’s assessment dealt with focal issues that seemed to have influenced his performance across the four stages of the intervention curriculum.

Table 5.45: Rani’s Evaluation of His Performance

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Resource</th>
<th>Verbal</th>
<th>Nonverbal</th>
<th>Articulative</th>
<th>General Comments on Performance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Rani</td>
<td>“I just went straight to the point Just like you said”</td>
<td>No,(,), uh, no I didn’t use much body language.</td>
<td>Its (stage 2) embarrassing, number one (.) and I didn’t know and it demoralize you</td>
<td>“Um, I think I was honest with him...”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>“I was sitting up straight”</td>
<td></td>
<td>“I feel more comfortable here because we had an audience there, here we don’t”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>“… a little tense”</td>
<td></td>
<td>“And um you were around, and I feel more comfortable here”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>“… more self-confidence”</td>
<td></td>
<td>“It look more relaxing”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>“I am camera shy”</td>
<td></td>
<td>“Definitely [context] may be indirectly it does”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>“This is more realistic... just the idea.) um um when you are talking to someone who is much older than you”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>“Someone in a position. It is a little different”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>“…what I mean is I am getting used to it [the interview]”</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

From the evidence provided above on the participants’ activities across the four stages of the intervention, one can extrapolate *where* and *how* learning was structured to answer the first and second research question.

5.3 Professional Change

In the following section, based on the participants’ simulated job-interview performance in stage two and stage four, the third research question is answered (see Table 5.1 and 5.5). As illustrated in the discussion above, five participants reflected a different performance in stage two and stage four of the intervention curriculum.

Michel: Michel’s verbal behavior reflected greater awareness of the job domain in terms of consumer and market behavior. In the first simulation, Michel said:

M: And, (,) um, my working experience, um, I worked, (,) uh, two years, at *spare parts* (,) uh automotive spare parts, selling, and, I

Looks at camera – moves head up/down – head moves – nods.
have experience in sales, ok, about, tangible goods. Now, (. ) uh, your company, (. ) uh, may be is a service company,

Slowly moves head back and forth
Raises eyes.

Whereas in the second, he included the international and domestic context. Michel said:

M: Well, I know it is an international company, and I like to experience my skills (.), uh. I am a graduate in business management (.) to practice my skills in an international company where I follow procedure (.) and I find myself here.

Cl: So (. ) do you think that working, just because it is an international company is that the only reason?

M: No, that is not the only reason. Moreover, I, uh, I worked previously in sales at Auto parts. I used to sell tangible goods, and here (.) at SkyNet I found work in sales, in the Sales Department. I wanna deal with intangible goods, which is a service, and I’d like to experience myself more in selling a service more that tangible good.

Posture-straight.
Head up and down.
Serious expression
Posture upright. Eyes focused—Nodded.
Head turned slightly left—serious.

Lifts head—looks uncomfortable
Head-up/down.

Moves left and right. Nods.
Focused eyes on Cl. Posture straight, serious.
Nodded—looks upward.

If one compares Michel’s second simulation (see Table 5.26) to his first (see Table 5.6) in terms of key communicative nonverbal resources as dress mode (casual vs. suit and tie), eye contact (95% vs. 90%); serious demeanor (95% vs. 95%); nod (9% vs. 23%); upright (80% vs. 10%), his nonverbal behavior improved and became more compatible with the authentic job-interview context. Even though Michel articulated clearly in both contexts and was appropriately loud, he changed his tone. In the second, Michel’s tone was that of a confident rather than an overconfident job applicant.

Josiane: Josiane’s job-interview performance changed (see Table 5.29 vs. Table 5.8). Her verbal behavior was different. In the class simulation, Josiane responded to the interviewer’s query concerning what she wanted from the job. She said:

J: (. ) Uh, (. ) um, I was very happy to work well in the position you are offering me. That is exactly what I am aiming for right now. (. ) Um (. ) uh (. ) I am very interested in public relations because I am a social person, and I like to be in contact with customers. Though that I have a certain background in beauty and fashion, and I have been in Europe with cosmetic products so this would give me the opportunity to exert my skills.

Head moves, shifts—eye contact.
Head tilted—moves head often—nods—smiles, tightens mouth.

In the job-interview, Josiane response was different. She said:

In the job-interview, Josiane response was different. She said:
Because it is the field that I like and it is a job, it is a challenging job; it requires lots of traveling and meeting people and I am mainly interested in it.

The findings point to Josiane’s awareness that appropriateness of content meant, among other issues, including relevant ideas concisely. Her nonverbal behavior changed slightly; for example, if the job-interview performance is contrasted with the simulation in terms of dress code (suit vs. casual clothing); eye contact (95% vs. 95%); serious demeanor (90% vs. 95%); nod (33% vs. 29%); gestures (2 vs. 4); upright (90% vs. 90%), Josiane’s performance improved and was more compatible with the job-interview context. She articulated clearly in both contexts though her tone varied. As noted earlier, in the second simulation, Josiane’s tone reflected a confident rather than an over-confident job applicant.

Tony: With respect to the third participant, Tony, his performance in the two interviews differed (see Table 5.32 vs. Table 5.10). For example, in the class simulation, Tony’s response was informative. Tony said:

I: Personally speaking what are some of your strong points and some of your weak points.
TY: Well, I think that most of my strong points are that I am a type A individual and a strong competitor, and I, uh, am very sharp on time and uh my weak points are that I don’t reject failure, and I cannot No. I have no tolerance to defects.

In the second simulation, when a similar question was posed, Tony did not have much to say and needed to be encouraged. Tony said:

I: Very good. Do you, do you like challenges?
TY: Yes
I: if some one, uh, challenges you
TY: competition
I: Yeah
TY: Challenges.
TY: To challenge the issue.
I: Yes.

In this case, the company-interviewer kept on asking related questions until Tony responded appropriately. Tony’s nonverbal behavior also differed: If his performance is contrasted with the first simulation in terms of dress code (suit vs. casual clothing), eye contact (80% vs. 85%), serious demeanor (90% vs. 80%), head nods (20 vs. 12),
gestures (90% vs. 15%), and posture (90% vs. 10%), his nonverbal performance improved because it was more compatible with the job-interview context. However, his articulative resource did not change. In general, he remained soft-spoken and did not articulate clearly.

Khalil: The fourth participant, Khalil, reflected a relatively changed job-interview performance (see Table 5.35 vs. Table 5.12). In the simulation, Khalil’s verbal behavior reflected some awareness of the job and market.

K: I think my objectives and the company’s objectives are very close to each other and so (.) uh (.) You know if the company’s objectives is to reach a certain goal than my objective is to reach the same thing. So I think I am pretty qualified. Two people or two or any company and person if they have the same objective, they’ll be able to reach them.

In the second simulation, Khalil’s response was phrased differently. It included more awareness of the marketing and management field.

K: To tell you the truth, I think that the company’s objective and my objective are within the same target, so basically, um when you have an organization and a person and they have reached the same goal such as working in MBO—Management By Objectives—you are working towards the same goal and since I have the same objective as the company does then, (.) um, I’m sure that (.) uh the positive feedback will come and positive outcomes will be reached.

Khalil’s nonverbal behavior also changed; for example, if one compares the second simulation of the job-interview performance to the first in terms of dress code (suit vs. casual clothing), eye contact (90% vs. 90%), serious demeanor (90% vs. 80%), head nods (50 vs. 8), gestures (8 vs. 1), and posture (85% vs. 90%), the performance seemed to be more compatible in the authentic job-interview context. However, Khalil’s articulative resource did not change much as he articulated well in both contexts.

Rani: Rani’s performance in the second simulation changed slightly (see Table 5.38 vs. Table 5.14) in terms of the control he seemed to be exercising. In the class simulation, Rani reflected awareness of the consumer, the job, the company, and the market. Rani also reflected confidence in the authentic context. For example,
I: And can you tell me how you interact with, uh, people at different levels.

R: I, honestly, think I adapt quite well. I have been in several countries, and, I know different types of people, and, uh, I'm personally quite friendly, and I don't think I'll have a problem here.

However, in the second simulation, Rani was not as confident. For example,

Cl: | Um um are you shy?
R: Not at all
Cl: You don't have to be shy, (.) you know, uh
R: OK.
Cl: Have you ever worked in a group before?
R: Yes, actually not worked, but, (.) uh, I've done projects in a group. I work quite well with them.
Cl: Like what? Um (.)
R: Like um, (.) like business projects, (.) like term papers. (.) Things like that.
Cl: Uh, huh, great Ok

Rani's nonverbal behavior did not vary much; if one compares the second simulation performance to the first in terms of dress code (casual vs. casual), eye contact (90% vs. 90%), serious demeanor (85% vs. 90%), head nods (19 vs. 23), gestures (85% vs. 10%), and posture (upright). In both contexts, Rani's voice was clear and sufficiently loud.

In short, it was found that the five participants' job-interview performance changed across the first four stages of the intervention curriculum.

5.4 Participants Evaluation of Their Job-interview

The fourth research question will be answered by evidence found in the analysis of the research interviews I conducted (see Tables 5.36-5.40).

5.4.1 Job-Interview Context

In terms of the context, the following comments were stated about the job-interview. For example Michel said:

In the context, well, the atmosphere, there was when I was in class, (.) was, (.) all the students, (.) All my classmates were looking at me; here I was just, head to head, with my, with Rabih and (.) uh (.) I, (.) I, inow [I mean] ....(see Table 5.4)

On the other hand, Josiane remarked:

...but, I think, that everything is more formal, here. The clothes, the situation. the place (.) everything is just like real.... Yes. the
the situation, the place (.) everything is just like real.... Yes, the
context is so real... (see Table 5.42)
Moreover, Tony claimed, “Yes. Here everything, everybody is clear...You feel
comfortable while talking to the manager. You feel in the issue” (see Table 5.43).
Khalil stated, “Of course this is more professional. The students are not really into the
business environment and this guy is expecting this of me, and a one to one business,
so this is (much), and I don’t think it is a problem; anymore. In the future, it is fine; it is
great” (see Table 5. 44). Lastly, Rani said, “I feel more comfortable here because
we had an audience there... No ... this is more realistic.... Just the idea, actually, (.)
um, um, when you are talking to someone who is much older than you, someone in a
position, it is a little different....” (see Table 5.45).
Given what the five participants said, it seems that each became more aware of what a
real job-context might be like.

5.4.2 Job-Interview Content

The five participants also displayed a heightened awareness of the job-
interview content. For example, Michel said:

No, from that point of view, (.) uh, (.) I answered (.) uh, (.) fully (.)
but, (.) uh, (.) directly to the point about what he asked me, (.) and,
(.) uh, (.) and the type of (.) he didn’t ask me precisely about their
kind of business and I mentioned some of the work they do.....My
body language (.) I was relaxed and.... I expressed mainly, more
often my hands when I was (.) uh (.) uh (laughed) when I was
thinking about the answer. (smiled).

Whereas Josiane remarked:

...I think it was better not to use too much body language: just
straight to the point and act serious ... like a grown person, not like
.... There I felt I was making a speech; here, I felt I was
interviewed so, that is the difference.

Tony claimed, “Yes. I understood all the questions directly, except one. One
question I didn’t understand very quickly. (.) I answered it the other way. (.) He
asked, asked me. He asked it another time, and I responded the (.) the right way....
Miss usually when I’m wearing a suit, I don’t have body language (smiles); Miss so I
think I’ve been saved {He tries to joke around}.” Put differently, Khalil stated,
“....out of the top, you don’t know anything and you come here.... But here more,
much more professional.... I’m very, I like to get into details, to tell the guy that I can
go from this approach and from this approach. Um for business, I think it helps, but,
maybe, he just wanted a quick smart answer not a quick but a straight to the point. I think I gave him a bit over and above.” On the other hand, Rani said, “They were simple and general questions, and I was, (.) I just went straight to the point…. I was just, (.) uh, (.) I think, (.) I was just I think, I rubbed my face once. No, (.) uh, no. I didn’t use much body language. I was sitting up, straight.”

Based on the information provided by the participants, it seems that each evaluated their performance as effective since each perceived that they had gained increased awareness and control over the complexity of job-interview interactions.

