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**THE PROFESSIONALIZATION OF A TEACHER ASSOCIATION
WITH SPECIAL REFERENCE TO ENGLISH FOR SPECIFIC PURPOSES
(ESP) IN VENEZUELA**

Gilberto Berríos-Escalante

A Thesis
in
The Centre for Teaching
English as a Second Language
(Applied Linguistics Program)

Presented in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements
for the Degree of Master of Arts at
Concordia University
Montreal, Quebec, Canada

November 1993

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ABSTRACT

THE PROFESSIONALIZATION OF A TEACHER ASSOCIATION WITH SPECIAL REFERENCE TO ENGLISH FOR SPECIFIC PURPOSES (ESP) IN VENEZUELA

Gilberto Berríos-Escalante

This thesis proposes a conceptual and operational framework for the professionalization of the Venezuelan Association of Teachers of Foreign Languages for Specific Purposes (AVEPLEFE—'Asociación Venezolana de Profesores de Lenguas Extranjeras con Fines Específicos') in order to make it a more effective instrument for the professional development of ESP practitioners. A related purpose is to determine how the ESP profession can better serve the national development of Venezuela.

The research design chosen is qualitative and naturalistic, and relies on inductive analysis and archival research. Researcher introspection is also used since the author has been involved in the association since 1988. Semi-structured interviews and examination of formal and informal written documents contribute methodological triangulation.

The research design involved: (1) examining the local background of the problem and the status of ESP in the developing world; (2) analyzing theoretical works on the nature and functioning of professional associations and documentation from existing professional associations; (3) constructing an inventory of desirable characteristics of successful ESP professional associations; and (4) searching for models and techniques that would take AVEPLEFE from its current state to a state similar to that implied in the inventory.

As a result, the thesis proposes a *social intelligence system model* as a conceptual base for interpreting the applicability of different features from the inventory to the case of AVEPLEFE. The thesis then proposes a *project management approach* and a *project brief technique* as operational bases for the elaboration and subsequent implementation of a strategic plan for the professionalization of AVEPLEFE.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

CHAPTER 1—INTRODUCTION	1
1.1. Purpose of this thesis	1
1.2. Statement of the problem	2
1.3. Research design	4
1.4. Some basic terms	6
<i>Notes to Chapter 1</i>	9
CHAPTER 2—BACKGROUND TO THE PROBLEM AND REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE.....	10
2.1. A brief description of AVEPLEFE	10
2.1.1. AVEPLEFE's origins	10
2.1.2. AVEPLEFE's present purposes and goals	11
2.1.3. AVEPLEFE's present status and role	13
2.1.4. AVEPLEFE's potential in the development of Venezuela	14
2.2. ESP in Venezuela	15
2.2.1. The role of ESP in the development of the country	15
2.2.2. ESP in Venezuela: The current situation	19
2.2.3. The future of ESP in Venezuela	22
2.3. ESP in the developing world	25
2.3.1. The Middle East and North Africa	29
2.3.2. South East Asia	33
2.3.3. Latin America	35
2.3.4. Common features of ESP in developing countries	38
2.4. Conclusion to this chapter	44
<i>Notes to Chapter 2</i>	48

CHAPTER 3—SUCCESSFUL PROFESSIONAL ASSOCIATIONS: AN INVENTORY OF CHARACTERISTICS	49
3.1. Professional associations: Their nature and functioning	49
3.1.1. Professional associations share certain characteristics	51
3.1.2. Professional associations are information-based	52
3.1.3. Professional associations are likely to possess differences throughout the world	54
3.1.4. A professional association has its own organizational culture	54
3.1.5. A professional association has its own organizational shape	56
3.1.6. Professional associations must be managed	57
3.2. Some successful professional associations	61
3.2.1. ELT-related associations	62
<i>The Association of British Columbia Teachers of English as an Additional Language (B.C. TEAL)</i>	<i>62</i>
<i>British Association of Lecturers in English for Academic Purposes (BALEAP)</i>	<i>66</i>
<i>Société pour la promotion de l'enseignement de l'anglais (langue seconde) au Québec (SPEAQ).....</i>	<i>68</i>
<i>California Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages (CATESOL)</i>	<i>72</i>
3.2.2. Non-ELT-related associations	73
<i>Canadian Evaluation Society (CES)</i>	<i>73</i>
<i>Project Management Institute (PMI)</i>	<i>77</i>
<i>Canadian Society of Association Executives (CSAE).....</i>	<i>80</i>
3.3. An inventory of desirable ESP professional association characteristics	83
3.3.1. The mission: Matching ESP competencies with environmental needs	83

3.3.2. The strategies: Reaching out innovatively for people and funds	86
<i>The marketing plan</i>	86
<i>The fund development plan</i>	88
<i>The drive to innovate</i>	89
3.3.3. The development plan: Improving ESP practice and association work	91
<i>Technical improvement</i>	91
<i>Managerial improvement</i>	92
3.3.4. Performance: Measuring success	93
3.4. Conclusion to this chapter	93
<i>Notes to Chapter 3</i>	95
CHAPTER 4—PROFESSIONALIZING AVEPLEFE: A PROPOSAL	97
4.1. Some useful suggestions	98
4.2. An intelligence system model for AVEPLEFE	96
4.3. Planning a strategy for AVEPLEFE's future	103
4.3.1. A project management approach	108
<i>What is a project?</i>	108
<i>When is a project needed?</i>	109
<i>What is project management?</i>	110
4.3.2 The project brief	111
4.4. The project brief for writing AVEPLEFE's strategic plan	116
4.5. Chapter conclusion.....	120
<i>Notes to Chapter 4</i>	121
CHAPTER 5—CONCLUSIONS	122
REFERENCES	125

LIST OF TABLES AND FIGURES

Table 1. Index of <i>Language Training</i> topics by issue.....	23
Table 2. List of ESP-related publications in the <i>ELT Documents</i> series	40
Table 3. Similarities between lesson planning, curriculum development, and project management	111
Figure 1. The center-periphery paradigm	45
Figure 2. Organizational culture styles	55
Figure 3. A model for a national intelligence system	100
Figure 4. AVEPLEFE as a social intelligence system	102
Figure 5. Symptoms of AVEPLEFE's apparent ineffectiveness and projects to attack them	106

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

This chapter will present the purpose of the thesis, the statement of the problem, and some necessary background to the problem. The chapter will also describe the research approach designed to resolve the problem, define some terms of the discussion, present the author's working assumptions, list some of the limitations of this study, and establish the inherent scope of the same.

1.1. Purpose of this thesis

The main purpose of this thesis is to propose a framework for the improvement of the Venezuelan Association of Teachers of Foreign Languages for Specific Purposes (AVEPLEFE: 'Asociación Venezolana de Profesores de Lenguas Extranjeras con Fines Específicos') in order to make it a more effective instrument for ESP (English for specific purposes) teacher interests and professional development. Strongly tied to this purpose is the idea of establishing how the ESP profession can better serve the national development of Venezuela.

The purpose of this thesis classifies it as educational action research. Although the thesis does not properly deal with classroom problems, it fits into the defining characteristics of action research in that it "is focused on immediate application, not on the development of theory [basic research] or on general application [applied research]" (Best & Kahn, 1989, p 21). The emphasis of the present study is, in accordance with these authors, on the "here and now" of AVEPLEFE, an association with problems that are pretty much localized.

1.2. Statement of the problem

The problem that prompts this thesis can be summarized in a sentence: AVEPLEFE seems to have lost effectiveness as an association. However, to think that a problem like this is a clearly defined one would be misleading. Some of the symptoms (perhaps some of the causes) of this problem are the following:

- Some AVEPLEFE members do not understand why some others whose precise interests and activities do not coincide with their own should also be members.
- The association has proved unable to start the newsletter it offered in 1990.
- For still unexplained reasons, the fourth national congress which was supposed to take place in September 1993 did not take place.
- Not enough teachers volunteer to participate in the association's work and, therefore, those who do have experienced an overload of work that has made some of them wary of further cooperation once their office terms have finished.
- Some teachers need an ESP association but are either unaware of the fact or do not know that AVEPLEFE exists.
- Some English teachers do not see the need for AVEPLEFE since there is already an association (VenTESOL, the Venezuelan affiliate of TESOL, i.e., Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages) which caters to their interests.

- Some AVEPLEFE members have expressed their concern that there has been an undesirable proportion of general English papers in the last two national congresses.
- The educational institutions responsible for providing EFL (English as a foreign language) teacher training do not seem to have been sensitized to the need for an ESP component in the curriculum. Some teacher trainers in fact think that ESP does not warrant any special training.
- There is poor networking among ESP professionals in Venezuela and among many of these professionals and the international ESP scene.
- Some ESP professionals see in the previous symptoms a confirmation that AVEPLEFE is just another failed initiative.
- Many ESP practitioners do not see themselves as professionals contributing to the development of the country and therefore do not have the vision to identify opportunities for growth in Venezuela's current economic reality.

An important part in solving a problem is first being able to identify and state it clearly. In the case of a professional association like the one under study, the problem has many dimensions. Therefore, this entire thesis, and not just section 1.2, is a refinement of the effort to define AVEPLEFE's problems in a way that facilitates the work of those ESP professionals in Venezuela who are willing to get involved in their own improvement through professional association.

The symptoms listed lead us to formulate the question 'How can AVEPLEFE be improved in order to permit it to make a better contribution to the economic development of Venezuela as seen through its primary mission, the professional

improvement of ESP teachers?' The following section explains how this thesis will respond to this question.

1.3. Research design

The research design will follow these steps:

- Examination of the background of the problem. This will include a brief analysis of AVEPLEFE's origin, current status and potential in the context of Venezuela and the developing world. Some of AVEPLEFE's archival material will be examined and semi-structured interviews with key AVEPLEFE members from Mérida, Caracas, and Maracaibo will be undertaken. With respect to ESP in the developing world, references to the literature will be made, particularly to abstracting indexes and tables of contents of some well-known journals in search of ESP tendencies in different countries.
- Analysis of relevant theoretical works on the nature and functioning of professional associations. These concepts are necessary to provide a metalanguage to refer to different aspects of professional organizations like the one under study.
- Analysis of documentation from professional associations. This is an exploration of some practical aspects of existing professional associations. These organizations do not necessarily work in the area of ESP and it is not necessary for the purposes of this thesis that they do. They have been successful in implementing their ideas and in influencing the professional improvement of their members. It is in their success that we are seeking clues to guide the professional development of AVEPLEFE.

- Construction of an inventory of desirable characteristics of successful ESP professional associations. This inventory will synthesize the theoretical and practical information analyzed in the previous two steps.
- Proposal for the improvement of AVEPLEFE. The proposal will adapt concepts of strategic planning and social intelligence systems to model a future for AVEPLEFE. Since the whole study relies heavily on interpretation by the researcher, this part will only be a tentative plan for the organizational development of AVEPLEFE. The thesis will not develop in full all of the ideas it proposes but it will offer a framework for many of them to be worked on as individual projects later in Venezuela.

The research design chosen for the problem at hand is qualitative in Patton's (1987) terms. It is naturalistic in that it does not intend to manipulate any events. It relies on inductive analysis and, therefore, does not specify hypotheses before collecting data; rather, it is guided by "questions, issues, and a search for patterns." It involves what Pyke & Agnew (1991) call archival research. Methodological triangulation is provided by the use of semi-structured interviews and the examination of written documents, both formal and informal. Researcher introspection will also be used inasmuch as the author has been actively involved in the association since it started in 1988.

Since the scope of this thesis is local, universal validity is not sought. The success of the present study will, therefore, be evaluated by its applicability to the problem situation. The proposal will be considered successful if, to use Best and Kahn's (1989, p. 21) criteria, it creates the conditions for improving ESP practices and, at the same time, for improving those who try to improve the practices.

1.4. Some basic terms

In this thesis LSP means 'language for specific purposes' or 'language for special purposes,' which includes ESP—'English for specific purposes' or 'English for special purposes.' ESP is the broader term of a family of acronyms that have become very common in the field of language teaching. It includes concepts such as EOP ('English for occupational purposes,' also known as EVP, 'English for vocational purposes'), EWP ('English for the workplace'), EST ('English for science and technology'), EAP ('English for academic purposes,' which deals with general academic study skills and is therefore also known as EEP, 'English for educational purposes'), and its related ESAP ('English for specific academic purposes,' which deals with the special needs of various disciplines, such as medicine, the law, and economics) (Robinson, 1980; Swales, 1985; Flowerdew, 1990; Jordan, 1993).