5.5 Practitioner Researcher’s Evaluation of the Pedagogic Process

The fifth research question asks whether I, the practitioner-researcher perceived the intervention curriculum as effective. In order to answer this question, evidence on the pedagogic structures and tools was gathered (see Table 5.5). This included (1) using informal cooperative learning (p. 91), (2) simulating the interview (pp. 91-99; pp. 106-118), and (3) the impact of audiovisual recording in terms of peer-feedback and self-reflection (see p. 100-106). Below, the three pedagogic tools are discussed.

5.5.1 Informal Cooperative Learning

In stage one, one participant practiced both interlocutor roles directly in front of me in the ESP class session (see p. 91). The manner in which the participants conducted learning was observed. His behavior was found to reflect informal cooperative behavior.

In stage two, based on the audio-visual recorded simulation, the following was observed: The participants maintained eye contact (85%-95%), used facial expressions (75%-95%), and head nods (up-down and left-right). Such behavior may be perceived as cooperative as it confirmed the interviewer’s message and kept the interview flowing (see Tables 5.6; 5.8; 5.10; 5.12; and 5.14). For example, in the class simulation, Michel and the interviewer, his classmate Rawan (see Table 5.3), exchanged the following dialogue

M: I have no
I: Yes over here there is a lot attraction [interaction] with people ... you have to sell products. Are you able to do that.
M: Ok I have no problem to deal with people. I don’t just shut the door and say inow [I mean] bil akis [on the other hand] I negotiate and  

M. now looks very attentive, respectful – raises eyebrows.  

Again, a serious expression is
Even though Michel was interrupted, he answered the question because the interview was goal directed. Both he and the interviewer were expected to learn about interviewing because their performance was graded. Moreover, each needed to learn complementary skills knowing how to play a different role to conduct the interview. They would be successful if each helped the other and were thus personally accountable. Synergy was essential as they would become most effective when each was committed.

The five participants seemed to show different levels of informal cooperative learning in the simulation (see Table 5.46). Michel, Khalil, and Rani seemed to reflect some examples though Josiane and Tony reflected fewer (see excerpt below).

As can be seen in this excerpt, Josiane seemed to be goal directed, but her objective in the excerpt is her own performance, not exercising complementary skills. She is concerned about her own success, not her boss’s nor the company’s. She seemed to reflect little personal accountability or synergy.

Table 5.46: Snapshots Reflecting Cooperative Behavior in the Simulation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Stage</th>
<th>Participants</th>
<th>Class Simulation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| Michel | I:... How do you work with people  
A: I have no  
I: | yes we have there is a lot...  
A: Ok, I have no problem to deal with |
| Josiane | A: Your company ... I’m willing to try to Uh to work in this (.) uh |1...  
I: | Technique?  
A: | Yeah ... |
| Tony | I: What do you think qualifies you for this job?  
A: Um Uh. [Question has been repeated]  
I: | What do you think .... |
| Khalil | I: What do you think qualifies you for this job  
A: Excuse me? [Leans forward]  
I: | What do you think qualifies you for this job? |
| Rani | A: Are you strict?  
I: | Um  
A: Are you strict about coming on time? (.) And incase ...?  
I: | Um (.) Where do you see yourself in five years |

Key: I: Interviewer  
A: Applicant/Participant
Similarly, Tony's primary concern was his performance. When the interviewer erroneously repeated a question, (see Table 5.46 above), he looked at her and waited until she remembered her lines. It was then that the interview continued. He was neither personally accountable nor synergetic. On the other hand, Khalil gave a different impression. Khalil was interviewed by a classmate who was slightly soft-spoken. Because he was goal-directed and wanted to be interviewed, he helped to bridge the communicative gap to hear her. He showed that he was personally accountable when he asked her to repeat the question and when he pulled up close to her. As a result, the interview was then conducted much more synergetically because Khalil and the interviewers were pooling their efforts. Like Khalil, Rani was goal directed. As Table 5.46 reflects, when the interviewer forgot his lines, Rani covered for him. Such evidence reflects some of the participants' efforts to learn the material in a cooperative rather than a competitive manner.

The group interview was also designed to provide an opportunity for the participants and the ESP class to engage in cooperative learning. It was found that relevant information was shared in order to improve the participants' job-interview performance (see Tables 5.16; 5.18; 5.20; 5.22; 5.24). A case in point is Michel. For example, Michel's nonverbal resource was positively and negatively criticized. Three classmates (S7, S8, S9) mentioned that he had effectively used head nods to support his line of discussion, to which, another (S2) added that he used eye contact quite well. Here, two others (S1 and S5) pointed out he seemed to have been self-confident rather than too self-confident. According to three of his classmates (S1, S3, and S5), Michel was overconfident. A debate arose on whether an applicant ought to be over confident/aggressive or not. The debate concluded with an understanding that an applicant ought to depict self-confidence. Another point that was raised was whether an applicant should respond quickly or slow down and think things over before responding. According to the class, Michel's performance in the simulation reflected this. The characteristics that distinguished Michel's simulation were similar to those raised about the other participants (see Tables 5.16; 5.18; 5.20; 5.22; and 5.24).

The ESP students and the participants, who voiced their opinion, did not hesitate to criticize, whether positively or negatively, the simulated job-interview performance of the five participants. The comments, many of which built on others voiced by their classmates (piggyback effect), were constructive. To a certain extent,
synergy and complementary skills were incorporated. Thus, the observations made were directed to improving the participants' behavior, though not all interview resources were discussed. Issues related to informal cooperative learning will be elaborated on further in the discussion chapter.

5.5.2 Simulation

In terms of the simulation, I will look at whether each participant used the opportunity to engage effectively in training: That is, whether each practiced the use of their verbal, nonverbal, and articulative resource in the simulated job-interview conducted in class and consequently performed better in the job-interview. In general, it was found, according to their PEM, that after the five participants simulated the interview in class, their targeted job-interview performance that occurred in an authentic setting with an authentic company-interviewer tended to improve as regards these three communicative resources. Based on an analysis of their simulation, it is likely that certain moderators may have influenced their performance. As previously discussed, these moderators were the participant's ability to act/to dramatize (Turtledove 2003/1993), their ESL, and the influence of the audience (the class, the teacher (myself) and the audiovisual recorder recording the simulation).

5.5.3 Self-assessment and Peer-feedback

In this section, I will evaluate the third tool: the impact of using an audiovisual recorder in the job-interview context. Two outcomes were found; that is (1) it allowed each participant to better understand his/her performance and to differentiate it from the others' (see Tables 5.16 – 5.25), and (2) it served as a motivator. It directed the participants to improve their performance in the second simulation held in the authentic job-interview context (see Tables 5.36-5.41).

In stage three (see Chapter four, pp. 100-105), the participants were actively involved in self-assessment and peer-feedback. This may have led to professional development. For example, after Michel had observed the audiovisual recording of his performance, Michel said that as an applicant he had reflected job-awareness, and he evaluated his performance as good, considering the fact it was conducted in class. Josiane's reaction was realizing that she had to monitor her behavior all the time because the camera only recorded the applicant rather than both interlocutors. Apart
from the nonverbal resources, she also realized that she had to monitor her articulative and verbal resources. Josiane's reaction was quite similar to Tony's. As a result, it seems that the participants gained increased awareness of their performance, the other participants' performance, and the context.

In stage six (see Chapter four, pp. 126-128), the participants were interviewed by the practitioner-researcher immediately after their job-interview (see Tables 5.36 - 5.41) to assess their performance and the curriculum intervention process. It emerged that, to a certain extent, what seems to have motivated and directed them towards job-interview professional improvement was the simulation and the self-assessment and peer-feedback in stage three.

Based on the findings, it can be said that the three pedagogic tools seem to have played an integral role in the participants' job-interview performance and the intervention curriculum.

5.6 Conclusion

The intervention curriculum seems to have led to a new context of learning. The data indicates that the participants' communicative resources changed. It appears that learning occurred as a consequence of engaging in the four stages of the intervention curriculum. According to Robbins (2003, p. 43), "We can see changes taking place, but we can not actually 'see' learning itself. We can infer that learning has taken place if an individual behaves, reacts, and responds as a result of experience in a manner different from the way he formally behaved."

To conclude, the cumulative evidence illustrates that the five participants, each in his/her unique way, were engaged in learning the job interview skills by working together and self-training in the use of context and content, self-reflection, and peer-feedback. The findings reflect this process of situated learning and the participants' greater awareness of the context and content of the interview. In the following chapter, the discussion will answer the five research questions.
Chapter Six: Analysis and Discussion

6.1 Introduction

This chapter shows how the research findings compare and contrast with the existing literature. It will be divided into four sections which serve to relate the five research questions and the findings respectively to the conceptual framework. In the first section, the discussion centers on the participants engaging in structured learning across the intervention process where pedagogic tools as informal cooperative learning, simulations, self-assessment and peer-feedback are related to the literacy framework. In the second section, the discussion is on the participants' professional improvement in terms of their performance in the authentic job-interview context, where job-interview resources, first impression management, and self-monitoring are considered. In the third section, the participants' positive perception of their job-interview performance and the intervention process is discussed. As a result of the learning across the intervention process, each gained awareness of the job-interview context and content. In the fourth section, the discussion centered on the fifth research question and finding: The practitioner-researcher's evaluation of the intervention curriculum as a pedagogic process. Comparative conceptual analysis included curriculum needs analysis, informal cooperative learning, ESP job-interview training, and self-assessment and peer-feedback as the outcome of audiovisual recording.

In this chapter, I will draw on the five participants' four-stage process of learning in the intervention curriculum for the purpose of illustration. In some sections, one participant's learning is discussed for transparency and clarity whereas in others, I include two or more participants.

6.2 Location and Structure of Learning: Khalil

This section will answer the first two research questions which address where and how learning occurred. One particular participant's experience will be used as an illustration. The discussion which follows builds on how, Khalil, who was selected because he seemed to be the most transparent, gained job-interview skills in the ESP classroom and authentic job-interview context.

133
6.2.1 Pair-Work in the ESP Learning Context

Khalil’s skills seemed to develop in the following manner in this learning context. After I had lectured on interview skills, the class was expected to engage in adopting the interlocutor’s role in the job-interview. Khalil and Sherine, a classmate seated by him, engaged in pair work directly in front of me (see Chapter five, p. 91). The pair-work was an opportunity for them to engage in cooperative learning. For the few minutes that were given, their efforts were what Johnson and Johnson (2003, p. 169) termed informal cooperative behavior. For the few minutes allotted, each of them practiced a role and was goal-directed. The two used complementary skills and were dependent on each other for their performance to be successful. The outcome was that both experienced a new dynamic structure of learning helping them to gain awareness of their role with an ESP classmate who was personally and mutually accountable. Given a task with a clear set of student learning instructions (Baloche 1998; Stahl 1994, p. 1), each worked within that framework.

6.2.2 Khalil’s Simulation: Applying the Interview Resources

In stage two, the interview simulation took place upfront, on the teacher’s podium in the ESP classroom. Khalil, as the job-applicant, and Diane, as the job-interviewer, simulated the job-interview (see Figure 3.1). The simulation was intended to help Khalil to train for the interview which included first impression management and practicing the three interview resources.

Other research work has been done on college students simulating the job-interview (see Chapter two). However, the simulations in previous studies were not staged in an ESP classroom or with the intention to improve the participants’ job-interview skills. The purpose of most of the simulations was either to test the interviewer’s appraisal/evaluation system or to test the participants’ verbal, nonverbal, or image management skills (Lundelius & Poon 1997; Kacmar, Delery, Ferris 1992; Anderson 1991; Gilmor & Ferris 1989) on their job-interview performance. The majority of past research suggested various tactics that could be used by an applicant and possible outcomes that might occur (Stevens 1998; Stevens & Kristof 1995). A participant’s ESP classroom simulation, as such, can best be contrasted with the other
participants who are engaged in simulations to improve their job-interview performance to show that the simulation did provide the needed practice for learning the interview skills and enhance their professional interview resources.