Some other acronyms will be used in this thesis. ELT will be used for 'English language teaching' as it is common practice to do so in the field. Sometimes we will use Judd's (1989) four basic ELT environments in the world: 'English as a Second Language' (ESL—typically an immigrant situation), 'English as an Additional Language' (EAL—characteristic of inter-group communication in multilingual contexts such as Quebec or Nigeria), 'English as a Language of Wider Communication' (ELWC—the medium of international communication in the spheres of science, technology, and business; ESP is included here) and 'English as a Foreign Language' (EFL—the context where English is a school subject with almost no social function apart from the occasional contact with foreigners who visit or whom one meets during travel abroad).

In this thesis, the term 'learner' describes a person learning English for a specific purpose, whether this person is a student in an educational institution or a professional, a technician or any other person in the workforce. The term 'student' is reserved for learners in educational environments. Occasionally, learners are referred to as 'users' because they profit from teacher-provided ESP services, such as courses or one-on-one consultation. Sometimes learners (or the institutions they work for or study in) are seen as 'clients'; in this case, the ESP teacher is seen as a 'project manager' because he is responsible for successfully developing a 'product' (typically a whole course or some course materials) that must be delivered according to the specifications agreed on.

With respect to the much debated question of what exactly ESP means and how specific it should be (Murray, 1991; Boroni, 1991, Boyle, 1993), this thesis adopts Robinson's (1980) position. She devotes the first section of her book to analyzing various definitions of ESP. After going through several acronyms and identifying three elements that characterize ESP (time constraints, learner's age, and learner's expression of communicative need to perform a role), she gives her own definition:

In conclusion we may say that an ESP course is purposeful and is aimed at the successful performance of occupational or educational roles. It is based on a rigorous analysis of students' needs and should be 'tailor-made'. Any ESP course may differ from another in its selection of skills, topics, situations and functions and also language. It is likely to be of limited duration. Students are more often adults but not necessarily so, and may be at any level of competence in the language: beginner, post-beginner, intermediate, etc. Students may take part in their ESP course before embarking on their occupational role, or they may combine their study of English with performance of their role, or they may already be competent in their occupation or discipline but may desire to perform their role in English as well as in their first language. (Robinson, 1980, pp. 13-14)

Her definition adequately describes the ESP course, which is the core of ESP practitioners' activities. Besides, it is compatible with more recent definitions (Strevens, 1988, cited in Johns & Dudley-Evans, 1991, p. 298).

Sometimes the acronym EGP—'English for general purposes'—will be used to refer to ESL/EFL courses addressed to a generic public. Also, this thesis assumes that, although there is a necessary overlap between ESP and EGP courses,¹ the former are essentially different from the latter. However, we will not intend to demonstrate the validity of this position.

An acronym from a non-ELT field will also be used in some sections of this thesis, namely NPO, which stands for 'non-profit organization.' All acronyms of limited use will be defined as they appear. Ambiguous terms will be clarified either by the context they appear in or by the words qualifying them. So, for example, 'development' is used to mean national development, but when it means 'teacher professional development,' it is so indicated. 'Objective' means a desired end in a project, but when it refers to 'instructional objective,' the latter term is used.

Notes to Chapter 1

¹During the Caracas-Washington Worldnet conference that took place during the Second National AVEPLEFE Congress in 1990, John Staczek, then head of the Applied Linguistics program at Georgetown University's Linguistics Department and author of various articles in the areas of ELT professionalism and LSP for business and the professions, said that EGP was an indispensable basis for the teaching of ESP (Berríos et al., 1991, p. 10). Some teachers have taken this kind of statement to mean that ESP is redundant. We disagree with this interpretation.

CHAPTER 2

BACKGROUND TO THE PROBLEM AND REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

In order to contextualize the need for the present study in relation to the significance of the problem, some background information is in order. This chapter will therefore describe AVEPLEFE by tracing its origins and development, discuss the place of ESP in Venezuela and in the developing world, and define some terms in the field of ESP as they will be used in this thesis.

2.1. A brief description of AVEPLEFE

2.1.1. AVEPLEFE's origins

AVEPLEFE originated in Mérida, Venezuela, in September of 1988, during the the First National Meeting of ESP Teachers and Researchers organized by faculty members of the Language Department at Universidad de Los Andes. The need for this event was so widely felt that close to three hundred people, more than double the number expected, attended the founding meeting. Although this created some logistic problems, it was obvious to us that most participants were very excited to be there. Some of the participants were teachers or researchers of other foreign languages. During the general meeting held at the end of this event, the assembly enthusiastically approved a pre-elaborated proposal to found an ESP association; however, they also expressed their wish that it should include teachers and researchers associated with not only EFL but any other foreign language for specific purposes. Thus the name 'Asociación Venezolana

de Profesores de Lenguas Extranjeras con Fines Específicos' and its acronym 'AVEPLEFE' came to be.

The assembly's decision determined that the association was to deal with *foreign* languages, which absurdly (perhaps inadvertently) excluded those professionals teaching Spanish for specific purposes in Venezuela. Perhaps there was simply no such kind of teaching being done at the time and therefore no one saw the implications of the name. In any case, even though from the beginning AVEPLEFE has included other language teachers, most of the impetus for founding the association came from ESP professionals. Because of this, the present thesis is relevant to both ESP and LSP in Venezuela.

2.1.2. AVEPLEFE's present purposes and goals

By virtue of its constitution, AVEPLEFE is a non-profit organization whose fundamental objectives are: "(a) to stimulate the teaching of languages for specific purposes; (b) to promote the initial training and continued professional development of LSP teachers; and (c) to encourage research and national and international information exchange among professionals in the field" (AVEPLEFE, [1989]; our translation).

To accomplish its mission, AVEPLEFE organizes a national congress periodically. Three have taken place: the first one at Universidad de Los Andes, Mérida (1989), the second one at Universidad Simón Bolívar, Caracas (1990), and the third one at La Universidad del Zulia, Maracaibo (1991). In Maracaibo, the general assembly decided that national congresses were to be held on a bi-annual basis, with the next one projected for September 1993. As was mentioned in section 1.2, this congress did not take place.

A long-cherished goal of the organization is to publish a newsletter that attends to the local needs of LSP teachers and researchers (Berríos et al., 1991, p. 319). Informally, there have been some talks about a journal to project the work being done in Venezuela onto the international scene. Another important goal deals with carrying out a number of regional activities between congresses (Berríos, Villoria & Rangel, 1991). We mentioned in section 1.2 above that none of these goals has as yet been accomplished.

Although not properly an organizational goal, a crucial immediate requirement is to incorporate the association, since AVEPLEFE's Constitution and By-Laws have not yet been legally registered. Previous experience in other associations indicates that this lack of attention to legal formalities can be quite common in our field: a group of well-meaning, hard-working language teachers and researchers gets together to form an association without paying due attention to legal implications. Eventually, even after several highly active years, circumstances draw attention to the fact that the association does not exist as a legal entity. In the case of AVEPLEFE, it was the need to process donated funds effectively that drew the attention of some members to the required legal registration. Without a public identity for AVEPLEFE, private foundations were reluctant to extend checks to the order of individuals. In one case, arrangements became possible only when the university hosting the annual congress accepted these donations as an intermediary. AVEPLEFE members were then burdened with the bureaucratic process of getting these moneys from the university, something that turned out to be unnecessarily complicated and time-consuming (Berríos, Villoria & Rangel, 1991).

2.1.3. AVEPLEFE's present status and role

The association enjoys the respect of authorities in the three universities that have so far hosted its national congress, who see AVEPLEFE not only as an organization of language teachers but also of language researchers. These authorities witnessed the level of professionalism with which these events were prepared and carried out, something that fulfilled their expectations as leaders in the higher education sphere.

The association has also raised expectations among LSP professionals in Venezuela. This was confirmed recently when a number of people contacted AVEPLEFE officials inquiring about the national congress.

AVEPLEFE has even raised expectations among professionals that seemingly have nothing to do with LSP. In the Second National Congress one of the presentations was given by a professor from a university social sciences department with an interest in the teaching of reading (Yáñez de Rodríguez, 1991). Her novel proposal: to initiate a multidisciplinary project to analyze the possibility of applying LSP techniques to teach formal school Spanish to socioeconomically disadvantaged children. In other words, a literacy project in Spanish as a native language via foreign language teaching methodology. Her idea startled many of the teachers present, but none, that we know of, has as yet shown an interest in this project. Nevertheless the example is valid to highlight the impact that an association like AVEPLEFE can have in the research environment by exercising a leading role in its own field.

Two roles of AVEPLEFE have to do with encouraging research and idea exchange and with helping people keep in touch. With a view to disseminating research information, AVEPLEFE published the proceedings of its Second

National Congress (Berríos et al., 1991). To facilitate networking, the same year it printed a directory of members for 1989-1990 (Berríos, 1991). The proceedings have proved to be of great use to many professionals and student teachers in Venezuela, particularly those currently doing research at the master's level. To our knowledge, the directory has been put to practical use three times by the Modern Languages Department of Universidad Simón Bolívar for the purpose of mailing information (to inform about a new master's program, to announce the creation of a journal, and to distribute a research survey; Nora de Villoria, 1993, personal communication).

In 1992, AVEPLEFE became a member of FIPLV (Fédération Internationale des Professeurs de Langues Vivantes—World Federation of Modern Languages Associations, with headquarters in Zurich, Switzerland). What this entitles AVEPLEFE to was never made too clear to the membership at large or even to the Executive Board. As far as I have been able to ascertain, affiliation with FIPLV gives AVEPLEFE the right to reprint, in any of its publications, articles from the *FIPLV World News*, as long as the source is duly acknowledged (Allwright, 1988, p. 20).

2.1.4. AVEPLEFE's potential in the development of Venezuela

Our initial question can also be read 'How can the profession of ESP teaching represented by AVEPLEFE better promote the development of Venezuela?' This reading places a lot of responsibility on the association and makes it important to address the question of whether there is enough potential in AVEPLEFE to transform the ESP profession into a closer participant in Venezuelan development plans. We believe that the potential is there and that it requires work in the direction of improving the association as well as a conviction that ESP

teachers can (and in fact do) contribute to the progress of the country. This thesis assumes that it is possible to make that contribution more substantial and evident than it is now. This belief is based on the premise that a number of social, economic, and educational consequences follow from this particular professional group's self-improvement.¹

The context in which this potential must evolve will be explained in the next section.

2.2. ESP in Venezuela

2.2.1. The role of ESP in the development of the country

Foreign language learning came strongly to the fore in Venezuela's economic development in the seventies, when a national policy was instituted that sent thousands of high school and university graduates abroad for professional and technical training (Gonzalez, 1987). A large number of students was sent to English-speaking countries. It had become obvious that studying English was necessary for the specific purpose of having access to the scientific and technological knowledge available in the institutions of higher education in the developed world. Effective transfer of technology was to a large extent dependent upon effective mastery of the English of science and related fields. It was at this time that ESP entered the academic world in Venezuelan universities and English courses were required to prepare students for reading international journals, manuals, and even textbooks during their studies.

The national policy took shape in the form of 'Fundación Gran Mariscal de Ayacucho' (FUNDAYACUCHO), a governmental foundation created for the purpose of managing everything concerning the sending of these students abroad in order

to gain education and promote the transfer of technology needed for national development. The FUNDAYACUCHO program specifically included a period of foreign language training in the same countries where students were sent to study.

In 1985, a study of Venezuelan graduate students enrolled in U.S. universities (Colmenarez, 1986) surveyed their perception of their own goals, objectives, and problems within the FUNDAYACUCHO program. One of the most important goals reported was to be prepared to serve Venezuela. The most important objectives reported were professional in nature. The major problems faced by the students were financial, academic, career counseling, and *English proficiency*. The latter is a sign of the influence that EFL, and particularly ESP, training may have upon the preparation of human resources for national development and for the promotion of technology transfer.