In terms of first impression management, the job-applicant needs to account for formalities and appearance (Leanne 2004; Stewart & Cash 2000). The employment interview seems to create implicit expectations of active overt influence such as self-confidence monitoring (Stevens & Kristof 1995). Khalil seems to have been over-prepared for the simulation conducted in the classroom context because instead of being welcomed, Khalil took over the formalities and greeted the interviewer. Before the simulation formally began, Khalil greeted the interviewer and asked how she was. Then, acting with proper decorum and reflecting the appropriate formalities, Khalil shook the interviewer's hand and sat down, back upright, to the right of the interviewer (Ober 2001). However, he had already given an impression of overconfidence. Overconfidence among college graduates is not positively perceived (Einhorn 1981; Stubbs 1984).

The second factor in impression management is appearance. Khalil projected himself as an attractive young man. Gilmore, Beehr, and Love (1986 cited in Ilkka 1993, p. 15) asserted that attractiveness has the broadest influence on employment decisions (gender, type of rater, and type of job). In terms of his “dress code” (Ober 2001), he wore a well-pressed shirt and trousers. Bardack and McAndrews (1985 cited in Ilkka 1993, p. 14) suggest that there is some evidence that attractive people who dress appropriately improve their chances of being hired significantly.

Khalil’s learning is also reflected in the manner in which he put into practice the interview resources. The content of dialogue made it clear that Khalil and the interviewer had prepared a script to organize their performance during the simulated job-interview in front of the class. This activity of using a script during simulations has been displayed by other participants practicing job-interview simulation as shown in Marshall (2003/2002) and Lundelius and Poon (1997). However, in this study, although a script was used, Khalil exaggerated his own qualifications. He claimed to be a “perfectionist”, “conscientious”, “considerate”, “sociable” and “punctual”. This is what Gubrium and Holstein (2003, p. 3) called “offer[ing] information from his or her personal cache of experiential knowledge.”

Second, in terms of Khalil’s nonverbal expressions, he used facial expressions, kinetics and proxemics well. Khalil’s interpersonal interaction (Streeck & Knapp
1992; Ekman & Friesen's 1969) seemed to support his verbal communication relatively well showing that the first and second resources worked together. For example, he maintained eye contact most of the time. As Stewart and Cash (2000) asserted, eye contact reflects that the applicant is serious and focused on the flow of discourse, and Khalil's use of eye contact in the simulation seemed to be natural and unpretentious. Moreover, Ekman's (1980), Ekman's (1976), and Ekman & Friesen's (1969) research found that the use of facial expressions is very effective in reflecting the speaker's intent. According to Kendon (1992) and Streeck and Knapp (1992), the use of facial expressions and gestures, both of which were used by Khalil, also works to emphasize key ideas. For example, when appropriate, in terms of time and quantity, he nodded, left and right and up and down, and he gestured to emphasize his ideas. Furthermore, during most of the interview, Khalil maintained appropriate distance from the job-interviewer as is relevant in interviews, locally and abroad (Hall 1998). However, halfway through the interview, he changed his formal posture, shortened the proxemics between them, and pulled up close to her. In the formal context of job-interview, which the simulation was intended to project, Khalil's behavior may have been seen as culturally unacceptable since as a Lebanese job-applicant, Khalil crossed the border separating informal and formal contexts (see further chapter one and two; Chaney & Martin 2004; Bovee, Thill, & Schatzmann 2003). Chaney and Martin (2004) and Hall (1968, p. 89) posited that Arabs perceive proxemics in relation "to a context," and Khalil breached the formal context boundary as he pulled up close to a female (see Table 5.12; 5.22; and 5.23).

Third, Khalil's articulative resource was loud and clear syntax which may have reflected a measure of confidence. Parson and Liden (1984 cited in Ilkka 1993, p. 16) asserted that articulation was one of the most significantly influential variables on ratings of qualifications. Khalil showed the needed fluency because he used pauses, emphasis, and different types of syntax (see Tables 5.12). But he was long-winded in responding to questions, rather than concise and straight to the point, speech characteristics that both Ober (2001) and Hopper and Williams (1973) denoted as positive.

As described by Nunan (2001, p. 2), Khalil's simulation provided him with the opportunity to participate in a social situation which was intended to throw light on the role/rule context governing real-life social episodes. He may have learnt more about the role of the job-applicant by acting it out in class, as has been claimed by
6.2.3 The Group Interview

In stage three, the group interview provided Khalil with an opportunity for learning. Projecting the recorded simulation of the job-interview on an enlarged TV screen was an opportunity for Khalil, the four participants, their classmates, and their teacher “to observe”, “to criticize”, and “reflect on” (Pink 2004, p. 397) the simulations based on behavior in context (see Tables 5.16 – 5.25). According to Mangelsdorf (1992 cited in Lundelius & Poon 1997, p. 2), as with most group work, when the tasks are carefully structured (see Figure 3.1) (see Appendix A, B, & C) participants/students become successful critics. Khalil actively engaged in the group interview. He was an outspoken participant. He commented on his own behavior acknowledging that he was a confident young man (see Table 5.23). Khalil may have been integrating what he had learnt earlier. Philips (2004) posited that if given an opportunity in class, some students will talk about their behavior and, as a result, make causal links. Khalil may have been justifying his performance in the simulation based on his understanding of the material he had learnt.

Some students also commented on Khalil’s performance (see Table 5.22), though in general, they engaged in criticism about all participants. Khalil was labeled by some students as a young man with an attitude [S2], an overconfident applicant [S], and a participant who was taking advantage of the simulation to make a sexual advance at the job-interviewer using proxemics, eye contact, and articulativeness [R]. Khalil immediately defended his position, claiming to have moved closer because he had been unable to hear his soft-spoken interviewer. He and Rani engaged in some negative verbal exchanges, as Rani claimed that Khalil “was trying to show that he [verbally and nonverbally] was better than the others.” This exchange, among others, may have led Khalil to change his behavior in the second simulation held in the authentic job-interview context.
The group interview was intended to be another opportunity to engage in informal cooperative behavior among the participants and with the ESP class because such behavior is claimed to increase students' learning potential (Smith 1996; Johnson & Johnson 2003). It may have achieved this as the five participants all seem to have made a serious attempt to improve their performance (see Tables 5.26; 5.29; 5.31; 5.32; 5.35; and 5.38).

It seems, then, that Khalil's participation in the group interview provided him with an opportunity to learn more about his performance in the simulation by observing it, listening to what the other participants, the ESP students, and his teacher said, and, then, commenting on it.

6.2.4 Possible Effects of Peer-Feedback in the Second Simulation

Learning also occurred in the second simulation because Khalil role-played in an authentic context with a professional interviewer. Khalil's second simulation was conducted in the office of the marketing manager at an established and reputable company with the audiovisual recorder focused on Khalil's performance. Freedman (1987 in Lundelius & Poon 1997, p. 3) asserted that when students realize that their performance will be scrutinized, they attend to the activity. This was true in Khalil's case.

In terms of his use of verbal resources, the content did not always seem to be appropriate because Khalil did not answer directly nor concisely some of the questions posed but used the same procedure of answering as he had in the simulation. As Hollandsworth et al. (1979) asserted, the verbal resource is extremely important; appropriacy of content was found to be the first criterion in applicant selection. Maybe Khalil perceived, as Turnley & Bolino (1998) had, that a job-applicant is seen in terms of person-job fit and person-organization fit, and, as a result, Khalil found it necessary to praise the company before he answered the question.

However, Khalil's verbal performance gives the impression he had paid attention to some of the topics discussed in the earlier stages of the pedagogic process, particularly those aspects related to his attitude and choice of words. If we compare the first simulation to the second, Khalil phrased his sentence differently (see excerpt p. 125). His confidence was still evident, here and elsewhere, yet he seems to have
made an effort to moderate his position. Instead of, "I think I am pretty qualified"., Khalil said, "Um I'm sure that uh the positive feedback will come and positive outcomes will be reached."

Another difference reflected in that same excerpt is what Kacmar, Delery, and Ferris (1992, p. 120) call the "self promotion" tactic. For example, Khalil had integrated business-related course material into his response to illustrate his marketing competence. For instance, his view of management was that decision-making, implementation, and evaluation were shared, information he learnt in a sophomore level business management course. In this example and elsewhere, it seems that Khalil tried to improve the appropriacy of the interview content and tried to reflect self-confidence rather than over-confidence.

Furthermore, in this context, Khalil used his nonverbal communication relatively well. He wore a formal suit with a bright shirt and tie. He had put some fixing jell in his hair, and he wore a silver pinky ring, presenting himself as a well-groomed job-applicant for a marketing vacancy in Lebanon. He maintained eye contact most of the time to emphasize his ideas and to confirm that he was attentive and was listening to what was being said. According to Kress (1988) and Erickson (1986), such behavior reflects the level of attentiveness of the participants in interpersonal communication. For example, at the very beginning of the interview, when the company-interviewer was providing Khalil with general information about the company, Khalil looked at the interviewer, apparently listened carefully, and used "Right," "OK" "yeah" "Um" "and" "Uh, huh" to confirm his attentiveness. According to Stevens & Kristof (1995), such behavior works to forge a link between the applicant and interviewer as Khalil was using the "opinion conformity" tactic (Kacmar, Delary, & Feris 1992, p 1251). Moreover, Khalil nodded often [around six times left and right and 42 times up and down] to confirm agreement. According to Ekman & Friesen (1974; 1969), such movements of the head support the speaker quite well as does posture. In general, Khalil sat upright, though a few times he leaned forward or rested his elbows on the desk or played with some items on the interviewer’s desk. Leanne (2004) and Kador (2002) point to similar examples of informal behavior exhibited by inexperienced job-applicants. Khalil often used gestures either in response to questions or when posing questions himself. According to Chaney and Martin (2004) and Streeck and Knapp (1992), gestures punctuate and add meaning to one’s oral message. This was the case with Khalil. For example,
when he was explaining his personal view of a new cigarette advertisement, he spoke about a global attitude. Using his arms, Khalil reflected an image of a circle. The circle was, what Ekman and Friesen (1969) term, an iconic gesture. It bore a natural resemblance to the globe that Khalil denoted. Khalil’s iconic gesture provided a spatial representation of Phillip Morris’ LM globalization concept. The iconic gesture became recognizable as a representation by virtue of its coordination with Khalil’s discourse. “The ‘Silhouette’ that an iconic gesture provides is ‘filled in’ with the semantic profiles of the words spoken” (Streeck & Knapp 1992, pp. 12-13). For Khalil, the image was the globalization of an advertisement directed to the youth. He argued that “information” on how to globalize an advertisement was “knowledge” that he could provide. His argument rested on two points. First, he was young, only 19, and could access information on youth. Second, he was creative (see 3rd excerpt pp. 114-115). This example shows that the encouragement given to the students in the ESP class to be self-directed and purpose-related seems to have been realized. Khalil’s performance seems to reflect an integration and internalization of such an approach.

In addition to verbal and nonverbal behavior, Khalil also used the articulative resources relatively well. According to Hollandsworth et al. (1979, p. 365), the articulative resources were found to contribute strongly to the employment decisions. Throughout the second simulation, Khalil could be heard clearly as he pronounced accurately, and, in most cases, he spoke fluently. He showed appropriacy in the articulative resource: he paused and used discourse markers. In relation to other ESP students, Khalil’s command of English was quite good. Shaaban & Ghaith (1999) asserted that most Lebanese consistently use more than one language (see Chapter two), but, unlike his classmates, Khalil did not mix languages when he addressed his teacher. In the simulation conducted in the ESP classroom, Khalil interacted strictly in English whereas during his job-interview, he used four different Arabic words, once each. These words included halak [now], bas [but], yanees [more or less; approximately], and imow [I mean] (see excerpts p. 114). Khalil may not have intentionally chosen to use Arabic as the language of communication; rather, he used those words spontaneously as is the case with discourse makers to emphasize a point to a fellow Lebanese, the company-interviewer. Based on my observation as an American ESP teacher, and given the nature of Khalil’s years of education in the small culture (Holliday 1999) of the classroom and his socialization in his national
culture (Holliday 1994), Khalil’s use of Arabic in the simulation conducted in the job-interview context is typically Lebanese as Shaaban and Ghaith’s (1999) and Zakaria’s (1992) research point out, and needs to be understood in its situated context.

Then, it seems that Khalil tried to reinforce his argument nonverbally and articulatively. Khalil tried to improve the verbal resource by integrating information he had gathered through research on the company as a marketing major and by self-monitoring his input. He maintained eye contact, nodded, gestured, used proxemics, and leaning forward/backward. Moreover, he emphasized and used discourse markers.

Many company interviewers develop their first impression prior to the interview, a ‘primacy effect’ according to Dipboye and Jackson (1999) and Dipboye et al. (1975). Khalil’s behavior at the interview seemed to confirm the company-interviewer’s early evaluation. Such an early impression may be more important than factual information on the interviewer’s hiring decision as Schmitt (1976 cited in Ilkka 1993, p. 10) noted. Moreover, research also suggests that negative first impressions have more of an impact than positive ones (Rowe 1989 cited in Ilkka 1993, p. 10). This primacy effect may have been an influential factor in how the interviewer conducted himself. The company-interviewer was concerned with Khalil’s overconfidence though he understood why Khalil used “I”, claiming that any Sophomore in college would. The company-interviewer believed that for Khalil to do well in a job-interview he needed to learn more about the market and his job. As Latham and Millman (2002) posited, awareness of the macro and micro conditions related to a company are essential. Khalil needed to control his emotions in order to be less of a “forward character,” and “less self-encouraged” which the company interviewer felt would happen naturally by the time Khalil graduated (see excerpt p. 116). Based on the analysis and discussion of Khalil’s training and development across the six stages, Khalil’s job-interview performance seems to reflect a change, constituting learning, because he self-monitored (Robbins & Coulter 2005, p. 48; Kacmar, Delery, & Ferris 1992, p. 1250), and decided to bring about a “professional” change. The company-interviewer evaluated Khalil as a job-applicant he would hire.

Thus, Khalil seems to have worked at improving the shortcomings in his first simulation (see Table 5.12, p. 98) voiced in the group interview (see Table 5.23, p. 105) in order to be the “professional” he claimed to be in the second simulation (see Table 5.32, p. 112). He may have done this by making an effort to be self-confident
rather than overconfident. First, through his answers, he showed that he had conducted research on the company and its performance locally and internationally. Second, he may have shown that he had practiced answering typical job-interview questions and posing job-applicant questions. Third, he dressed appropriately, wearing a suit and tie for a marketing position in Lebanon. Fourth, he seemed to have made conscious use of formal proxemics, facial expressions, and kinetics. Fifth, he seemed to have monitored the appropriacy of content and fluency of expression. Based on the evidence given, Khalil was relatively successful in terms of using the first four measures. His performance reflected a need to work on improving the fifth. Khalil was aware that he needed to focus on self-improvement through practice. The implications of such behavior on the pedagogy are discussed in the following chapter.

6.3 Professional Change: Josiane and Tony

The third research question deals with whether the participants' interview performance changed from the simulated interview to the job-interview and whether it became more professional. I will draw on examples from Josiane and Tony's learning process contrasting the two simulations in terms of the interview resources in order to see whether the second simulation reflected more professional conduct.

First, in the job-interview context, Josiane and Tony's interview content/verbal resource improved. They had conducted company relevant research; that is drawing up a more thorough understanding of the market, company, and job framework. Thill and Bovee (2005) stated that such awareness is necessary, and it was evident in the participants' responses. Job-applicants may achieve a desired image and avoid an undesired image if they use self-monitoring. Rosenfeld, Giacalone, & Rioudan (1995 cited in Turnley & Bolino 1998, p. 351) asserted that people/job-applicants attempt to influence the images that others have of them. This the participants did. Stubbs (1984) posited that an important objective of the applicant is to convince the interviewer that s/he is the best candidate for the position. It seems that both Josiane and Tony self-monitored to do just that, to fit the needs of the job-interviewer. It seems that they had paid attention to what had been said about their performance in the simulation, focusing on advancing their strengths and eliminating the weaknesses. In the authentic job-interview context, Josiane was careful about how she integrated the information she had researched on the company
and its performance in the market. During the group interview, it seems that Josiane had listened to the class, the other participants, and my comments on her performance. For example, Rani, in class had said that Josiane had shown in the simulation in the classroom context that she knew more than the interviewer (see Table 5.18, p. 102). As a result, it seems that Josiane intentionally adopted the "self-presentation" (Anderson 1991, p. 405) of an informed, experienced and confident, rather than overconfident applicant in the authentic job-interview context. She self-monitored, careful to include self-focused and other-focused tactics (Kacmar, Delery, & Ferris 1992, pp. 1250-1253) (see Chapter five, Table 5.29, p. 110). Similarly, in the simulation conducted in the classroom context, Tony was sure of the material on the company. As he had written the script, he knew how to respond (see Chapter five, Table 5.10, p. 96). However, in terms of Tony's performance in the second simulation, even though Tony was also well-informed in terms of the company, its history, performance, and the number of employees worldwide and in Lebanon he had difficulty answering the interviewer's questions (see Chapter five, pp. 111-113). Both Josiane and Tony made an effort to work on their communicative structure. The improvement is more noticeable in Josiane's discourse than in Tony's (see Chapter five, pp. 123-125). Josiane changed her verbal, nonverbal, and articulative resource to present herself more professionally. On the other hand, Tony's content, fluency, and articulation did not improve much (see Chapter five, pp. 111-113).

Learning seems to have taken place. Tony knew what he needed to address in terms of verbal resources, in terms of content; however, the ESL weaknesses were not addressed (see Table 5.33, p. 113). The failure of the pedagogy to lead Tony to professional conduct in the authentic job-interview context may have been that the pedagogy did not include separate language reinforcement sessions for some ESL students. It seem that Tony may have not performed professionally because of his educational background not because of lack of interview competence or poor self-monitoring (see further Chapter seven).

Second, Josiane and Tony's nonverbal resource improved (see Chapter five, pp. 123-125). First impression management skills in their targeted job-interviews were those they had not used well in the classroom simulation. These included appearance, decorum, and formalities. However, at the targeted job-interview, they were well-dressed and looked professional; Josiane in a conservative light blue suit and Tony in a dark suit. At the first simulation, both had been casually dressed. It
seems that they realized at the classroom simulation and during the group interview that dress code was important. Moreover, it seems that both Josiane and Tony sought to achieve professional decorum. When Josiane and Tony's second interview is compared to their first, with respect to some of the PEM resources, the following is found: Josiane's eye contact (95% vs. 95%), head nods (33 vs. 29), facial expression (serious 90% vs. 95%), gestures (2% vs. 4%), and proxemics (90%) varied; Tony's eye contact (80 vs. 85), head nods (20 vs. 12), facial expression (serious 90% vs. 85%), gestures (9% vs. 15%), and proxemics (upright vs. slouched) varied. These findings reflect a change in the participants' dynamic nonverbal cues including first impression management skills in their introductory formalities. This may be related to their awareness of the need to self-monitor its usage to reflect appropriate decorum.

As noted, both Josiane and Tony used facial expressions, eye contact, proxemics, and kinetics to emphasize key ideas in the second simulation. Josiane's full-fledged facial expressions served as "meta communicative" (Streeck & Knapp 1992, p. 17) comments on her concurrent, upcoming, or completed sentences. Josiane had a serious expression on her face as she greeted the company-interviewer and said, "Good morning." Moreover, Josiane, used what Ekman (1976) termed facial action, the raised eyebrow to question relevant information. Later, as the company-interviewer posed the question concerning her definition of professional success, she raised her eyebrows and seemed to question such a query. Her response was appropriate.

In the classroom simulation, Josiane had used nonverbal behavior, in particular facial expressions; for instance, she smiled often, arched her eye brows to emphasized key ideas, and arranged her hair around her neck line frequently as she discussed the company strategies. Overall, such behavior had not had the same impact because she did not seem to have been monitoring as Turnley & Bolino (1998, p. 351) had said a professional job-applicant would. As Friedman (1979) posited, facial expressions do become an important aspect in the fine-tuning of speakers' and listeners' interpersonal communication. In terms of proxemics, Josiane maintained formal distance from the company-interviewer whereas in the class simulation, she had pulled closer to the interviewer to emphasize key ideas. In the group interview, the classmates stated that Tony had not been professional, at which he acknowledged that he had been leaning back rather than sitting upright. Later, in the assessment interview, he told me that he was upset he had not been professional in the simulation.
At the second simulation, it seems Tony may have made an effort to be professional both verbally and nonverbally. For example, when Tony was explaining where he lived and worked, he pointed southward. Streeck and Knapp (1992, pp. 13-14) emphasized how effective these gestures called pointers are. These brief motions of the hand with the thumb extended point to the real environment of the interaction. Such gesture types are brief and transitory but make a contribution to the company-interviewer's process of understanding. Moreover, when Tony wanted to emphasize key locations where he could serve the company, he encircled the area around him. These iconic gestures were an abstraction (Kendon 1992), yet they provided a representation of the territory where he could market the company's insurance policy. Tony's gesture was "intrinsically coded" (Ekman & Friesen 1969) and became recognizable because it spatially represented what Tony was saying. In the classroom simulation, Tony had used nonverbal behavior, but his performance reflected a student reciting a memorized script rather than a professional job-applicant in an interview context (see Table 5.10).

Tony's use of nonverbal behavior in the second simulation (see Table 5.32, p. 112) (see excerpts pp. 111-112) clarify how his 'speech' was enhanced and became more professional. In short, it appears that Josiane and Tony learnt in the four stages of the intervention curriculum. In the authentic job-interview context, Josiane's and Tony's performance seem to reflect a more professional performance; however, Tony's overall performance reflected that he needed to work on his fluency and articulative resources.

6.4 Participants' Evaluation: Michel, Josiane, and Rani

The fourth research question is concerned with the participants' personal evaluation of the new process of learning job-interview skills and how each perceived its impact on their own job-interview performance. Below, I will draw on comments made by the five participants in the assessment interview I conducted (see Table 5.41 - 5.45). In general, the participants felt that the process was positive. The two main factors which they perceived as most relevant were increasing their awareness and understanding of the job-interview context and content.
6.4.1 Job Context

The participants became aware of the situated environment of the job-interview (see Chapter five, pp. 126-127). In explaining context, Mishler (1999; 1979, p. 14) asserted that people need to understand meaning and action in context. That is, "Meaning is always within context and contexts incorporate meaning" (Mishler 1979, p. 28). Moreover, people need to behave in a manner which is appropriate to the context (Erickson 1992). I attempted to make this clear to the students in stage one, their ESP class (see Chapter three, pp. 57-61).

For example, the participant Michel felt that the learning context was quite important. For him the context was the atmosphere, and it changed across the intervention curriculum. In one context, he was a student, learning in front of his classmates, his teacher, and the video-recorder. In the other, he was a professional job-applicant applying for work in a traditional job environment. He believed his performance changed accordingly.

The participants commented on the contextual difference in the two interview settings (see Table 5.41 – 5.45, pp. 119-122). In the simulation conducted in class, they felt they were in a position of control because the interview was a script they had developed together, and the physical and interpersonal environment—the ESP classroom—was relatively simple and familiar (see Figure 3.1, p. 61). Although they believed they were prepared for the context from the ESP class session, they realized other factors came into play in the classroom simulation, a complexity of factors. This was evident in the remarks they made in the group interview (see Table 5.16 – 5.25, pp. 101-106). As a result, they realized that learning about the interview was a process. The material needed to be learned through practice (Nunan 2001, p. 2) and discussion (Philips 2004).

Their understanding of the job-interview context evolved to included multiple factors, "micro and macro" (Latham & Millman 2002, pp. 473-485). The job-interview context was perceived to include the formality of structure (Stewart & Cash 2000; Kress 1988; Mishler 1979) in the office, the formality of appearance (Jenkins & Atkins 1990), and appropriate usage of nonverbal resources (Kendon 1992; Rasmussen 1984). In terms of the extended interpersonal context, they realized that in such a context they had to be 'acting'/monitoring (Turnley & Bolino 1998) though
some of the participants were a little uncomfortable about the audience—the class, myself [their teacher], and the audiovisual recorder (see Tables 4.41–4.45, pp. 119-122). These issues will be explored further in the practitioner-researcher's evaluation.