During the first phase of the FUNDAYACUCHO program, Venezuela made inadequate provisions for the return of funded professionals. As a result, many of the efforts at the time were spent forming highly qualified professionals fluent in both Spanish and the language of the country where they studied but who ended up remaining outside Venezuela to join the workforce of a foreign country, often the same where they received their education and training. Much of the expected transfer of technology was lost. After 1983, when the program suffered due to the sudden devaluation of the Venezuelan currency, measures were taken to ensure that FUNDAYACUCHO's investment in human resources development returns to the country.

Venezuela's internal language policy deals with the role of foreign languages in economic development, but, as far as we know, it is not presented as a separate

body of legislation. It is either implicitly present or stated within broader policies of technology transfer. The fact that second languages are taught at school, in colleges, and in universities points to the existence of this national policy. Within this context, however, English is apparently seen as more instrumental to the development of the country (and to individual careers) than any other foreign language. This is supported by two facts: first, that English is the only obligatory foreign language throughout most high school education, and, second, that given the choice, most people at university or adult education will opt for English.

A 1981 study by Kelsey and Serrano cites Venezuela's primary objectives as expressed by CONICIT, the National Scientific and Technological Research Council:

To strengthen and extend the national capacity for generating scientific and technological knowledge applicable to the production of goods and services.

To achieve access to those technologies available in the world market that are necessary for national development, and to increase the competitive capacity of national companies.

To develop research activities in educational institutes, including research as a fundamental part of the integral formation of the individual. (Kelsey & Serrano, 1981, p. 8)

Their study also highlights the importance of EST in helping the country meet some of these objectives. Of particular interest is Kelsey and Serrano's proposition to emphasize EST reading in the senior high school level curriculum.

One additional fact that highlights the national importance of ESP is that much of the professional and technical material available is in English, a situation described by Swales:

In many academic libraries around the world English-language scientific and engineering journals take up as much as 50% of the total book and periodical budget. An increasing percentage of

scholarly papers written in English (over 80% in some areas) inevitably means that an increasing proportion of papers are being both written and read by members of the scientific and technical community who do not have English as their first language. (Swales, 1985, p. 209)

Swales' account is accurate for the situation in Venezuela, as Kelsey and Serrano (1981, p. 10) would readily confirm. In the academic world it is not uncommon for professors from other departments to come to ESP teachers for help before they send their papers for publication. Sometimes they seek help with oral skills before delivering a presentation either abroad or at home for visiting specialists from abroad. It becomes evident that the role of ESP among academics is an important one, particularly so because many of today's academics were given no more than general ESL courses when they were students since ESP was not available to them then.

However, the role of ESP in the development of the country goes further than that. Within universities, and beyond academics, it will be readily admitted that ESP helps future professionals to access materials in the English language and therefore to ensure a better education or training in their field. Outside academia, there are also hundreds of individuals who, by reason of their profession or occupation, must deal in English frequently and for very practical purposes. The world of decision-making in industry, particularly multinational and international corporations and national corporations with global interests, is full of instances where ESP has facilitated understanding and subsequent negotiation. The national oil industry also knows that a faulty knowledge of maritime English can translate into heavy fines for improper handling of port procedures, a case of poor language skills with negative economic consequences for a debt-ridden country. The budding tourism industry needs not only adequate hotel and service infrastructures, but also personnel that can handle tourists in the international

lingua franca, English. Venezuelan airline pilots and air traffic controllers must be able to communicate in English to comply with international air traffic regulations.

2.2.2. ESP in Venezuela: The current situation

There are at least two sides to an examination of the current state of ESP in Venezuela. One deals with ESP learners (actual or potential) and what they do (or should be able to do) with English. This was referred to already in the preceding section, in which examples of the need for English were offered but there is in fact no formal description of the current needs for ESP instruction in a large number of different areas. What usually happens is that potential learners address the closest EFL teacher to ask for an ESP course to be mounted. It used to be that the person asking for the service could not even imagine anything else than a general English course. At present, however, many of these persons ask for courses with specific purposes in mind. This is, in our view, a sign that some sort of ESP concept has been grasped by the community.

The need for foreign languages, and particularly English, is recognized by most universities, whether each faculty has its own foreign language teachers or all faculties use the services of one foreign language department. The private sector and various governmental offices and concerns also recognize the importance of ESP in the training of their human resources and therefore either have in-house foreign language teaching personnel or hire the services of private individuals, companies, or universities to provide this training for their employees.

The other side of ESP today in Venezuela has to do with teachers and teacher training. Although no description exists of the current situation of ESP teacher training in the country, some research is being done on this topic (Najul, in

progress). In spite of this, it is fair to say that ESP teacher training is more of an informal, on-the-job activity than a formalized curricular one.

In the case of universities, the fact that there is not a single type of structure that takes care of language courses points to a historical origin probably best ascribed to chance rather than to a well-thought-out policy for that level. The present situation of those universities does not guarantee that ESP teachers have the necessary support for professional development. The client department receives its service but does not necessarily provide the teacher with adequate planning or preparation time, access to visual aids, good classrooms or copying services. Often the ESP teacher is also expected to handle large classes. Client departments of this kind do not realize that they are not really getting as good a service as they could if the ESP teacher's effectiveness were not diminished by such circumstances and if the ESP teacher were also included in general academic and professional development plans. A consequence is that many ESP teachers perceive themselves as a lesser kind of professional than the rest of the faculty, while at the same time they are loaded with more class hours per week, and under conditions of poorer support.

Another aspect of ESP teacher training in Venezuela is that what exists seems to focus on the academic field (EAP, ESAP). For example, in the field of reading and writing, the Universidad de Los Andes has directed many efforts at attempting to maintain close links with the U.K., Chile, Brazil, and the U.S. and, as a result, they have been successful in bringing foreign expertise to local events. The university's Modern Language Department and CILE ('Centro de Investigación de Lenguas Extranjeras'—the foreign language research center) presently develop competencies in the area of ESP reading within a graduate program in literacy as well as through other projects. An interesting aspect of

EAP practice in this institution is that it focuses on the study of relevant authentic materials chosen by the students rather than on the use of textbooks. The preparation of a set of guidelines to help EAP teachers to use these materials effectively is under way (Alejandra Akirov, 1993, personal communication).

An institution which has become recently involved in teacher training at the graduate level is Universidad Simón Bolívar. Even before opening its Applied Linguistics masters program and its Materials Development specialization program in 1992, the Modern Language Department of USB influenced many an EFL teacher via its book *ESP course design: A systematized approach* (Archibald et al., 1984). This book gave guidelines to ensure continuity and coherence among the various academic ESP courses required from the Department while at the same time respecting the idiosyncracies of each area (Curiel et al., 1982).

A third higher education institution that has shown interest in ESP is La Universidad del Zulia (Mendoza de Hopkins, 1993, personal communication). Teachers from the Modern Languages Department have recently written various EAP coursebooks which have been recommended for publication due to their practical value. However, publication has been temporarily impossible. Meanwhile, informal copies of the approved manuscripts are presently being used at the university and other local institutions (Mendoza de Hopkins, 1990; Torres, 1992; Carmona, 1992). There is also a course design book by Delmastro (1992).

Meanwhile, the world of EVP/EOP seems to be neglected by the teacher training institutions. The need to form teachers in this area is sometimes met by the private and public industries who require ESP courses, of which an outstanding

example is CEPET, the national training center for the oil industry (Díaz, 1991). In-house language teacher training, however, is not a wide practice in most corporations. (This is not an unusual situation, as the editors of *Language Training* would agree. See Table 1 for a list of topics usually not addressed by teacher training institutions.)

Whatever shape the present of ESP has in Venezuela, this thesis cannot convey the whole truth about it. The reason is that many well-directed efforts in numerous areas are not known simply because they have not been described by ESP professionals. Likewise, the needs for ESP in secondary schools and other vocational/occupational educational institutions have not been investigated. On the one hand, many ESP teachers, like many ESL teachers, tend not to share their experiences through articles or presentations. On the other, many ESP practitioners lose contact with the high school education system once they become used to working with university students and adults. In both cases, much of the local experience in course design, implementation, and evaluation is lost or not made evident to the rest of the profession.

2.2.3. The future of ESP in Venezuela

The need for international communication in the private and governmental sectors offers many opportunities for and challenges to ESP course development.

There is also a need for explicit ESP teacher training. The universities, however, because of their critical economic situation, are increasingly getting involved in revenue-generating projects with industry and Government in order to ensure an adequate operating budget. As a result, universities may not necessarily become

Table 1
Index of *Language Training* topics by issue

Year	Language Training issue No.	Topic focused on
1981	1.1	Analysing language needs
	1.2	Conducting a large audit
	1.3	Company language training programmes
	1.4	More about company training programmes
1982	2.1	Focus on self-instruction
	2.2	Language training and technology transfer
	2.3	In-company training
	2.4	Language learning and personal development
1983	3.1	Language training and technical training
	3.2	Video in language training
	3.3	Teacher selection and computers in language training
	3.4	Language training in banks and computers in language training
1984	4.1	In-company courses
	4.2	Company language training outside Europe
	4.3	Company language training—Some problems and solutions
	4.4	Some new approaches to language training for industry
1985	5.1	Emphasis on communication
	5.2	Alternative approaches
	5.3	ESP developments in France
	5.4	Language training for engineers
1986	6.1	The changing face of language training in industry
	6.2	Meeting clients' needs
	6.3	Technology and information
	6.4	Teaching or training
1987	7.1	Innovation, technology and technical training
	7.2	Ways and means
	7.3	What makes language training effective?
	7.4	Recent trends in company language training
1988	8.1	The course participants' point of view
	8.2	Creating the right conditions
	8.3	Managing language programmes

Note. *Language Training* is published by U.K.-based Language Training Services, an independent training and consultancy company specializing in ESP training for industry, international organizations and government agencies. The editor states on the inside front cover that "there is a general lack of information about language training for industry. Periodicals about personnel management and training rarely give any attention to language training, and those about teaching and linguistics focus only on classroom practice or general theory. *Language Training* is designed to bridge the gap that exists and to improve communications between users and suppliers, so that they both speak the same language."

interested in directing funds towards implementing ESP teacher training programs. This situation calls upon professional associations like VenTESOL and AVEPLEFE to give the support that EFL teachers need in order to 'make the transition' to ESP. However, the general nature of many of the activities offered by VenTESOL does not meet all the expectations of ESP professionals.² In contrast, since AVEPLEFE carries these specific concerns in the core of its professional mission, the activities it has organized attract many more ESP teachers than those of VenTESOL. The high demand for workshops in the first three AVEPLEFE congresses is a sign of this.

Another trend in the English teaching scene in Venezuela is towards certification via professional associations. VenTESOL has already started to move in that direction, following the example of TESOL International. In the 1991 VenTESOL Annual Convention, Barbara Hauser, Past President of VenTESOL, gave a presentation introducing the concepts of professional standards and ESL/EFL teacher certification. Around twelve people attended, some of them young EFL professionals who had gone independent by opening their own language training institutes. (In a conference with around 600 participants, this small percentage reveals that the concept is still a new one in Venezuela.) The field of ESP needs an alternative certification scheme that should naturally fit into AVEPLEFE's goals. In this sense, the future of ESP in Venezuela lies in the hands of AVEPLEFE. However, such an endeavor cannot be properly undertaken without referring to Venezuela's immediately broader environment, that of the developing world.

2.3. ESP in the developing world

Communication and language play an important role in the development of all countries. This is all the more so today, when the world is increasingly being seen as a global village.

As the pressure to communicate increases, the divisions of language are felt even more keenly. So language teaching, especially of the great world languages, which are seen as international channels of communication, becomes even more important. (Wallace, 1991, p. 2)

At the same time, Westrup (1992, pp. 34-35) notes that "the number of exchange and collaborative projects between universities in the Third World and industrialised nations has increased considerably, as has the number of students from developing countries attending higher level education in the West." These exchanges, projects, and studies abroad confirm a situation that exemplifies the 'pressure to communicate' mentioned above. Mackay and Mountford (1978; cited in Johns & Dudley-Evans, 1991, p. 301) say that communication needs in developing countries are of three kinds: internal communication, transmission of science and technology, and international communication. These needs have been identified by developing countries themselves and by countries cooperating with their development as intrinsically related to language.

The importance of language and cultural training is frequently cited in the literature of both foreign languages and business (Inman, 1979, p. 24). It is also mentioned in the technology transfer discourse. In an article addressed to human resource trainers, Marquardt (1984) lists six areas where skills and attributes are needed for successful interaction in another culture: management, communications, interpersonal and organizational skills, commitment and motivation, creativity, and learning and technical capabilities. Within

communication skills, he lists "written, verbal, and nonverbal language capabilities" (p. 59). Another human resources specialist says that when managers move into the complex international sphere, they need, among other things, "language training to overcome both communication and cross-cultural problems" (Eldridge, 1984, p. 67). These are explicit acknowledgements of the value of language training.

A survey of fifteen companies in Hong Kong (Cheng & Zi, 1987, pp. 184-185) revealed that these corporations see a relationship between linguistic/communicative competence and work effectiveness. As a result, these companies provide job-related training even in their language courses. Managers, for example, receive the most communication-based training since this meets the needs of this specific group of employees. These authors also say that there is an increasing acknowledgment that:

language and communication and/or managerial skills are closely related and that, if training is to be effective, there must be cooperation among language and management training staff teaming up and working together. This is already apparent in three of the organisations surveyed. (Cheng & Zi, 1987, p. 185)

A number of factors that we will not deal with here have determined that the language in which most people all over the world seek training is English, the lingua franca for many disciplinary and occupational areas. In 1979, most LSP courses were, according to Inman (p. 21), ESP courses. As the extensive literature in the field shows, this situation continues today, presenting ELT teachers from all countries with the challenge to contribute to global, regional, and national development.

There are ESP courses in the English-speaking world, but it is in the milieu of non-English-speaking countries—a typical EFL situation—where ESP takes on

prime importance, since it has a more direct role to play as a tool for economic development. For many of these countries, English is an essential means to the success of transfer of technology, an activity in which they invest large sums of money to improve the state of their manufacturing and service sectors. However, it is precisely in these ELWC and EFL countries where "learners are rarely exposed to the target language, if at all, and language learning is always in a classroom with the teacher as the only model" (Westrup, 1992, p. 21). This lack of exposure implies a more pressing need for ESP.

Many people involved at all levels of productive life in these countries must make decisions for which the information comes in the medium of English. We have already cited Swales (1985) regarding the proportion of professional literature that is written in English, even by non-native speakers. Libraries in developing countries—whether they are university libraries proper or information centers for research and development in the industry—are places where at least an 'instrumentally' motivated knowledge of the language becomes crucial for economic development. This type of knowledge is motivated by the practical advantages of the language rather than by the learner's personal interest in English-speakers or their culture, which would determine an 'integrative' motivation (Gardner & Lambert, 1972, cited in Stern, 1983, p. 377). In the case of libraries in the developing world, the practical advantage is one of gaining access to recent scientific and technical information, sometimes of highly competitive value.

English has been called a 'library language' in Iraq (Tawfiq, 1984/1991). A similar situation exists in Brazil, where Figueiredo, Ribeiro, Kurtz and Silva (1988) found that most university courses require reading skills from students who must deal with a large English-language bibliography. Figueiredo et al. even suggest that

the content area instructors could also profit from ESP reading courses. Swales' (1985) landmark book *Episodes in ESP* reports on EST work done in Britain and the United States, but also in Chile, Colombia, Iran, Kuwait, Libya, Sudan and Thailand. All of the fifteen works reported deal with English as a lingua franca for academic studies in science and technology. Baldauf and Jernudd (1983; cited in Johns & Dudley-Evans, 1991, p. 302) "have found that in chemistry, biology, physics, medicine, and math, more than 65% of all international journals are now English language, a dramatic increase since 1965."

However, the science and technology library is not the only environment where English has become a lingua franca. In the early '80s, the operational language chosen for the Sawari Project, an arms supply contract between Saudi Arabia and France, was English (Bodley, 1984). This required the French naval instructors to be trained via five 120-hour ESP courses so they could later teach technical subjects to Saudi navy personnel. As a previous step, the project also required the ESP teachers to be given the necessary technical background so they could prepare the ESP courses. The amount of money involved made it possible to create highly motivating conditions for all learners. This is a perhaps one of the most patent examples of the economic importance attached to the English language by non-English-speaking countries.

Thus, ESP is a 'foreign'—an EFL—phenomenon in the sense that it occurs mostly in the non-English-speaking world. It has grown mostly outside English-speaking countries and continues to do so today. Its relevance is not only academic, but also occupational and professional, and its impact is felt in the economic sphere, where it plays the role of language for world communication.

By analyzing actual ESP studies and index references to ESP studies, the next few sections of this chapter will characterize the presence of ESP throughout the developing countries. Since much of the material analyzed was available in abstract form and by no means represents a complete survey of the ESP field and of the importance attached to it, such characterization is intended to be indicative rather than exhaustive.

For each of the world regions to be mentioned, we will briefly describe the type of ESP teaching and research characterizing it, the opportunities for initial teacher training, and the contribution of ESP-related associations and other institutions to continued teacher development. The relationship between ESP and development will also be stressed. Our intention is to establish a link between ESP and economic development, on the one hand, and, on the other hand, a link between professional associations and ESP teaching improvement.

2.3.1. The Middle East and North Africa

The Middle East has been a geographic area where economic interests have come together and determined the need of English for national development. In 1973, and according to the Arabicization Conference cited by Barkho (1984, p. 167) Jordan, Kuwait, and Saudi Arabia had English as the medium of instruction for a great number of college courses in medicine, sciences, engineering, and agriculture. Despite Arabicization—the use of Arabic “as a medium of instruction and expression for all branches of learning at the university level” (Barkho, 1984, p. 164)—the bureau for the coordination of Arabicization in Arab countries also gives importance to English as a language of science and technology.

Yarmouk University in Jordan is a site of EAP activity. One example of their work is a study of stylistic errors of Arab students writing EAP (Doushaq, 1986). Another study (Zughoul & Hussein, 1985) deals with the extent of English-language use and needs at the university: its findings corroborate what the Arabicization Conference had observed about English being used in most classes.

Also in Jordan, Khaled (1984), based on work with management sections of nursing texts, recommends that a linguistic analysis of specialist texts be used to select adequate teaching materials and authentic ESP language.

Like Jordan, Kuwait has done work on EAP, especially in student placement techniques (Salamah, 1984; Mason, 1984). In addition, the Kuwait Business Institute has been a source of ESP courses, although Al-Attili (1986) expressed disagreement with the English language teaching materials it used and called for a broader needs analysis to be made. In her latest ESP bibliography, Robinson (1991, p. 109) lists two journals published in Kuwait. They are *Al-Manakh* and *EMP Newsletter: English for Medical and Paramedical Purposes*, both from the University of Kuwait. We ignore if these are still being published after the Gulf War.

There is EAP work in Iran, too. Hashemi (1992) studied grammatical structures characteristic of academic discourse and found that current remedial courses in colleges emphasize structures that are little used.

Saudi Arabia is another EAP-focused country. Its universities have contributed an assortment of ideas and experiences, often in joint efforts with agencies from the U.K. or the U.S. An instance of this type of joint experiments is the English Language Centre (ELC) at King Abdulaziz University in Jeddah. This project,

which started in 1975, is given a whole volume by the British Council in its ELT Documents series (Harper, 1986, p. 1). As Harper describes it, the way this cooperation took place was to gradually hand over center operation to the Saudi University until complete British Council withdrawal in 1984. The question remains of whether the ELC project achieved sustainability.

A lot of the work done in the ELC had to do with task-based learning (such as Phillips, 1981), some of which was reported in the ELC Occasional Papers series. Another example of research done in Saudi Arabia is Nelson's (1984) study of university students' motivation to read.

Sometimes Saudi Arabia has sent contingents of professionals and/or technicians to English-speaking countries for ESP training. An example is given by Bynum (1985), from the University of South Alabama, who briefly describes an experience with developing a technical English program for forty Saudi Arabian petrochemical plant operator trainees. The program also prepared them to assume professional roles on their return home. Although this program speaks more about the U.S. capacity for ESP training, it was mentioned here because the amount of local investment put on it says much about the economic importance that Saudi governments have attached to ESP.

The case of Iraq is particularly interesting. Previous to the state of affairs that led to the Gulf War in 1991, the importance of EST was made explicit in the Arabicization law of 1979, which advised colleges to keep on teaching at least one subject matter course per year in English (Barkho, 1984). Intimately related with the government's Arabicization program, two EST teacher training graduate courses were started, one in Mosul and one in Basra in 1977. As reported by Barkho (1984, p. 174), the research done at these two centers dealt with

discourse analysis of scientific and technological English and EST classroom methodology adequate for local needs. The emphasis on EST in higher education, i.e., EAP, is consistent with Tawfiq's (1984/1991) description of English as a 'library language,' referred to above at the beginning of this chapter.

ESP activity in Egypt has given importance to the impact of comprehensible input on materials development and student EAP writing ability (Schleppegrell, 1984, 1985), but also to EOP/EVP concerns. For example, Mosallem (1984) suggested a common core syllabus for all police officers whose jobs demand use of English.

One study assessed the impact of general vs. specific English proficiency on the academic achievement of Egyptian pharmacology and dentistry students at Mansura University, Egypt (Elsheikh, 1987). The study found that ESP requires skills that are different from EGP, which is a confirmation of the independent entity of ESP. Results also showed that academic achievement correlated more with ESP proficiency than with EGP proficiency.

Ain Shams University has been the source of a great deal of EAP action in Egypt. They have developed listening comprehension materials adapted to their circumstances (Gary & Gary, 1982). In 1983, Bowers wrote an account of curriculum development at the Centre for Developing English Language Teaching (CDELT) of Ain Shams, a center which counted on U.S. support since its inception in 1974, followed by British Council support in 1978. In his paper, Bowers explores the reasons for the mismatch of project planning and project performance and presents a model to analyze curriculum development projects. What is, in our opinion, most important about CDELT is that it was created to improve the training of Egyptian EFL teachers in order to make them handle the new ESP responsibilities expected from them in view of national development.

Another Egyptian institution worth mentioning here is Alexandria University, whose ESP Center publishes *Pharos: An ESP Newsletter* twice a year (Robinson, 1991, p. 110).

The last country we will mention here is Sudan, where the English Language Servicing Unit at the University of Khartoum started publishing the *English for Specific Purposes in the Middle East and North Africa Bulletin*—better known as *ESPMENA Bulletin*—in 1975. This has been a widely used outlet for research in the region since then (Swales, 1985, p. 117). According to Swales, this publication features main articles as well as information on events, latest developments in ESP projects and centers, teaching and learning materials, reviews, and users' reports.

2.3.2. South East Asia

South East Asia is another geographic area which lends impetus to ESP. The South East Asia Ministers of Education Organization (SEAMEO) is an intergovernmental group. It publishes *The RELC Journal: A Journal of Language Teaching and Research*, a publication that reached its silver jubilee in 1993 (it was founded in 1968). The fact that an organization like this exists bears witness to the dynamism of ELT in the countries of the region. The ministerial nature of SEAMEO also conveys the sense of economic importance given to the issue of language training and serves as a backdrop for much of the ESP activity going on.

Singapore seems to be the point of convergence in the region. The Regional Language Centre (RELC), which even has a building of its own,³ has promoted the English language in Singapore and nearby countries for some time now. Much of what is known about ESP in not only Malaysia, Singapore, Indonesia,

and Thailand, but also Papua New Guinea, India, Australia, and New Zealand has been disseminated via the well-known RELC Seminars. Among others, research concerns in Singapore include genre-analysis as an approach to business materials design (Bhatia, 1991), ESP communication for economists (Yin and Wong, 1990), and assessment of current practices in ESP courses for engineering students (Yin, 1988). The Nanyang Technological Institute in Singapore is responsible for some of the experience in these areas.

Indonesia is another South East Asian country where the role of ESP as a tool for development is very clear. Ronald Mackay's recent visit to Bali for a workshop on designing evaluations to assess project sustainability found a dynamic network of teachers coordinating local projects for geographically distant areas but with common objectives in mind. The workshop aimed at training this local personnel to evaluate their concerted ESP projects in order to ensure continued success after foreign support is withdrawn. The workshop itself was sponsored by the British Overseas Development Administration and The British Council in January 1993 (R. Mackay, 1993, personal communication).