6.4.2 Job Content

The second factor perceived as relevant in the participants' evaluation was the content of the interview. The participants realized that the content of job-interviews was not simply surface questions rather questions that required deeper analysis and synthesis. The participants realized that "to structure" the interviewer's opinion in order to lead to a favorable outcome, such as high suitability ratings or a job offer, they had to use certain verbal strategies (Hollandsworth et al. 1979; Hollandsworth et al. 1978). The participants had to project job-applicant qualities that Thill and Bovee (2005) asserted were critical in contemporary interviews such as intelligence, alertness, judgment, logic, perception, creativity, organization and depth.

They had to think about complex issues and develop a persuasive line of argument that reflected their professional competence. Participants needed to manipulate information to control impressions. For example, Michel, Josiane, and Rani reflected creativity, depth, and intelligence in their response to a difficult question posed by their company-interviewer (see Chapter five, excerpt p. 107; last excerpt p. 109; excerpt, p. 117). As Ferris and King (1991 cited in Kacmar, Deley, & Ferris 1992, p. 1251) asserted, the applicant/job and applicant/organization fit are dynamic needs to be manipulated opportunistically throughout the interview.

It can be held that as a result of taking part in the four-stage intervention process the participants became more aware of the context and better understood the content of the interviews in terms of its physical and interpersonal resources before, during, and after the targeted job-interview. Awareness of these factors is critical, and it seems to have led to increased confidence in the participants' ability to perform professionally.

6.5 Practitioner-Researcher's Evaluation

The fifth question concerns my personal evaluation of the process as an intervention curriculum and as a research design. First, I will evaluate the needs
model for curriculum development focusing on stage one of the intervention curriculum process and its impact on the remaining stages.

The objective of the intervention curriculum was to create a new structure of learning that enhanced ESP students’ job-interview performance. The course design included (1) a richer and more comprehensive lecture on issues relevant to the job-interview (2) encouraging cooperative learning behavior (Johnson & Johnson 2003; Ghaith 2003a; Smith 1996), (3) using simulation as a learning “event” (Jones 1982), and (4) using the audiovisual recording as a learning process through self-assessment and peer-feedback (Pink 2004; Sheridan 2004/1993; Kasper 2000; Fox 2000).

First, I will evaluate the success of the ESP job-interview material in stages one through four. As an American ESP practitioner in Lebanon, I was sensitive to the linguistic and cultural approach that seemed to be integrated in the university ideology, course context/methodology, syllabus, course textbook and classroom activity. The intervention curriculum which was designed for Business Majors in Lebanon (Akhras 2000c; 2000b; 2000a) proved to be relatively successful because it was based on ESP needs analysis and curriculum development (Richards 2001; Nunan 2001; Dudley Evans & St. John 1998). Because needs analysis indicated that Lebanese business students had cultural, political, social, and educational backgrounds different from that of BANA country students (Ghaith 2003a; Kraidy 1999; Shaaban & Ghaith 1999), the learning context—materials development, learning activities, learning modes and environment (Richards 2001; Nunan 2001; Richards & Nunan 1990)—was successfully shaped for Lebanese participants across the four stages to be compatible with the small cultures (Holliday 1999). Authentic, purpose-related, and self-directed topics and class activities were perceived as effective, as they are by other contemporary practitioners of ESP (Thill & Bovee 2005; Masters & Brinton 1998; Dudley-Evans & St. John 1998; Carter 1983) because the activities center on the participant being a member of a transactional world where the use of the English language is a means and not an end in itself.

The effectiveness of the intervention curriculum may have been perceived by the participants for two key reasons which were gaining awareness and understanding of the interview context and content. However, I perceived it differently. The five participants had gained a degree of freedom in deciding when, what, and how they would use the interview resources in the interview settings. It led to participants becoming actively and relatively successfully involved in their course of action,
particularly in selecting how they would implement what they had learnt (see further chapter seven). Their freedom and input to curriculum development was novel (Henson 2001; Burns 1999).

Having evaluated the impact of the material included in the intervention curriculum in the ESP learning session, the discussion will move to an evaluation of the three learning tools. The tools to be evaluated include informal cooperative learning, simulating, and peer feedback and self assessment.

6.5.1 Informal Cooperative Learning

Informal cooperative learning took place in a relatively successful manner in the simulation activity which was what Richards (2001), Henson (2001), and Pratt (1994, pp. 205-210) asserted with respect to the value of cooperative learning as one of the most important principles of effective instruction in curriculum planning. The idea that students learn more by doing something than by simply watching and listening has long been known both by cognitive psychologists and effective teachers (Nunan 2001, p. 1; Bonwell & Eison 1991 cited in Felder & Brent 2002/1994, p. 3). Johnson and Johnson (2003) and Smith (1996) asserted that cooperative learning is said to motivate learning in participants intrinsically and extrinsically and to lead to higher achievements and psychological well-being. In effect, informal cooperative learning seems to have led the participants to be goal-directed, to use complementary skills, and to be personally and mutually accountable towards a synergetic result (see Tables 5.28; 5.31; 5.34; 5.37; 5.40). Some of the participants clearly reflected some behavior which might be perceived as an example of informal cooperative behavior (see Table 5.8) in the first three stages of the pedagogic process. Like the other participants, it seems that Rani intended to learn about interviewing and the role of the job-applicant (Goal directed). In the simulation, Rani adopted the role of the job-applicant exhibiting complementary skills and personal accountability in answering and asking questions (see excerpt, chapter five, p. 99). Moreover, Rani played a synergetic role and was personally/mutually accountable in the role he played. On the other hand, in the first simulation, Michel’s answers reflected a different approach (see Chapter five, excerpt p. 92). Some students in the class began to laugh. With my help, Michel pulled himself together, regaining composure. He realized that his attitude may not have been appropriate. Immediately, Michel adopted a more
conciliatory approach. Josiane also reflected an approach different from Rani’s. Josiane like Michel presented herself as an applicant who had work experience. She was very self-focused rather than other-focused. When she stumbled, the interviewer helped Josiane to express herself appropriately (see Chapter five, excerpts pp. 94-95). Tony also adopted a different approach than Rani’s. When the interviewer made a mistake, Tony waited till she corrected herself before continuing. He seemed to be self-focused rather than mutually accountable. He was synergetic and used complementary skills to his advantage. These three participants were engaging in self-focused or what Kashima and Triandis (1986, p. 83) termed “self serving bias”. Formal cooperative learning is about participants who are aware that the goal can only be achieved together, where the skills complement one another, where members are responsible for one another, given that the outcome is synergetic. Stated differently Stahl (2002/1994, p. 2) put it, “...all students in the group must buy into the target outcome”. It appears that, at times, Rani and Khalil clearly reflected this type of behavior, though their teammates experienced what might be termed a weaker form of cooperative behavior.

In the group interview, the opportunity to engage in informal cooperative learning led to observations made by the participants on their fellow participants’ behavior that were informative. The elements of cooperative learning are about being personally and mutually accountable. To engage in such learning, the participants have to want to help the others out and use their personal complementary skills to engage in learning that may lead to synergetic learning—learning which according to Johnson and Johnson (2003), Katzenbach and Smith (1993), Felder and Brent (1996) may have other positive effects. As Light (1992, p. 62) asserted, the students who grow the most academically at university are those who interrelate and cooperate with other students and their lecturers. It seems that the simulation coupled with the cooperative learning was successful for the five participants as it seems to have encouraged them to work on improving their skills.

In trying to motivate these five participants to use informal cooperative learning, I realized that two key issues had not been properly assessed before the study was undertaken: First, the impact of the participants’ sociocultural and education background on ESP (see Chapter one); second, the structure of cooperative learning as a teaching mechanism in an ESP class. The participants were Lebanese, and, in general, as the Lebanese social, cultural, and educational structure is one
which emphasizes both individualistic and competitive behavior (Maalouf El-Alfy 2002; Nasr 2002; Mikati 2002, p. 41; Roger 2001), the likelihood that informal cooperative learning will work successfully is debatable (Ghaith 2003a; Ghaith 2003b; Gaith 1996; Kfoury 2002; Wakim, Assaf, & Abboud 2001). The second factor not properly appreciated were the “essential elements of cooperative learning in the classroom” (Stahl 2002/1994, pp. 1-4). In general, it seems that some of the participants engaged in a cooperative group task rather than cooperative learning because they may have not perceived a common purpose. Information was shared but participants were not held accountable. They held separate objectives; individualistic ones. This may have come from their background and because they were not given sufficient time to work together. The implications of these issues on the intervention curriculum will be further discussed in the next chapter.

6.5.2 Simulation

The second pedagogic tool to be evaluated is the simulation whereby the participants had the opportunity to practice how they would communicate in English and in the nonverbal and articulative resources. According to Jones (1982, p. 2), students who are part of a simulation are involved in “an event” which evolves naturally. The simulation is not something which can be taught rather “there is a reality of function not pretence.”

The simulation is a general class of activities which includes role-playing, games, and computer simulations (Masters & Brinton 1998). In the study, the simulation was used as role-playing in an educational context where role-playing is defined as participation in simulated social situations that is intended to (1) throw light upon the role/rule context governing real life social episodes (Thompson & Williams 1987 cited in Aiex 1999), (2) to provide the participants an opportunity to practice using the job-interview resources (Lundelius & Poon 1998), and (3) to be involved in a new/different way of learning. It seems that as a pedagogic tool the simulation conducted in the classroom and the authentic job-interview context were effective in achieving these three ends because the participants evaluated the two simulations (see Tables 5.14-5.45) as an important phase in learning the job-interview resources, allowing them to become more experienced in job-interview skills and
more of a professional business person (see Tables 5.6 vs 5.26, 5.8 vs 5.29, 5.10 vs 5.32, 5.12 vs 5.35, 5.14 vs 5.38).

There were drawbacks to role-playing that needed to be considered. Ginsburg (1978) pointed out some problems faced by role-playing. First, role-playing is a 'performance' before an audience. Second, the participants' behavior is not spontaneous. Third, the dialogue (or part of it) is scripted, based on the participants' perception of social desirability. Fourth, the interaction in role-playing is simple and normally not complex. These drawbacks were echoed by the participants. However, other moderators influenced the participants as the ESP teacher in the audience; answering difficult questions; being in a foreign professional environment; and being audiovisually recorded. These moderators echo Robson and Collier's (1991) analysis of simulations that the simulation design has to be linked to the ability of participants to deal effectively with issues in practice.

Nonetheless, the simulation is integral as a learning experience because it is both prepared and spontaneous (Thill & Bovee 2005; Lundelius & Poon 1997). The spontaneity of the in-class simulation was the verbal, nonverbal, and articulative resource which were not scripted. Experiences that were faced by two of the participants will be discussed below. For example, Michel and Khalil dealt with clear cases of impromptu action. First, in response to the job-interviewer's question, concerning his orientation period, Michel erroneously said that they would try each other out to which, the class hooted, whistled, and made comments. Having made such a remark, Michel had to deal with its consequences which was a learning experience in two senses. He coped with it by addressing it in front of an audience [the ESP class, his teacher, and the audiovisual recorder] who were observing the class simulation. As a result, he learnt how to correct inappropriate responses in the first simulation. Second, Khalil also behaved inappropriately in the class simulation. He was aware that he should maintain formal distance from the interviewer. However, nearly halfway through the simulation, Khalil seemed to ignore the protocol maintained in formal interviews. He sat close to his interviewer. After the simulation, Khalil acknowledged that he had not maintained formal distance. Again, his indiscretion was mentioned in the group interview where Khalil tried to explain his behavior. As a result, it seems that Khalil monitored his proxemics in the job-interview.
Thus, I posit as Robbins (2002/1988), Lundelius and Poon (1997), and Hutchinson (1995) did that being part of simulations injected interest and novelty in learning, a change in the student-teacher relationship, practical decision-making, role awareness, communication, and “a concrete approach” to their school work and the real world. Even though there was a measure of control exercised, the teacher and/or the audiovisual recorder were in the context, nonetheless, the participants, as Michel, asserted that they were always themselves. Being part of a simulation, in class or out of class, in a constructive relatively secure environment, was found to be educational.