One of the research interests in Indonesia is language needs analysis in large organizations (Coleman, 1988). In the mid-eighties there was also a refugee center with an interesting simulation approach to ESP, but it was run by the U.S. (Johnston, 1985) and, as such, will not be described here.

Like Indonesia and Singapore, Malaysia shows many signs of ESP activity. In another ELT Document devoted to ESP, Chitravelu (1980) reports on the University of Malaya English for Special Purposes Project (UMESPP), launched in 1975 with joint support from the Inter-University Council, the University of Birmingham, and the British Council. According to Chitravelu, the country was

undergoing a nation-wide process to change the medium of instruction from English to Malay. English, however, was given official endorsement as the language of science and technology. The situation was similar to that of Arabicization in the Middle East. The UMESPP project was conceived to create the local ESP expertise and teaching materials needed to help increasingly Malay-educated students deal with university reading in the English language.

Related to UMESPP is the University of Malaya Spoken English Project (UMSEP), a cooperative effort initiated in 1980 by the University of Malaya and the British Council (Peng, 1985). UMSEP consists of three ESP courses addressed at final-year university students of business, public administration, and law. The classroom methodology used is a task-based approach that exploits the students' first language resources. The UMSEP initiative has been complemented by a communicative language competence test (Subramaniam & Hock, 1990). This test includes basic English, English for pre-occupational purposes, English for public administration, and commercial English. Test situations are simulations of events that demand the use of target language. One major concern with this kind of ESP tests is related to administration problems.

An example of research from Thailand is Kachru's (1990) comparative discourse analysis study of business English in an American newspaper and a Thai newspaper. In it, Kachru suggests that ESP in Thailand should be approached from the communicative competence viewpoint.

2.3.3. Latin America

Within the developing countries, the most immediate context for ESP in Venezuela is that of Latin America, a geographic area with which it shares many social, economic, and political conditions. Relative linguistic homogeneity is

another shared characteristic. It is also a geographical area where some AVEPLEFE members have made professional contacts. We will refer to two countries with a high profile in the field of ESP.

Brazil has been a hardworking country in the Latin American ESP field, with the Brazilian National ESP Project beginning in 1979 (Garrido, Rodriguez & Costa, 1988). The project has reportedly had a positive impact upon teaching materials and teacher training. It has also served as a framework for various research and experimentation initiatives, particularly at federal universities such as Bahia, Paraiba, and Uberlandia, but also in other higher education institutions such as the Catholic University at Sao Paulo. Examples of this activity follow.

Victor and Melo (1988) report on their ESP teacher-training experiment via a course designed to meet the needs expressed by 247 dissatisfied secondary school teachers and students of English. Celani (1992) describes the development of a training program for ESP teachers at the Catholic University, Sao Paulo. The trainees learn by making decisions concerning program content and by working with peer counselors. Figueiredo et al. (1988), cited above at the beginning of section 2.3, studied the English language needs of university students. They found that students had to read large bibliographies in that language.

There is a concern with ESP materials development and evaluation (Russo, 1987; de Caralho, 1989). There is also a concern with the teachability of certain aspects of ESP, such as a minimum discourse grammar for ESP reading (Deyes, 1987) and techniques for critical ESP reading (Scott et al., 1988). Another interest is the role of the ESP classroom teacher as a researcher (Kennedy, 1985; Holmes, 1986).

Brazil also publishes *The ESPecialist*, a journal that disseminates the great amount of research and the experiences of this country.

Like Brazil, Chile has been a pioneer in Latin America in the field of ESP. It was Chile where Ewer and Latorre (1969) wrote *A Course in Basic Scientific English*, a book that was to be used by thousands of university students in many countries. Later, Ewer (1983), who was highly interested in teacher training, described five problems of an EST training course at the University of Chile, Santiago. The problems he listed were of five types: attitudinal, conceptual, linguistic, methodological, and organizational. Other people also worked in teacher training.

In 1977, Soto-G. described the ESP teacher training that was already taking place at the State Technical University, Santiago. The emphasis was on two areas: EST and English for business and commercial purposes with an introduction to economics. Boys (1979) outlines the development of ESP, EST, and EVP in Chile and says that, at the time, even though the prevalent conditions for personnel training and for course time-allocation, content and materials were less than ideal, there were already clear signs of a national ESP effort. Different universities contributed in different areas: research, academic and community needs assessment surveys, syllabus design, course materials and bilingual glossary production, and teacher training and retraining. There was also an interinstitutional ESP journal.

On the same line, Boys (1980) reported on the substantial demand for EST and EVP throughout Chile, a demand that was not being met by the high schools or the technico-professional schools. She advocated the inclusion of EST and EVP training in the educational system, since there were circumstances that facilitated

this. One of these circumstances was the then growing availability of EST/EVP-oriented teacher training.

In 1985, in a very thorough though concise document, the British Council reported on the English teaching profile of Chile. Among its observations, a growing trend for ESP instruction was anticipated. However, it also noted that *EST/ESP Chile*, the local newsletter, had been recently discontinued. The British Council lends support via lecture tours or seminars given by British ELT specialists brought expressly for that reason (The British Council, 1985). Accordingly, the U.S. also lends support to ESP activities in Chile in an indirect way, mainly via the free distribution of *English Teaching Forum*, an EGP journal that has given some some attention to ESP. Another form of American support is the binational Instituto Chileno Norte-Americano in Santiago, but it is also indirect with respect to ESP interests.

One more sign of the energy of the Chilean ESP field is their hosting of the Second Latin American ESP Conference, held in Santiago in November 1990. The relevance of the work presented there can be measured by the fact that the international journal *English for Specific Purposes* devoted one issue to articles presented at that conference. The guest editors were two ESP teachers from the University of Chile (Harvey & Horsella, 1992).

2.3.4. Common features of ESP in developing countries

A number of features characterize the state of ESP in the developing world. First, there seems to be an emphasis on EAP, although some efforts are directed towards EVP/EOP. This was evident in most of the countries whose literature was referred to.

Second, the move towards the use of the local language in the educational system has lent increased official importance to ESP and, particularly, EST. The Arabicization process in the Middle East and the move towards the use of Malay in Malaysia are evidence of this. This importance has not been so apparent in Spanish-speaking Latin America, where linguistic homogeneity has perhaps ensured a fair amount of the scientific and technical literature needed for internal academic consumption (for the Venezuelan case, see Kelsey & Serrano, 1981, p. 5). Spanish is in fact the third mother-tongue in the world in number of speakers (Crystal, 1987, p. 287). This would secure enough social force for the publication of science and technology translations. The case of Brazil, a Portuguese-speaking country, is different. Portuguese is only eighth in number of mother-tongue speakers. This would determine that fewer translations are available for internal consumption, something that Figueiredo et al. (1988) seems to confirm. As a result, Brazil counts with a very active nation-wide ESP project.

The SEAMEO experience is an example of outstanding, goal-driven international convergence. Perhaps here, again, the role of linguistic diversity as a catalyst for change has been adequately exploited by the local ELT teachers to further ESP improvement. It is obvious that for the countries whose governments are involved in the SEAMEO initiative, ESP/EST and economic development go hand in hand.

The third feature deals with international cooperation. Three instances of offices in English-speaking developed countries were mentioned as instrumental in the inception and later success of local projects: the British Council, the British Overseas Development Administration, and the United States Information Service. The cases of CDELT Ain Shams, the ELC at King Abdulaziz University, the Bali workshop, the UMESPP and UMSEP projects in Malaysia are all cases of direct ESP assistance from one or more of these English-speaking

organizations. The British Council has shown special interest in ESP and has documented much of its experience in the ELT Documents series, which, as Table 2 shows, has devoted eight volumes to different ESP topics.

An important sub-aspect of international cooperation is the need for project sustainability. International agencies have shown an interest in evaluating the success of the various projects mentioned in view of the fact that external financial support cannot be indefinite. Local expertise had to be developed under

Table 2
List of ESP-related publications
in the *ELT Documents* series

ELT Document No.	Date	Volume title
101	1978	<i>English for Specific Purposes</i>
106	1980	<i>Team Teaching in ESP</i>
107	1980	<i>The University of Malaya English for Special Purposes Project (UMESPP)</i>
109	1980	<i>Study Modes and Academic Development of Overseas Students</i>
112	1981	<i>The ESP Teacher: Role, Development and Prospects</i>
116	1983	<i>Language Teaching Projects for the Third World</i>
117	1984	<i>Common Ground: Shared Interests in ESP and Communication Studies</i>
123	1986	<i>ESP for the University</i>
128	1988	<i>ESP in the Classroom: Practice and Evaluation</i>
129	1988	<i>Academic Writing: Process and Product</i>
131	1988	<i>Individualization and Autonomy in Language Learning</i>

Note. The *ELT Documents* series is published by the British Council. Documents 109, 112, 117, 129, and 131 were the result of work done by BALEAP, the British Association of Lecturers in English for Academic Purposes, known until 1989 as SELMOUS (Special English Language Materials for Overseas University Students / Association of Lecturers and Tutors in English for Overseas Students).

the shelter of these agencies in order to make the host countries ready to manage the project after external funding ended.

In contrast with the long-term projects listed for the Middle East and South East Asia, support for local Latin American activities has been mostly short-term. As the experience of Chile shows, cooperation has the form of EGP lectures, seminars, and/or publications. The Venezuelan experience is similar in this respect, with a British Council office and two Venezuelan-American centers, one in Caracas and one in Maracaibo. USIS also distributes around 1,000 free copies of *English Teaching Forum* in professional events like the Annual VenTESOL Conference or through regular mail (USIS personnel, personal communication, 1991). USIS has also made it possible to hold Worldnet conferences with EFL/ESL experts in Washington during various national events.

The fourth feature is also related to the international cooperation just outlined. It refers to the fact that many of the people who write the reports and articles reviewed in this chapter are native English-speakers. Swales (1985, p. xii) regrets the fact in the Introduction to *Episodes in ESP*, although he says the situation is more characteristic of EST than it is of other ESP areas, such as economics and law. We cited Swales above in section 2.3 to stress the various countries where his 'episodes' came from. Swales points out that they describe "work that *originated* in such diverse countries as..." (Swales 1985, p. xiii; our emphasis). So, many of the episodes describe the ESP experience in developing countries from the point of view of English-speakers. This is a valid approach whose adequacy stems from the fact that these English-speakers happened to be fully involved in the international cooperation schemes which made the ESP projects possible. This approach, though, has left the local view out of the literature in many cases. However, we think this has been gradually changing as

ESP projects throughout the world are eventually handed over to local experts. The continued local publishing activity of the Middle East, North Africa, South East Asia and Brazil all point to this trend.

The fifth feature has to do with the role of individual work vs. team work, particularly associationism, in securing goal achievement in the field of ESP. Much of the work reported in the various countries is individually authored. This is an adequate approach to, for example, discourse analysis research, but it is inadequate to solve the multidimensional problems posed by local, national or regional initiatives like SEAMEO and many of the publications mentioned. The profession has profited from both approaches, the former to build up knowledge about, for example, ESP text microstructure and classroom techniques, the latter to make use of the professional strengths of individuals with similar interests.

One feature is not apparent in our review of the ESP literature from developing countries, but contributes to an understanding of the background of AVEPLEFE's problems in the ESP world scene. It has to do with what Maley (1992) calls 'the divide between native and non-native English speaker teachers'. In his open letter to the ELT profession, he says that:

in most non-English-speaking countries there is an uneasy division between local non-native speaker teachers, often with long training, experience, and expertise, who often work in the state system, and native-speaker expatriate teachers, often with minimal qualifications and experience and only a temporary loyalty to their country of sojourn, and who usually work in the private sector. This division is complicated by the fact that many non-native speaker teachers, though excellent practitioners, are often locked into a non-innovatory bureaucratic system, while the native-speakers, though often less well trained, are freer to experiment and change. The division is further exacerbated by pre-conceived notions of the innate value of native-speaker teachers and the correspondingly higher salaries they are often able to command. The equation is a delicate and complex one. If unresolved it will drive a wedge down the middle of our 'profession.' (Maley, 1992, pp. 97-98)

This situation calls for reflection on the role of locals and nonnative speakers as ESP teachers in the developing world. This is all the more important because most non-native English teachers in the developing world have not traveled extensively or held posts in different cultures or environments in the way that, for example, many British or American teachers who work abroad have. This limits their views of problems and affects the solutions they conceive for them.

On the other hand, the strength of the non-native ESP teacher is that he/she is likely to understand the local situation in a more appropriate manner. ESP projects must make use of this strength even if sometimes, as happened in the Centre for Developing English Language Teaching project at Ain Shams University (Bowers, 1983, p. 108), the locals work part-time while their American and British counterparts, appointed by their home institutions, work full-time. As Bowers puts it,

the outside expert has certain inputs to make—he may be the native speaker; he may have background experience elsewhere; in academic or professional terms he may have a distinctive contribution to make. In terms of context and process, however, the local is the expert. [...], it is the host who can identify the implications and see the means by which negative effects can be avoided or at least minimized. The value of a time for joint brainstorming at the outset of a project—for the negotiation of agreed objectives, procedures, roles, and criteria for success—cannot be over-estimated. (Bowers, 1983, p. 117)

Developing countries must learn to profit from team situations not just at project outset, but also throughout project implementation, termination and evaluation. This requires the development of a 'project mentality' in many professionals of these countries.⁴

The six features listed determine a situation which is perhaps best described in terms of the 'center-periphery' paradigm. This paradigm refers to a set of

circumstances that make professional information flow from developed countries—the center, where science and technology are most advanced—to developing countries—the periphery— and viceversa, but which, at the same time, does not encourage flow of information between developing countries. Swales (1985, p. 117) referred to this center-periphery communication networks as being partly caused by the way in which international cooperation agencies such as USIS/ICA (the U.S. Information Service) and the British Council function. For instance, the British Council, continues Swales, usually sets up its international cooperation schemes facilitating communication between each assisted country and the U.K. However, information exchange among the assisted countries themselves is rarely fostered in the same way.⁵

Figure 1 illustrates the situation. Much of the networking done by professionals in developing countries is with counterparts in the developed world. This is necessary since it allows Third World teachers to keep up with recent advances in the ESP field; it also allows them to become an 'information node' in their own milieu, one capable of disseminating these advances among less lucky fellow-teachers. The case is, however, that the internal networking often does not work as well as does the link with the developed world.

2.4. Conclusion to this chapter

This chapter has explained the background to AVEPLEFE's problems and reviewed some of the relevant related literature. In this way, the chapter established a basic premise of this thesis, namely that ESP can be seen as an economic concern and not only as an academic one. In other words, ESP course improvement and, especially, ESP teacher professional development have an

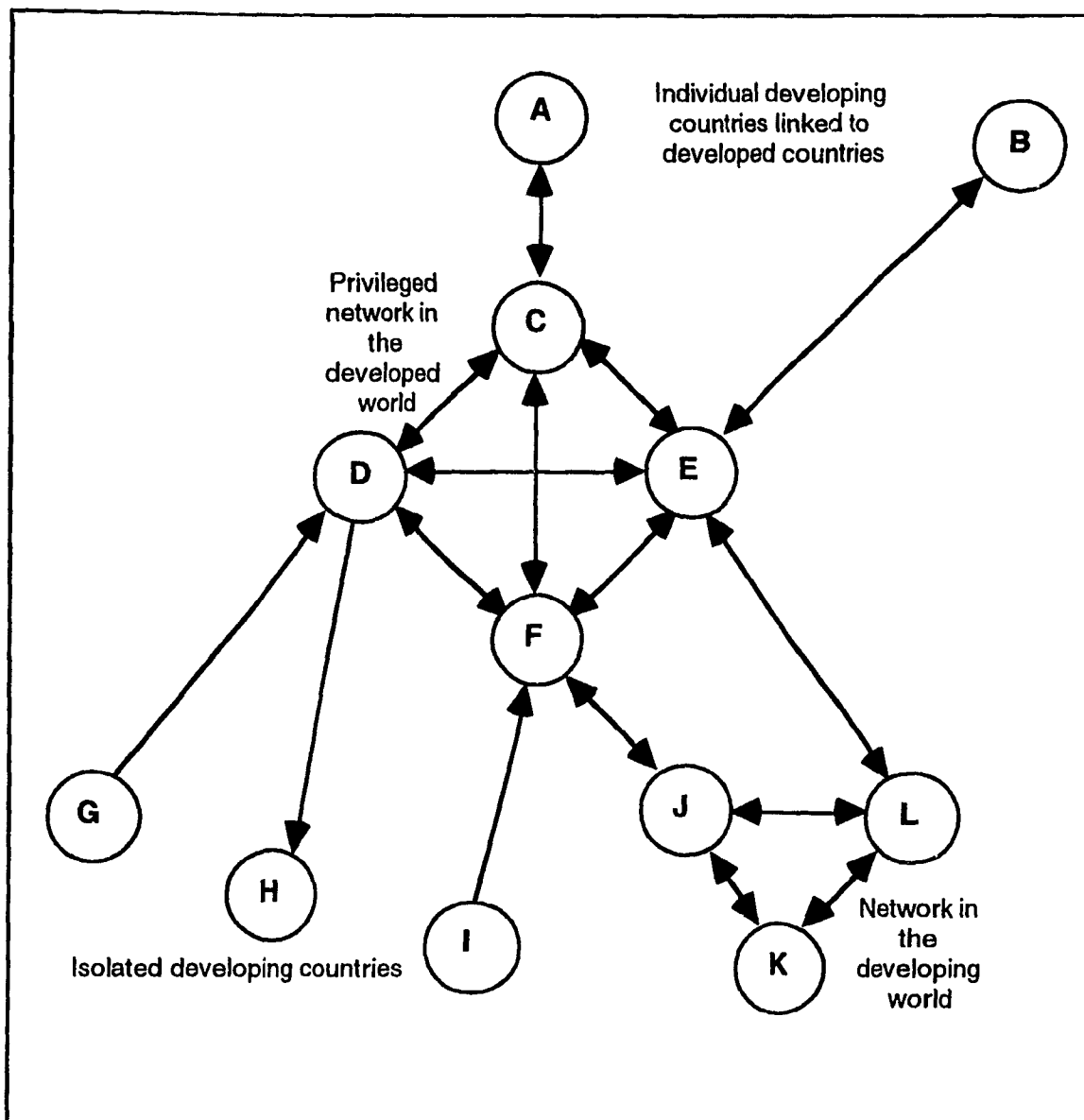


Figure 1. The center-periphery paradigm. The center-periphery paradigm makes professional information flow between the developed world and the developing world. Sometimes this flow (indicated with arrows in the illustration) is one way, usually in the direction of the developed world, sometimes both ways. Many local and regional efforts in developing countries are not disseminated among other developing countries, but end up being of use in nations that are already the most advanced. For example, countries A and B exchange information with C and E, which form part of the privileged network of the developed world, but in spite of their geographical proximity, they do not share information with each other. Professionals in G and I feed a literature that is then unavailable to fellow professionals in their own countries due to its high costs. Professionals in H are content with using information they import from the center, perhaps as part of an international cooperation project. J, K and L form a network of developing countries that not only interact with their peers in the developed world but also among themselves. Professional associations and academic institutions in developing countries must become pro-active in establishing networks that counterbalance the center-periphery paradigm.

impact on the effectiveness with which a country achieves its economic development goals. This is particularly true today since many of these goals are carried out in part in collaboration with more technically highly developed countries.

We have also differentiated between ESP teacher development which can be provided by educational institutions and that which should be provided by associations. It is clear that much of the professional development effort beyond initial teacher training cannot be handled by higher education institutions alone and that, therefore, associations have a pre-eminent role in pro-actively complementing continued teacher training.

The chapter has also emphasized something which the author perceives as central to the nature of professional associations, namely that an association—and, in particular, an LSP teaching association—is a part of the international professional information network and, consequently, can be expected to provide all sorts of information-based services to its members and the community in which it exists.

In view of the aspects mentioned here, the next chapter will explore how applied linguists and the ELT profession can use a professional association to advance our own development and to define and negotiate the terms implied in our involvement in the economic reality and development of our countries.

We would like to finish this chapter with a quotation.

“Language plays a crucial role in the socio-economic development of societies. As a factor providing or withholding access to education and therefore to human resources development, as a key to knowledge, information and communication, as a major indicator of appropriateness of technology, as a major element in élite formation and individual alienation, as barrier to or equaliser of socio-political and economic opportunities, language plays an

important role in the modernisation of countries. But language is often ignored by economic planners and political strategists at great social cost to the countries concerned." (Lord and T'sou, 1985, cited in Lord, 1987, p. 3)

Notes to Chapter 2

¹There is sufficient evidence from international ESP experience that confirms that specialized language teaching can enhance the communication component within technical and business projects and thus actively contribute to their success (Bodley, 1984; Lavery, 1985; Pope, 1985).

²VenTESOL's situation is similar to the one that Benson (1993) sees in TESOL international. His article lists TESOL's services and publications and acknowledges its success in elementary or 'survival' ELT but, at the same time, makes a critical appraisal of the organization's three major shortcomings. First, there is TESOL's preoccupation with trivia: "When we examine TESOL's scholarly publications, we find that almost all of them are trivial and inconsequential, preoccupied with form rather than with substance" (p. 5). Second, Benson mentions TESOL's disregard of complex points of English grammar and usage: "In TESOL publications one rarely encounters papers dealing with the concrete difficulties of the English language that every instructor should be able to explain in class" (p. 5). Third, Benson complains about TESOL's intolerance of dissenting viewpoints: "One does not find free discussions of certain controversial issues on the pages of TESOL publications [...] There certainly can be no objection to the publication of debatable viewpoints on the pages of a professional journal; what is objectionable is that opposing viewpoints are not printed" (p. 7). Although some of Benson's observations are too caustic and, in our opinion, biased towards his own specialization, there is a grain of truth in much of what he says. In Venezuela, criticism towards VenTESOL comes from university teachers with an interest in applied linguistics research and who do not seem to find echo for that interest in VenTESOL's activities. Having been personally involved with VenTESOL at various times, we think that the problem lies more with a generalized lack of identification between university EFL teachers and EFL teachers at other levels (elementary school, high school, adult private education, etc.).

³The institutional address is: SEAMEO Regional Language Centre, RELC Building, 30 Orange Grove Road, Singapore 1025, Republic of Singapore. It has been so announced at least as far back as 1984 (Williams, Swales & Kirkman, p. 6), another sign of the strong support SEAMEO receives from the region.

⁴This mentality includes, among other things, Markee's (1988) 'appropriate technology' approach to ESP course design, which emphasizes the need to adapt innovations to the context of implementation. The concept of appropriate technology implies for Markee that a balance must exist between what is desirable and what is feasible, something which, although applicable to any context in the world, is particularly applicable to the situation of resource-scarce developing countries. Adapting ESP practices or theories before adopting them is thus a must in classrooms in the developing world. A professional association which, like AVEPLEFE, promotes links with the international state of the art in ESP must foster the adapt-before-adopting premise if it is to stay credible with its members.

⁵This paradigm is not to be blamed on the developed countries. Developing countries are accountable for their own development. The British Council, for example, cannot be blamed for facilitating communication with the U.K. The case may be that, for a number of political, economic, and sometimes technical reasons, communications between the assisted countries is not easy and therefore the locals do not seek to establish links with geographically close countries or even within different regions of the same country. Professional associations, with the help of academic institutions, can best do the kind of networking that counterbalances the center-periphery paradigm.

CHAPTER 3

SUCCESSFUL PROFESSIONAL ASSOCIATIONS: AN INVENTORY OF CHARACTERISTICS

Chapter 2 contributed to the assertion that ESP has a contribution to make to a country's economic development. It also showed that ESP teaching can be improved via teacher development programs which involve higher education institutions, government-supported organizations, and, particularly, voluntary professional associations. The information-based nature of associations was also emphasized.

This chapter will build an inventory of characteristics of successful professional associations in order to establish a conceptual framework for the proposal that will be presented in Chapter 4. This will be carried out in three stages. The first one will analyze briefly relevant theoretical works on the nature and functioning of professional associations. The second stage will analyze available documentation from or about successful professional associations, in search of practical clues to guide the professional development of AVEPLEFE. Finally, on the basis of the theoretical and practical documentation studied in the first two stages, the third stage will list an inventory of desirable ESP professional association characteristics.