To conclude, simulating the job-interview in English was part of the situated training process, the intervention curriculum. It meant learning and practicing rather than memorizing. Rote learning was the standard Lebanese learning structure, and the Lebanese student was comfortable memorizing (Rogers 2001; Diab 2001) (see further chapter one). The simulation which was integrated into the intervention curriculum meant learning with others which was a far better cognitive and psychological structure according to Johnson and Johnson (2003). It was found that working with others was positively perceived. The findings also reflect that having worked with “authentic purpose-related material,” (Carter 1983 cited in Gatehouse 2003/2001, p. 1), the participants seemed to acquire self-direction and professionalism in the simulation conducted in the authentic job-interview context. The structural difference in the ESP language-learning classroom may have led to greater receptivity and to acquiring professional job-interview skills in the “small culture” (Holliday 1999).

6.5.3 Self-Assessment and Peer-Feedback

The third learning tool to be evaluated is the impact of the audiovisual recorder. As noted earlier, the five participants were audiovisually recorded in the simulations. The audiovisual recording was used in three main ways.

- First, as a means to gather data.
- Second, as a motivator to keep participants focused on their task
- Third, as a means for self-assessment and peer-feedback

In general, some participants were motivated about being recorded whereas others were uncomfortable with it, yet they accepted it as a data gathering (Pink 2004) and/or instructional tool (Sheridan 2004/1993, p. 1; Masters & Brinton 1998). It provided immediacy for them, as participants, and me, as practitioner-researcher. The
images taken of the participants simulating the job-interview in class were represented immediately in the following lesson. At the group interview, as mentioned earlier (see Chapter three, pp. 62-63) (see Chapter five, Tables 5.16-5.25, pp. 100-106) the verbal, nonverbal, and articulative resources used by the participants were pointed to and their interrelationship—"their inter-organization" (Moerman 1990 cited in Streeck & Knapp 1992)—evaluated as appropriate or inappropriate. The impact of being audio-visually recorded produced self-assessment and peer-feedback. This seems to have been perceived a positive influence.

It seems that being recorded motivated the participants to improve their performance. First, learning ESP skills and techniques from self-assessment and peer-feedback of ones audio-visually recorded performance was perceived as innovative and challenging (see Tables 5.41–5.45, pp. 119-122). Second as Sheridan (2004/1993, p. 5) mentioned, everyone wants to look good especially on screen. This is reflected in many ways, most tangibly in dress code, as was the case with Josiane, Khalil, and Tony. At the first simulation they dressed casually whereas at the second they wore suits. Since they were being recorded, self-monitoring was perceived as very important, that is because the audience of a recorded simulation as Pink (2004) noted had the opportunity to observe the participants performance at length and focus on any communicative resource. As a result, self-assessment and peer-feedback may have created a medium that motivated the participants to be careful about their performance at all times. Third, as Kaspar (2000) indicated, being recorded led to enriched learning. Tony felt that after he had observed his nonverbal behavior in the simulation, he better understood his own performance and the role of the three communicative resources. He realized that there were other resources that he needed to monitor in order to be professional. Fourth, engaging in class in self assessment and listening to peer-feedback were important pedagogical experiences. For instance, Rani maintained that even though the audiovisual recorder had negatively influenced his behavior in the simulation and job-interview, self-assessment and peer-feedback had helped him improve his own performance and become aware of others performance, particularly the nonverbal, which have been estimated to constitute more than 93% of interpersonal interaction (Mehrabian 1972). Gestures, facial expressions, posture, dress-code, and the context are as eloquent and as influenced by culture as what is communicated orally according to Chaney and Martin (2004).
Through the class observation of the taped interview, the participants were able to observe, learn, and make needed changes. Their interest was raised in learning about job-interviews especially when the participants experienced what it is like to be audio-visually recorded in a simulation of the job-interview phase of their work-life. The moving pictures and sound represent concepts more realistically and more comprehensively than any other teaching medium according to Kasper (2000), Fox (2000) and Shaftel and Shaftel (1982). The participants commented on how important and realistic the recorded simulations and follow-up sessions were (see Tables 5.41-5.45, pp. 119-122). The participants seemed to be positive about using such a medium. As Nunan (2001, p. 2; 1988) pointed out, classrooms are necessary but not sufficient as pedagogical and rehearsal environments. Learning also takes place in the world outside the schoolroom (Gee 1999). The audio and audiovisual recording of their experiences helped the participant learn; that is, particularly in the authentic job-interview contexts which Josiane defined as everything being “like real.” The recordings were a link from the unreality of language as a structured and well-organized system, easily assimilated, to the reality of using communicative resources in pairwork in a simulated job-interview. They were also a link from being audio-visually recorded in a simulation of the job-interview conducted in class to that in the authentic job-interview context.

The final asset to using self-assessment and peer-feedback is that the audiovisual recording helped contrast participants’ behavior cross-culturally. Robbins & Coulter (2005), Holliday (1999), and Dudley-Evans & St. John (1998) discussed the impact of the audiovisual recorder in terms of cross-cultural comparison. Even though video-recording may be perceived as a threat by students who are native speakers of English, video-recording the simulation of the job-interview may be perceived as an even greater threat by ESL/ESP students (Gołębiewska 1990). For the participants, perceived weaknesses in ESL may be seen as greater than they actually are, which may have led participants to be nervous as Michel’s or Tony’s company interviewers claimed the participants were. Moreover, the impact of audiovisual recording reveals other cultural differences in terms of using nonverbal and articulative resources (Bovee & Thill 2005; Chaney & Martin 2004; Hall 1998; Hofstede 1997). In Lebanon, social and physical distance is generally maintained between gender (see Chapter one). Observing Khalil breach that distance during the simulation in class caused only a minor reaction in the ESP class. However, when it
was later observed on video such a breach became recognized as socially wrong. This may have motivated Khalil to be careful about proxemics in the job-interview (see Table 5.35, p. 115).

Observing and understanding differences in cross-cultural behavior is important, in a global sense, for Lebanese ESP students learning about and practicing the job-interview in English. The participants perceived English as a transactional language, an international communicative language (McKay 2000; see further chapter two). The ESP class and the participants, in particular, wanted to know how they fit into the global context; they wanted to hear about my experiences as an American job-applicant in Lebanon and whether my job-interview experiences were similar to or different from theirs. For example, the participants asked, “Miss, tell me, what do you think; ... honestly Miss why not? Really Miss?” As such, each participant was not only concerned with how well s/he did but also with how well s/he did compared to the other participants and other applicants in the local and international interview context.

In general, it seems that most of the participants accommodated and used the audiovisual recorder as a “mirror” (Sheridan 2004/1993, p. 5) to spotlight both strong points and areas for improvement. It served as a data gathering tool, a motivator, and a tool through which to observe oneself, other participants, and cross-cultural applicants. To work efficiently and effectively, pre-planning the video-recording session is essential whereby the participants’ psychology and the use of technology is balanced (Pink 2004). Moreover, in addition to the practitioners planned objectives, successful videotaping simulations requires creating an environment where trainees can express or experiment with natural uninhibited behaviors before, during, and after (Sheridon 2004, p. 1). Therefore, the practitioner-researcher in planning these sessions as a language learning environment and as part of curriculum development will focus on the needs analysis stage in curriculum development, particularly learner-background and learner-needs.

To conclude, the ESP learning session and the three pedagogic tool were perceived to play a positive role in the intervention curriculum. Despite the relatively positive outcome which was professional change in the participants' job-interview performance, two key issues need to be addressed: First, way(s) to facilitate interpersonal communication and learning, laterally between peers and vertically between the participants and myself, the practitioner-researcher, and, second, way(s)
to enhance the participants’ fluency and appropriacy of content in ESL in the job-interview setting. These issues are considered in the final chapter when I propose amending the intervention curriculum.

6.6 Conclusion

This chapter analyzes and discusses the responses to the five research questions and compares them to the literature reviewed to evaluate whether, participating in the intervention curriculum improved the professionalism of the five participants’ performance in the authentic job-interview context. The task-based intervention curriculum which represented a particular realization of communicative language teaching in an ESP learning context, in terms of enhanced language data, depth, and scope of information and multiple opportunities to practice, was found to be relatively effective. Through the four stages, the importance of using informal cooperative learning, classroom simulation, group interviews, and simulations in the authentic job-interview context were found to be key learning structures where participants enhanced their job-interview performance.

It was found that in stage one of the intervention process, the participants gained access to an enriched language learning session, through what Johnson and Johnson (2003) term informal cooperative behavior. It was found that in the simulations, the participants [and volunteers] were dependent on a script which included many of the types of questions typically posed in an employment interview. Such dependence was found to be the case in other studies on simulations and role-playing of job-interviews (Lundelius & Poon 1998; McGovern, Jones, & Morris 1979 in Rasmussen 1984, p. 551; Wheeler 1979; Prazak 1969) as the value of a script is recommended in ESP textbooks (Bailey 2005). In most cases, the participants’ responses reflected the market and company research they had conducted, characteristics of what Latham & Millman (2002) termed “good job-applicants”. Asking questions which is positively appraised and reflects a job-applicant’s long term commitment according to Leanne (2004), Kador (2002), and Burgess (1989) was reflected. In general, three of the participants, articulated well and spoke fluently. Such articulative resources are positively perceived by employment decision-makers according to Ober (2001), Ilkka (1993), and Hollandsworth et al. (1979). Few of the participants knew how to use their nonverbal resource intentionally, a skill which can be learnt and is perceived positively in job-interview settings according to Stevens
and Kristof (1995) and Kacmar, Delery, and Ferris (1992). It seems that the participants became aware of the nonverbal and articulative resources in the group interview and worked on improving them to make “the right impression” in stage four since the right impression according to Stevens (1998) and Stevens and Kristof (1995) is relevant. The five participants’ job-interview performance changed and became more professional as a result of taking part in the intervention curriculum. The participants held that their performance in the job-interview was successful since as Latham and Millman (2002) and Stewart and Cash (2000) asserted, the central factors in a job-interview are factors the participants had gained: awareness and understanding of the job-interview context and content.

To conclude, the four stages of the intervention curriculum were perceived by the practitioner-researcher as effective because each of the five participants, through the usage of the three pedagogic tools was able to improve his/her job-interview performance.

As an ESP language-learning process, shortcomings were perceived. In the concluding chapter, their implications are discussed and recommendation for future action considered.
Chapter Seven: Conclusion and Recommendations

7.1 Introduction

Chapter seven serves as the concluding chapter in which six key issues will be discussed. First, the summary of the responses to the five research questions is presented. Second, the emergence of original knowledge understood in terms of the case study’s situated context is discussed. Third, the limitations of the study are explained in terms of the participants’ and the case study’s overall purpose. The fourth section proposes two interrelated steps to improve the research study whereas the fifth section recommends future research. In the concluding section of the chapter, I will reflect on the professional journey I underwent as the practitioner-researcher.

7.2 Summary

Given that the research objectives of this study are twofold—first to evaluate whether the five participants’ job-interview performance was gradually enhanced across the four-stage innovative intervention process, and second, whether the participants and I evaluated the process as an effective ESP course design—the chapter begins with a summary of the responses to the five research questions (see also chapter five, pp. 132-156).

Research Question One: Where in the four-stage intervention curriculum have the participants been able to gain job-interview skills?

- The participants learnt across the four stages of the ESP intervention curriculum design—in the ESP lecture and in pair-work, during the audio-visually recorded classroom simulation, the audio-recorded group interview, and the audio-visually recorded simulation held in authentic job-interview context.

Research Question Two: How in the four-stage intervention curriculum have the participants gained job-interview skills?

- The participants gained the job-interview skills because they were actively involved in learning alone and with others in different structures and activities: in role-playing, in being audio-visually recorded as they simulated in the classroom.
context, in being audio recorder as they debated and critiqued, and in being audio-visually recorded as they were interviewed in an authentic job interview context. It seems that their intention to be successful was self-monitored (see Table 5.2a). As previous research suggests, individuals who are high self-monitors are sensitive to the appropriacy of the image they are conveying and act like social chameleons by changing their attitude, perspective, and behavior to suit different social situations (Turnley & Bolino 2001, pp. 351-352) in the four different stages of the pedagogy. Fisk and Taylor (1984 cited in Kacmar et al. 1992) asserted that individuals attempt to conform to situational norms concerning their behavior in social settings, such as the job-interview.

**Research Question Three:** Has the students' interview performance changed from the simulation in the classroom to the simulation in the authentic job-interview context? Has it become more professional?

- In general, the five participants were able to improve the professionalism of the job-interview performance in terms of some or all of the following resources: verbal, nonverbal, and/or the articulative (see further Chapter four, p. 82).

Professional change was reflected in the five participants' self-presentation by their use of the interview resources as defined by Hollandsworth et al. (1979, pp.361-362). As Tedeschi & Melburg (1984, p. 31 cited in Stevens & Kristof 1995) asserted, job-applicant "engage in self-presentation in order to manage the identities that others assign to them." Some of the participants' effective use of etiquette, dress code, and decorum may have led to a positive appraisal in the job-interview (see Table 5.26; 5.29; 5.32; 5.35; and 5.38), yet such an opportunity to influence the interviewer's decision to hire was not well used by all participants in the classroom (see Table 5.6; 5.9; 5.12; 5.15; and 5.17). Another factor in terms of professional change is that the participants seem to have selected to use verbal strategies to favorably structure the interviewer's perception. In the job-interview conducted in the simulation conducted in the authentic job-interview context, the verbal content was more appropriate than it had been in the classroom simulation. According to Gilmore and Ferris (1989b), as tends to be the case in most interviews, the applicants specifically select to use the verbal resource to structure the interviewer's perception and impression formed of them in order to lead to favorable outcomes. Godfrey et al. (1986 cited in Kacmar et
al. 1992, p. 1251) observed that applicants try to appear to “fit” the needs of the other by using ‘self-direction’ (Carver 1983 cited in Gatehouse 2001/2003). The participants seem to have been dynamically trying to fit the job, using the three interview resources. As communication is an embodied concept, they supported the verbal and nonverbal aspects which “...are used together and interorganized” (Moerman 1990, p. 9 cited in Streeck & Knapp 1992, p. 5). Moreover, the participants seem to have improved their articulative resource (see Table 5.2; 5.29; 5.32; 5.35; 5.37), which according to Parsons and Liden (1984 cited in Ilkka 1993, p. 16), was one of the most significantly influential variables on rating qualifications. Most of the participants spoke fluently and loudly at the interview.

**Research Question Four:** Do the participants evaluate the intervention curriculum as an effective one in their ESP course?

- In general, the participants evaluated the intervention curriculum as effective because their ability to address the job-interview developed in terms of context and content.

The response to the fourth research question concerns the participants’ evaluation of the intervention curriculum as a four-stage job-interview learning process in their ESP class. The participants asserted that they were more aware of and better understood the interview context and content because they had taken part in the intervention curriculum. This included the image management tactics (Godfrey et al. 1986 cited in Stevens & Kristof 1995) used by applicants which are multiple and are rated differently by different interviewers. It also included awareness of the company-interviewer’s subjective framework that plays a bigger role in unstructured interviews which, according to Graves and Karren (1996 cited in Hough & Oswald 2000, p. 641), most organizations still prefer to use by a wide margin. It seems that the five participants perceived that they had learnt how to behave appropriately.

**Research Question Five:** Does the practitioner-researcher evaluate the intervention curriculum as an effective one in the ESP course?

- In general, I evaluated the intervention curriculum, which integrated informal cooperative behavior, simulations, and the use of self-assessment and peer-feedback, as effective in that it led to a more professional job-interview by the participants in terms of one or more of the interview resource.
The participants engaged in informal cooperative learning in pair-work, simulations, and/or self- and peer-evaluations of the audio-visually recorded simulations. Johnson and Johnson (2003), Ghaith (2003a; 2003b), and Smith (1996) asserted that cooperative behavior enhanced learning, and it seems to have led to positive results. The participants seem to have mastered the interview resources by actively engaging in simulations. Such behavior reflected learning by doing purported by Alon (2004), Marshall (2003/2002), Nunan (2001) and Solomon (1993), who asserted that since it complemented traditional learning by enhancing learning outcomes and/or introducing technology into the learning context, it prepared students for professional interviews, managerial positions, and the global environment. Such an approach has been used successfully by other job-applicants in mock interviews to reflect professionalism (Baron 1989; Rasmussen 1984) though the studies conducted have tended to evaluate one interview resource versus another according to Stevens & Kristof (1995) and Kacmar et al. (1992, p. 1255). Moreover, the studies were done in unexamined job-interview contexts, which Latham and Millman (1998) held as a limitation. This study overcame these limitations, and from the research conducted, original knowledge emerged.

7.3 Emergence of Original Knowledge

It may be posited that the integrated use of informal cooperative behavior, simulations, and the impact of the audiovisual recordings as teaching tools to learning professional conduct in the job-interview led to provisions of original knowledge, within the literature of the ESP field in Lebanon and elsewhere.

ESP participants were able to make relatively efficient and effective use of informal cooperative behavior and the ESP classroom simulations despite the influence of three moderators: role-playing, ESL, and the audience. The simulations served as a practicum (Frodden, Picon, & Usma 2001; Marshal 2003/2002; Turteldove 2003/1993) through which participants had the opportunity to gain awareness and understanding of the job-interview context and content as the job-applicant, interacting using the three communicative resources. The impact of the audiovisual recorder as peer feedback and self-assessment of the participants'
performance served as a learning process (Pink 2004; Fox 2000; Masters & Brinton 1998).

Such an opportunity to simulate a job-interview and have it audio-visually recorded to be later observed and discussed by the ESP class, teacher, and the five participants themselves is unique in the Lebanese ESP learning context. As Mangelsdorf (1992 cited in Lundelius & Poon 1997, p. 9) asserted, such a structured opportunity tends to be wisely used by the participants as it and the audio-visually recorded job-interviews in fact were.

7.4 Limitations

Three main issues will be discussed in the critique of the research design to ascertain whether it facilitated evaluating the intervention curriculum. The first deals with how congruent the findings are with reality. The second deals with the dependability or consistency of the findings. The third deals with generalizing the findings which may be perceived in terms of a working hypothesis (Cronbach 1975) and a concrete universality (Erickson 1986).

In order to critique the research design, I will start with the raw data I gathered. This was the participants’ performance across the process, where data do not speak for themselves. There is always an interpreter or a translator (Ratcliffe 1983, p. 149) in such research. Another related assumption underlying the qualitative research I conducted is that reality is holistic, multidimensional, and ever-changing. My understanding of reality or truth is that reality can not be discovered, observed, and measured as a single fixed objective phenomenon. It follows that there may be many versions of reality in the simulations conducted in the classroom and the authentic job-interview context: the five participants’, the ESP class’s, the company-interviewers’, and mine, the practitioner-researcher’s. As a research design, the case study appears to have facilitated evaluating the intervention to a problem area in a bounded reality, my ESP classroom. The discussion below illustrates this.

7.4.1 Congruency

According to Lincoln and Guba (1985, p. 295), reality is “a multiple set of mental constructions—made by humans; their constructions are on their mind, and
they are in the main accessible to the humans who made them." It holds that people observe their own constructions of reality. With this in mind, I chose a qualitative tool that would allow me to intervene in what I perceived was non-effective ESP teaching. I developed an intervention curriculum, implemented, and evaluated it. To enhance and confirm the congruency of the findings I used as 'investigators' multiple sources of data (Denzin 1978 quoted in Miller 1998, p. 25). By using triangulation, multiple methods and sources interpreted the same event.

To elaborate, in terms of the participants' classroom simulation of the job-interview, (1) the class [this included the five volunteers], (2) the participants, (3) and I evaluated the participants' performance. In general, the overall appraisal was congruent. For example, the class commented that Michel maintained eye contact and had nodded his head for emphasis (see Table 4.16). Michel, himself, felt that he had used good nonverbal communication (see Table 4.17). My evaluations were more specific. I referred to Michel's appropriacy of content noting that he used technical jargon and was familiar with the company's history and its place in the market. I also noted that his appearance was appropriate—he wore a suit and tie; At times, his composure, eye contact, posture, proxemics, and paralinguistics seemed to reflect confidence and, at others, overconfidence (see Table 4.16). Such an overlap of comments reflects congruency.

Information on the participants' simulation conducted in an authentic job-interview context was also gathered from more than one source. The company-interviewer (see Table 4.28; 4.31; 4.34; 4.37; and 4.40), the participants themselves (see Table 4.41-4.46), and I (see Table 4.26; 4.29; 4.32; 4.35; 4.38) evaluated the performance. For instance, the company-interviewer's evaluation of Josiane's conduct was that she showed awareness of the job she had applied for and willingness to work, but she was not yet professional (see Table 4.31). In commenting on her performance, Josiane said that she made an effort to give the impression that she was an adult, but she was under more pressure this time (see Table 4.42). My evaluation indicated that she made an effort to project a more professional image in terms of dress code, the cognitive level of her discourse, and the nonverbal and articulative resources (see Table 2.29). Therefore, the overlap of the evaluation of the participants' performance in the simulation and job-interview by the ESP class, the company-interviewer, the participants themselves, and I, as practitioner-researcher, seem to indicate that the results were congruent.
7.4.2 Concurrence

The second key question with respect to the research design is "whether the findings are consistent with the data collected" (Lincoln & Guba 1985, p. 288). Dependability and consistency of the findings is about concurrence. Given the data collected in this study, the findings make sense. Three techniques were used to clarify this study's concurrence. These techniques include the practitioner-researcher's position, an audit trail, and triangulation. First, as a practitioner-researcher, I have explained the assumption and theory behind the study (see Chapter one and two). I have also explained how the participants were selected, what their background was, and what the nature of the social context was in which I collected the data (see Chapter four). As Day (1993, p. 251 in Merriam 1998, p. 207) stated, "... replicate [the] account..." Second, using rich thick description, I have explained how I arrived at my findings. I provided a detailed account of the six stages of the process and of the actions of the participants, the volunteers, the class, the company-interviewer and myself as practitioner-researcher (see Chapter three). Thereby, I provided an audit trail. Third, I have also used multiple methods of data collection and multiple-sources (see Chapter four). Data was collected through participant observation, audiovisual recording, and audio recording; Data was also collected from the participants, the ESP class, the company-interviewers, and myself, the practitioner-researcher. Below, I will clarify how the simulation and the job-interview were measured in a dependable and consistent manner.

In the simulation conducted in the ESP classroom context, I gathered data by audio-visually recording the five participants conduct throughout the interview. In addition, the participants were observed by their classmates. With respect to the first simulation, Tony said that he had performed poorly. In the group interview, members of the class and I agreed with him in terms of his nonverbal resource. With respect to the second simulation, I gathered data on the participants by audio-visually recording the job-interview and by conducting audio-recorded research interviews, immediately after the job-interview, with the company-interviewer (see Table 4.28; 4.31; 4.34; 4.37; 4.40) and the participants (see Table 4.41-4.46). For instance, Michel acknowledged that he had been quite nervous and that his answers were not concise in the job-interview. The company-interviewer confirmed this when he said that Michel was hesitant.
Therefore, based on the evaluation of the data collected, the findings make sense. What the participants, volunteers, or the company-interviewer stated had occurred in the simulation/job-interview was about an event that could be heard and/or seen on the audio or audio-visually recorded job-interview. As a result, the investigator's position, the audit trail, and triangulation reflect that the data seems to be consistent and dependable.