3.1. Professional associations: Their nature and functioning

One common aspect of voluntary organizations such as professional associations is the volunteers' belief that management has little to do with them. Nicholas Hinton, who once headed the National Council for Voluntary Organizations in Britain, has noted that voluntary bodies see themselves as

different from other organizations. "One aspect of this difference," he continues, is "the reluctance to recognize the need for any advice or assistance with the development or management of the organization" (Handy, 1988, p. vii).

It is this lack of concern that frequently exists for the realities of association management that motivates this section of the thesis. Based on theoretical literature in the area, this section will discuss what professional associations are, how they work, and what impact their work has. The concepts involved are not directly related with ESP or ELT, but they are necessary insofar as they provide an appropriate metalanguage to refer to different aspects of professional organizations such as AVEPLEFE. However, since the intent of this section is not to theorize about these concepts but rather to bring useful notions from a field otherwise unrelated to applied linguistics, they will be presented in the manner of a briefing. But before that, we need to clarify the concept that a professional association is a type of non-profit organization.

Professional associations like AVEPLEFE are private, non-profit organizations (NPOs) and are therefore classified as pertaining to what has been variously called the non-profit sector, the voluntary sector, the non-governmental sector, or the 'third sector' (Smith, Baldwin & White, 1980; Anheier & Seibel, 1990; Hodgkinson & McCarthy, 1992). This universe of organizations also includes, among others, self-help groups, honorary scientific societies, campaigning groups, charities, philanthropic organizations, and foundations. They constitute the third sector of any country's economy because they are located between the private, for-profit world and the government (Anheier & Seibel, 1990, p. v).¹ The following features characterize NPOs and, therefore, also professional associations.

3.1.1. Professional associations share certain characteristics

According to Drucker (1990, p. xiv), a well-known figure in the field of management, NPOs produce a "changed human being," that is, a person with a sense of self-fulfillment, an empowered person, a professionally improved person. In this sense, their way of participating in a country's economy is essentially different from government and from business. NPOs also "provide innovation, are flexible, and can deliver more personalized services to specific groups or in local situations" (Hodgkinson & Sumariwalla, 1992, p. 486).

Therefore, NPOs can be characterized as "interest-mediating and service-providing institutions" (Anheier & Seibel, 1990, p. 381), whose primary functions include assisting neglected segments of the population, expanding their freedom, empowering them, and engaging in advocacy for social change (Hodgkinson & McCarthy, 1992, p. 3).

NPOs are owned by no one individual. "Power resides with their members, or with their clients as represented on the councils or management committees" (Handy, 1988, p. 79). For the same reason, their income and/or surplus are not distributed to members (Hodgkinson & McCarthy, 1992, p. 3). Other than that, an NPO's finance depends on its membership's democratic decisions. Hodgkinson and McCarthy also say that NPO development is affected by the role of the government, the availability of private resources (i.e., individuals' and national or foreign corporations' surplus cash and time), dominant religious and ethical values, and the degree of national heterogeneity.

Apart from the above characteristics, NPOs share some positive and some negative aspects. Among the positive ones, they have competitive advantages with respect to for-profit firms and public bureaucracies. They tend to be more

economically efficient, politically stable, and socially integrated than either businesses or government. They also contribute other intangible goods such as the maintenance of social value patterns (Anheier & Seibel, 1990, p. 380), human self-fulfillment, and the provision of negative feedback on the directions taken by major social institutions such as government and business (Smith, 1980, pp. 1-22/23).

Negative aspects of NPOs include what Handy (1988, pp. 6-9) has termed the 'perils of voluntarism'. The first one, 'strategic delinquency', is to neglect defining what success means for the particular NPO. This is dangerous since, without clear goals, the organization may become the agent of those who donate the most money. The second peril is the 'servant syndrome'—the belief that, on the one hand, a voluntary organization is by definition poor and should not invest in improving its equipment, premises or people, and, on the other hand, that the organization should respond to people's needs without limitation. The third peril is what Handy calls 'ideological fanaticism', i.e., a strong rejection of management and all its implications.

Perhaps as a result of these perils, NPOs may exhibit certain inherent inadequacies "such as goal diversion, lack of accountability, rent seeking, or philanthropic amateurism." (Anheier & Seibel, 1990, p. 379). The servant syndrome may lead in particular to volunteer burnout.

3.1.2. Professional associations are information-based

NPOs must be information-based if they want to be 'learning organizations', that is, organizations that readily adapt to the changing circumstances of the environment (Drucker, 1990, pp. 182-183). Internally, it is essential that there be a two-way flow of information between the executive board, the volunteers, and

the staff. The goals and work plan must be clear to all committed parties. Everyone must know not only what he/she is accountable for but also what he/she can learn and what the NPO can learn from him/her. The executive board should be able to tell what the NPO's strengths and weaknesses are and how it is performing; in other words, the organization's resources and competence must be clearly known. Answering all these questions requires internal information. However, some answers will come only after the NPO has also appropriate external information.

The relevant context where an NPO functions presents opportunities and threats. But, unless the NPO follows an information-based strategy, it will suffer the consequences of these threats and miss on many unique opportunities.² Monitoring the environment for relevant information is an essential activity for NPOs because their services and mediation strongly depend on adequate networking with outside institutions and individuals in order to keep up with the state-of-the-art in the NPO's area of expertise and identify needs (Drucker, 1990, p. 6). Monitoring is also necessary for NPOs because most of their funds come from the environment. The information flow must be two-way here too. Donors must be informed of the final use of their donations. Institutions and individuals facilitating the NPO's activities also expect to know how effective their contributions are.

Information is essential not only for everyday operation but also for long-term planning. As a preparation for planning, the critical information that an NPO gathers about itself and the community or environment in which it functions is called the baseline data (Hatcher and Hatcher, 1988, p. 91). If its planning is to be effective, an NPO must continually update and review its baseline data for usefulness and relevance.

3.1.3. Professional associations are likely to possess differences throughout the world

In spite of the similar characteristics mentioned in the previous sections, NPOs tend to be different in different types of countries:

[...] civil law countries developed a *state-oriented third sector*. Organizations in the third sector tend to resemble state agencies more closely than for-profit firms. Public service provision is emphasized over voluntarism. (Anheier & Seibel, 1990, p. 384)

A civil law country is one which, like Venezuela, has a legal system based on written codes. This explains why it is so difficult to obtain volunteer work in Venezuela since the culture seems to define that services must always be public. Private participation is small, not only when it comes to donations in money, but also to donating one's time. In contrast,

[in] common law countries, the third sector is more *market-oriented*. It puts more emphasis on voluntarism than on public service, and nonprofit firms tend to be more like for-profit firms than like state agencies. (Anheier & Seibel, 1990, p. 384)

A common law country like the U.K. has a legal system based on precedents. These countries emphasize individual participation in public decision-making and therefore individuals are more readily cooperative with regards to both the financial and volunteer work needs of associations.³

3.1.4. A professional association has its own organizational culture

Handy (1988, p. 85) explains that each NPO has "its own taste and flavour, its own ways of doing things, its own habits and jargon, its own *culture*." There are four basic styles of organizational culture (see Figure 2). The first style is called the 'club culture'—illustrated by a spider web to signify "ever-widening circles of intimates and influence. The closer you are to the spider, the more influence you have." (p. 86). The club culture is individualistic in the sense that it focuses on the

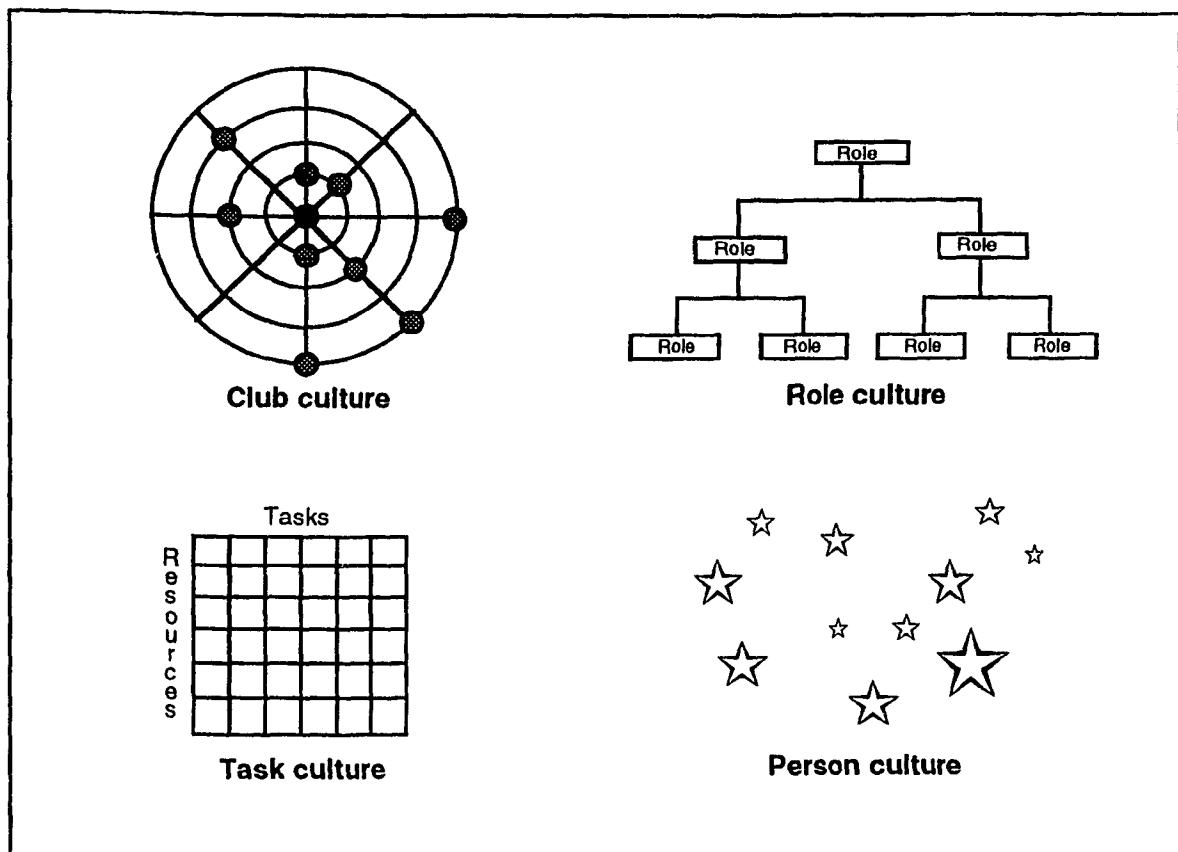


Figure 2. Organizational culture styles. Each organization is characterized by a culture, i.e., a set of values, habits, procedures, ways of seeing things, and so on. The figure illustrates the four basic types of culture. The club culture is focused on its leader's goals. The role culture is hierarchically organized by roles. The task culture deals with tasks by using resources from a common pool. In the person culture each individual comes first. For a detailed explanation, see Handy (1988).

founder, the central person and his/her goals. The second style is the 'role culture'—represented by the pyramidal organization chart characterizing large companies, where each box is a role to be filled in by an individual 'role occupant'. The role culture usually emphasizes norms and procedures which can be quite time-consuming. The third culture is the 'task culture'—represented by a matrix signifying that for each task (or project or problem) at hand, organizational resources (people's talents and other resources) are allocated on the basis of task characteristics. This type of culture is essentially problem-solving. The fourth type is called the 'person culture'—represented by a constellation of stars

meaning that the individual comes first and that the organization is set up to serve each individual.

Although initially an NPO may have a single (and usually rather simple) cultural style, "success often brings complexity and a need for the other cultures" (Handy, 1988, pp. 99-100). Four factors affect this mix of cultures (Handy, 1988, pp. 93-96): size, work flow, environment, and history. The bigger the organization, the more bureaucratic it is likely to become. The more sequential and interdependent the work is, the more regulated the organization, by necessity, has to be. The more uncertain the environment, the more flexible and task-oriented the organization has to be in order to ensure its own survival. The past history of an organization also influences its attitudes in the present, shaping them more than its members are aware of, sometimes more than is desirable for the association's effectiveness and efficiency.

3.1.5. A professional association has its own organizational shape

Anheier and Seibel say that, in spite of the fact that some researchers have argued that "the pressures created by the need to show economic efficiency are likely to cause organizations to become identical in structure and functioning, in turn leading to a predominance of formal bureaucratic organizations" (1990, p. 383), the organizational shape of NPOs varies enormously. For Handy (1988, pp. 101-120) the two most common kinds of organizational shape—'federal' and 'shamrock'—are based on the nature of the job and the nature of the structure.