7.4.3 Generalizability

The third important issue with respect to critiquing the research design selected is the generalizability of the data. It seems that an appropriate understanding of the generalizability of the results drawn from this study is what Erickson (1986) denotes as concrete universal rather than a working hypothesis (Cronbach 1975). Cronbach (1975) posits that it is important to fully understand the context in terms of time and place. He said:

Instead of making generalization the ruling consideration in our research, I suggest that we reverse our priorities. An observer collecting data in one particular situation is in a position to appraise a practice or proposition in that setting, observing effects in context. In trying to describe and account for what happened, he will give attention to whatever variables were controlled but he will give equally careful attention to uncontrolled conditions, to personal characteristics, and to events that occurred during treatment and measurement. As he goes from situation to situation, his first task is to describe and interpret the effect anew in each locale, perhaps taking into account factors unique to that locale or series of events....Generalization comes later.... (Cronbach 1975, pp. 124-125)

The research conducted takes account of local conditions and may offer ESP university lecturers guidance in making choices concerning instruction on job-interview skills to ESP student in Lebanon. The study “provides perspective rather than truth” (Patton 1990, p. 491). It is a case study of a local pedagogic process from which context-bound extrapolations can be drawn. The study can not lead to the generation and verification of universal theories. Donmoyer (1990 in Marriam 1998, p. 209) posits that the working hypothesis does not include the “tacit affective visceral
dimensions" of knowledge and fails to communicate the sense or meaning the researcher has made of the phenomena. However, this study with its rich thick description of the case study (see Chapter five) develops a working hypothesis that is not short of meaning. As such, it is a working hypothesis infused with meaning.

The study may best be held as generalizable in terms of Erickson’s (1986) concrete universal “... by studying a specific case in great detail and then comparing it with the nested case studies of the other participants in equally great detail” (Erickson 1986, p. 130). The assumption behind the concrete universal drawn is that the general lies in the particular. The concrete universal drawn is arrived at by repeated observation and reflection of the audio-visually recorded interviews and transcripts. Two concrete universals can be arrived at with respect to the participants’ simulated job-interview conduct.

- In the first simulation, the participants seem to have developed and relied on scripts because they expected that a well-written script would lead to a professional job-interview performance.
- In the second simulation, the five participants perceived that the sole objective of their ‘training’ was to improve their job-interview resources which they addressed by greater awareness, understanding, and use of the job-interview context and content.

Further research is needed to develop and implement an appropriate intervention curriculum to improve job-interview performance.

7.5 Recommendations for Practice

I advance two recommendations for future practice. In the first, I will discuss the steps I will take to amend the existing intervention curriculum. In the second, I will discuss how I intend to change the nature of the research design.

7.5.1 Structural Changes

I propose that the course design be amended in order to enhance the learning process. It was designed to develop, through training, the professionalism of the ESP participants’ job-interview conduct (see Chapter three, pp. 57-64). Since the course design is a process approach, it is interactive (Kerr 1968) and cyclical (Wheeler 1967)
whereby feedback from the participants and the practitioner-researcher constructively builds on the effectiveness of the ESP course design (see Chapter four, p. 83). Based on the evaluation of the innovative intervention course design, I recommend that three changes be made (see Chapter six, p. 157).

The three changes include additional guidelines. First, as the practitioner-researcher, I would explain, at length, the purpose of study. As Stahl (1994) emphasized, it is important to clarify the idea to the participants. Moreover, I would clarify how important it was that they are transparent in their behavior; that is that they recount what they did and how they did it exactly as it occurred. I would focus on the role of communication laterally with the other participants and their classmates, particularly those with whom they simulate the interview (see Table 5.16 – 5.25). I would argue for informal cooperative learning pointing to how beneficial it is in terms of increasing the effectiveness and efficiency of learning, personally and mutually (Johnson & Johnson 2003; Ghaith 2003b/2003a; Smith 1996). I would also refer to communication which is upward (Light 1992) pointing first to the advantages to be gained from frequent informal communication with one’s teacher, especially with respect to learning how to perform professionally in a job-interview (see Table 5.41- 5.46) and second to its impact on the cooperative nature of learning.

Second, I would make structural changes. Burns (1997), Kemmis and McTaggart (1988), Nunan (2001; 1988), and Stenhouse (1975) spoke of the need for structural adaptations to changes in curricula. Structural change would include, first, randomly selecting rather than asking for volunteers, and, second, providing the participants with pre-arranged job-interviews. This may lead to a different sample of participants and thus, probably, a different performance. Such a change also means that, in practice, whoever was selected as a participant need not worry about searching for a job in the market, explaining the case study to the company-interviewer, and then persuading him/her to allow the interview to be audio-visually recorded. This structural change may lead to different contexts and evaluation of the participants.

Third, a contingent structure would also be available to provide those participants who were not fluent in ESL with additional course work to help them improve their communicative skills.

These proposed changes might enhance the effectiveness of the ESP intervention curriculum.
7.5.2 Collaborative Research

Another proposal would be to carry out collaborative research. As noted earlier, I developed the intervention curriculum based on informal needs analysis, course objectives, material research and development, learning modes and environments, and task activities. It was the result of serious commitment to intervene to improve the job-interview course design for students of the Faculty of Business Administration and Economics taking English for Business Purposes. As there may be other practitioner-researchers who may have perceived similar needs and are equally concerned, working together cooperatively at the same English medium university may lead to a more effective intervention curriculum to improve students’ job-interview performance.

I argue for a collaborative approach to action research rather than a single case study. Burns (1997), Whitehead (1993), McNiff (1993), and Nunan (1992), among others, similarly argue for a concomitant approach. "Collaborative and institutionally engendered models of action research ... can be harnessed as a powerful means of understanding the nature of curriculum change as well as supporting its implementation" (Burns 1997, p. 108). Such an approach may help to understand the local context and serve the interests of the students better than a single case study.

7.6 Possibilities for Future Research

Based on the conceptual framework and analysis of this study, a possibility for research might be to compare the present findings with that undertaken in another developing country outside the Arab world. Second language speakers of English from non-Arab countries (see Chapter two, pp. 28-29) may also need 'training' to improve their job-interview communicative resources and the intervention curriculum would serve this purpose. Based on the needs analysis conducted in that context, course objectives, materials selection and development, and task activities would be developed to meet that sample's small and large culture. The same research objectives and questions used in this study would hold. The research objectives might also focus on (1) whether typical interview questions that are valid in one country are valid elsewhere, and (2) whether educating/training job-applicants for job-interviews
in their own situated context where certain constructs hold prepares them for both the local and international market (see Chapter two, pp. 48-49).

7.7 The Practitioner-Researcher’s Journey

I will conclude the study with my journey as a practitioner-researcher. First, I will explain how my journey in this study reflects my perception of being a teacher. Second, I will discuss how pedagogic concepts were built and rebuilt as I worked with the participants as the practitioner. Third, I will reflect on my experience as the researcher in the case study.

For me, being a teacher means being an effective teacher.

A necessary condition of effectiveness as a teacher is regular reflection upon the three elements that make up teaching practice: the emotional and intellectual selves of the teacher and students; the conditions that affect classrooms, schools, and students’ learning and achievements; the experience of teaching and learning (Day 1999, p. 217).

I became a practitioner-researcher because as an ESP lecturer, I perceived a problem area. I decided that I needed to find a solution. David Kolb posited that it is after we have experienced an event that we reflect, reconceptualize, and act on it; this process is later renewed. In terms of teaching the ESP job-interview skills, this was my case. I identified teaching job-interview skills as a problem area because as an ESP lecturer I perceived that the students were not able to perform as well as I expected they might. Given this situation, I reflected, conducted research (Akhras 2000c; 2000b; 2000a) using needs analysis (Dudley-Evans & St. John 1998), built the intervention curriculum using Richards (2001) and Nunan’s (2001;1988) framework, and conducted research to evaluate whether the intervention curriculum met its objective.

According to Day (1999, p 216), reflexivity is a “conscious, systematic, collection, and evaluation of material and the relationship between them which affects and results from practice.” However, fundamental to my definition of reflexivity is that reflexivity is about maintaining both my intellectual and emotional health over the span of my career when I seek to provide high quality learning opportunities for my students and when I serve the interests of society. Through this case study, I was
able to fulfill some of my personal expectations and retain the capacity and willingness to intervene in the established curriculum to promote knowledge, skills, achievement outcomes and the love of learning. This study was about teaching, what Woods' (1994, p 402 cited in Day 1999, p 223) termed teacher's substantive self, because I have a strong sense of professionalism, know how I want to teach, and am not going to be dictated to.

As a practitioner, I distanced myself from my everyday practice and opened myself to the influences of others who surrounded me as I engaged in what Schön (1983) termed descriptive reflection-on-action. My intention was what is seen as the best possible practice for the Lebanese ESP students. As such, I took this research as an opportunity to grow since "the essence of learning is the ability to manage change by changing yourself" (de Gues 1997, p.20).

Through this research, I gained a deeper level of awareness of the Lebanese educational and cultural climate. First, my understanding of the National Baccalaureate system was enriched, particularly in terms of the French Baccalaureate curriculum. This has led to (1) a more objective appraisal of my students' educational background, particularly their command of English as a second language and (2) a more appropriate assessment of their learning potential. Second, I became aware of the impact of the Lebanese schools' organizational culture and the small culture inside the teaching/learning context. This had led to (1) making myself aware of the communicative networks students develop in the classroom with their peers and with their teachers (myself and my colleagues) and (2) paying more attention to my students and my own expectations from the courses that I teach.

As a researcher, I learnt much about the participants' job-interview performance since I conducted the research and played the role of lecturer, facilitator, promoter, participant observer, audio/audiovisual recorder, interviewer, and transcriber. I gathered, analyzed, and interpreted multiple voices (Holstein & Gubrium 2004), ordinary voices (Tierney & Dilley 2002) of those who played part in the learning process where each dynamically used multiple communicative resources to construct situational appropriate behavior. Given my knowledge of these situated identities, developing the standard and interactive transcriptions was a time-consuming and challenging event. I included details pertinent to the setting and other aspects related to the participants' context and their relationship to the interviewer which I felt might have a bearing on how statements are to be interpreted.
Nonetheless, as Kvale (1988 cited in Poland 2002, p. 644) posits, transcriptions are, at best, partial accounts of the encounter and the participants.

The evaluative case study I conducted was a learning process. The findings obtained were particularistic, holistic, descriptive, and heuristic. Moreover, the knowledge was concrete, contextual, developed by reader interpretation, and based on reference populations. The assertions made rest on personal judgment; however, the appraisal of evidence is objective as the tenets of acceptable practice are those perceived by the research community. It holds that as a practitioner-researcher my "personal judgment" was "neither objective nor subjective" (Wilson 1977 in Sturman 1997, p. 64). The case study methodology I used can achieve its own form of precision whereby the evidence (see Chapter five) is open to scrutiny. The study conveys credibility because it is subjected to standards of "trustworthiness" (Guba & Lincoln 1985)—congruent, dependable, consistent and generalizable (see Chapter six).

Conducting this study increased my awareness of ESP theory and practice and led to further reflexivity (Day 1999; Lincoln 1995) in my practice. The knowledge that this evaluative case study provides is knowledge other ESP practitioners in Lebanon, I presume, will find relevant. They can interpret it to form their own generalizations to apply to their ESP classes. Other practitioner-researchers or readers may choose to relate it to their own situation or to a different population base.
Appendix A
Hand-Out One: The Job-Related Interview

CONTEXT

• Human Resource Manager's office
  o Desk/Chair
  o Proximity
• Interview Questions
  o Neutral/Leading
  o Open/Closed
• Interview Schedule
  o Beginning
  o Development
  o Conclusion

INTERVIEWER

• Use of language
  o Question mode
  o Response mode
• Use of body language
  o Attentive
  o Perceptive

JOB APPLICANT

• Use of language
  o Question mode
  o Response mode
• Use of body language
  o Attentive
  o Perceptive
Appendix B

Hand-Out Two: Response to the Simulation in the Classroom Context

BODY LANGUAGE

- Face
  - Eyes
  - Mouth
  - ........................................
  - ........................................
- Gestures
  - Hands
  - Arms
  - ........................................
  - ........................................
- Posture
  - Back
  - ........................................
  - ........................................
- Attentive
  - Listening/Focused
  - ........................................
  - ........................................

LANGUAGE

- Response Mode
  - Clear/Articulates words
  - Brief/Concise
  - Knowledgeable
  - Comprehensive/All angles
- Question Mode
  - Job oriented/Self-oriented
  - Open-ended/Close-ended
  - Simple/Complex
All in all, if you were to evaluate the job applicant's performance, where would you place him/her?

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