At the lowest level, jobs that are repetitive and standardized, such as memo typing or form filling, make quality easier to predict but are boring. Complex tasks, such as research or development projects, are less predictable but are more psychologically rewarding. This is why job rotation is used to prevent

people burnout. At a higher level, different structural arrangements accommodate for both diversity and uniformity. NPOs first recognize different needs in their constituency and then accommodate their structural divisions to meet those differences. The more differences there are, the more resourceful NPOs have to be to keep adequate inter-divisional integration. This is achieved via a hierarchy of command, rules and procedures, and coordinating groups. As Handy (1988, p. 114) says, "diversity demands bridges."

A combination of job and structure characteristics determines the shape of the NPO. In federal NPOs, initiative starts from the parts not from the center, which has coordinating and facilitating functions rather than commanding or directive ones. Shamrock NPOs have three categories of people. The first one is the professional core—"the skilled [people] without whom the organization would not function and who [...] hold what might be called the organizational knowledge required to do the jobs" (p. 117). Sometimes, members of this professional core are paid staff. The second one is the contractual fringe, i.e., skills and services provided by volunteers or hired outside the organization if needs so dictate. Examples of this are common in fund-raising, catering or transportation, typing, book-keeping. The third one is the flexible labor force, i.e., volunteers who work part-time and with different motivations.

3.1.6. Professional associations must be managed

For Connors (1980, p. xvii), in spite of NPOs being different from government and business, they have similar areas of management and operations: organization and corporate principles, leadership and control, sources of revenue, human resource development, budgeting, accounting, record keeping, and public relations and communications. Shand claims that

Non-profit is not a method of operating; it is a definition best left to tax lawyers. The economic fact-of-life is that if we do not conclude each year with more resources than we started, we won't grow and we can't survive. We all must manage in a businesslike fashion even though we are not, in legal or structural terms, a business. (Shand, 1993, p. 3)

Voluntary organizations cannot be naïvely run: they have clients, provide services, and must finance themselves. They need strategies to accomplish their goals (Handy, 1988, pp. 3-5). Says Handy:

It is one of the key tasks of management to set boundaries, to define what has to be done, what can be done and what does not need to be done. Without that sort of discipline we abuse ourselves and those we try to help. (Handy, 1988, p. 8)

Management is especially necessary in an NPO since not many people can afford to give it their professional skills on a full-time basis (Handy, 1988, p. 119). But NPOs have to learn how to manage. McCarthy, Hodgkinson, Sumariwalla and Associates (1992) observe the widely stressed need to develop the management capabilities of NPOs while Drucker reports that "there is a 'management boom' going on among the non-profit institutions, large and small" (1990, p. xv). His book on NPO management deals with five key areas: organizational mission and leadership, strategies, performance, people, and leader self-development. A summary of his ideas follows.

First, the *mission* is a long-range statement of purpose towards which all of the NPO's goals and short-term actions should lead. A good mission statement must reflect outside opportunities, inside competences, and commitment in operational rather than unrealistic terms. Since *leadership* is accountable for results, the leader must ensure that the NPO does not lose sight of its mission. The mission must be examined to refocus it and readjust it if necessary once objectives have been reached.

Second, *strategies* convert the mission into results. A plan based on the mission contemplates strategies for marketing, innovation, and fund development. Marketing defines who the 'customer' is, who he should be, and who he might be.⁴ Marketing thus starts with knowing what the NPO can and cannot do (its competences) and what actual and potential customers expect from it. An NPO must identify different 'market segments', set specific targets for each of these audiences, and communicate a separate message to each one in their own language.⁵

Innovative ideas arise when NPOs look first outside, then inside themselves, seeing environmental changes as potential opportunities rather than as threats.

Refocus and change the organization *when you are successful*. When everything is going beautifully[...] The great majority of major institutions that have gotten into real trouble over the last fifteen years are successes that rested on their laurels. (Drucker, 1990, pp. 66-67)

An NPO also needs a fund development strategy subordinated to the mission.

Fund-raising is going around with a begging bowl, asking for money because the *need* is so great. Fund development is creating a constituency which supports the organization because it *deserves* it. (Drucker, 1990, p. 56)

Strategies also include using funds well since the money of the non-profit institution is not its own. The executive board must make sure funds are used for the results for which they were given.

Third, NPOs must measure their own *performance*. A number of performance areas are defined based on the mission and goals are set for each area. Immediate and longer-term results in these key areas can then be measured.

Only when a non-profit's key performance areas are defined can it really set goals. Only then can the non-profit ask: 'Are we doing what we are supposed to be doing? Is it still the right activity? Does

it still serve a need?' And, above all, 'Do we still produce results that are sufficiently outstanding, sufficiently different for us to justify putting our talents to use in that area?' Then, you can do the *next* important thing, which is every so often to ask: 'Are we still in the right areas? Should we change? Should we abandon?' (Drucker, 1990, p. 141)

Fourth, the *people* in an NPO are the executive board, the volunteers, and the staff. Each person's accountability should be clear, which should not be a problem if information flow is adequate. People have different reasons for giving their time to the NPO, different commitments. This sometimes demands that management be done by results rather than procedures, i.e., volunteers handed a job should be held accountable for the job done rather than for the procedure employed to complete it.

On occasion, despite emphasis on organizational performance, there must also be understanding for a volunteer's mistakes. Ideally, training for the job should be made available to everyone or, at least, clear, written instructions provided that define performance and give guidelines if not procedures. The board must be aware of volunteers' and staff personnel's aspirations and viewpoints regarding the NPO.

Finally, *leader self-development* must be constant.

The means for self-development are not obscure. Many achievers have discovered that teaching is one of the most successful tools. The teacher usually learns far more than the student. Not everybody is in a situation where the opportunity to teach opens up, nor is everyone good at teaching or enjoying it. But everyone has an associated opportunity—the opportunity to help develop others. Everyone who has sat down with subordinates or associates in an honest effort to improve their performance and results understands what a potent tool the process is for self-development. (Drucker, 1990, p. 224)

If NPOs do not apply management principles, they will end up being mismanaged and eventually driven out of existence. On the other hand, if they do, they can even influence the public agenda (Hodgkinson and Sumariwalla, 1992, p. 490), something which gives NPOs an increasingly important role in developing countries (Anheier & Seibel, 1990, p. 1; Hodgkinson & McCarthy, 1992, p. 1).

This section of the thesis can be synthesized in the maxim, "Plan or be planned for" (Ackoff, cited in Ziegenfuss, 1989, p. 3). The characteristics here described will be taken into account in preparing the inventory in section 3.3 below. For now, the next section of this chapter will describe the successful experiences of professional associations who have taken management seriously. This will give us a practical perspective on the issue of association success.

3.2. Some successful professional associations

In the author's view, the success of an association is explained in part by how much time is devoted to administration as opposed to management. There is a role for both, but administration should never predominate over management or be indulged in at the expense of management. Administration deals with the necessary, predictable drudgery of form-filling, file-keeping, and other relatively simple but time-consuming procedural tasks. Management deals with the more uncertain tasks that give direction to the association and keep it in the forefront of its field, such as strategic planning and performance evaluation. Administration should support management and this relationship is made possible when administrative details do not have to be re-invented by every executive board. Having well-defined administrative procedures is a basic aspect of an association's 'institutional memory'.

An important factor contributing to the success of an association has to do with whether management is oriented towards the accomplishment of mission-related goals. This section makes a practical analysis of documentation from real-life professional associations that have been successful in furthering the development of their membership as defined in their missions. The analysis will be guided by NPO concepts from the previous sections.

Two types of associations will be studied: ELT-related and non-ELT-related. The sampling used was selective and it can be termed a sample of convenience according to Johnson (1992, p. 111) because it was selected due to its accessibility. This, however, is not detrimental to the study's validity since this thesis will not generalize findings to any population. In Johnson's (1992, p. 112) opinion, a sample such as ours can be valuable in identifying important issues or trends.

3.2.1. ELT-related associations

The Association of British Columbia Teachers of English as an Additional Language (B.C. TEAL)

B.C. TEAL was founded in 1967. This association provided us on request with an information package containing:

- Membership Application,
- TESL Professional Certificate Application Form,
- Brochure: *TEAL Charitable Foundation*,
- Brochure: *It's Up to Us (AIDS Education in the ESOL Classroom)*,
- *TEAL Newsletter*, and
- *B.C. TEAL Policy and Procedures Manual*.

The mission of B.C. TEAL is in tune with the needs of ESL teachers in British Columbia, the multicultural province where it operates. As stated in the Constitution, which is included in the *Manual*, this association promotes effective EAL instruction, scholarship, and research, pursues to improve the professional status and welfare of EAL teachers, and acts as an EAL information clearinghouse. There are five kinds of members: individuals, students, honorary lifetime members, institutional groups, and commercial groups. The membership application lists eight services, six of which are information-related (the journal, the newsletter, the conferences, the library, the representation on special interest groups, and the membership directory). The other two are financial (assistance to attend workshops, conventions and summer institutes, and scholarships, awards, and professional development funds from the TEAL Charitable Foundation). One of the areas of interest and/or expertise listed on the application side of the form is ESP/EAP/EWP. Other areas reflect current provincial interests.

Leadership is taken seriously in B.C. TEAL. A tangible demonstration is the *Manual*, which was written with the executive board in mind. The *Manual* has eight parts: Introduction, Constitution, Policies, Procedures, Order of Business, Committees, Awards/Scholarships, and Foundation. The welcoming letter included in the *Manual* encourages new executive members to familiarize themselves with it. The letter also suggests a prioritized study sequence for the materials. In the interest of efficient networking, a list of current TEAL officials and Foundation directors with their telephone and fax numbers is also included. The information in each part of the *Manual* is extensive, but it is also precise and concise in order to answer most of the new board member's questions.⁶ The *Manual* must be returned to B.C. TEAL upon office termination by each member.

An interesting aspect of the *Manual* is that most documents bear the date when they were produced. This reflects the dynamic nature of the organization and implies that TEAL solves internal regulation problems as they arise. It also records the nature of the solution and the principles from which the solutions were derived. An example of this dynamism is the guidelines for awards and scholarships, which had to be complemented later by further policy. Another example is the by-laws, which establish the basic structural shape of the organization while deferring more specific decisions such as the amount of membership fees. Still another sign of the dynamics of B.C. TEAL is the fact that the *Manual* is regularly updated.

To ensure continuity of volunteer work, some B.C. TEAL positions are held for a longer time than others on the same team. An example of this is the Professional Standards Certification Review Board, one of whose members is asked to serve for three years while the other two serve for two years. This gives new board members an opportunity to work with an experienced person who, in turn, will derive the benefit of self-development while training them.

Among the strategies that B.C. TEAL employs to raise the status of the profession is the TESL Professional Certificate, a procedure that defines a four-level career for ESL teachers. Qualifications required are: TESL training from an accredited/recognized institution (Level One), classroom experience (Level Two), professional cooperation and/or contribution (Level Three), and master's degree (Level Four). Part of the strategy makes Level One Certificates expire in five years, after which individuals are expected to upgrade to Level Two. Only special circumstances make it possible to renew Level One.

An innovative part of the association's fund development plan is the TEAL Charitable Foundation, until recently the world's only foundation operated by an ESL association. The Foundation is a separate institution which "raises and disburses funds to promote the effective teaching and learning of English as an additional language and to advance the full participation in Canadian society of people with first languages other than English" (*Foundation brochure*).

The Foundation's brochure explains income and disbursements for 1991–1992, with 9.3% going to next year's budget to ensure continuity of operation. The brochure also lists awards, scholarships, projects, and new initiatives financed by the Foundation. Among the latter, the AIDS and Health Education Fund (created together with TESOL) grabs one's attention because of its apparent unrelatedness to the ESL profession.⁷ A list of other EAL concerns is also given: school children from non-English-speaking homes; Pacific Rim visitor instruction; cross-cultural communication skills needed by businesses; relation between racial tensions and lack of language skills; ESL teacher training and resources required. These concerns point to a view of ELT as having a strong social, political, and economic presence in the province. Even if one disagrees with any of them, they show a clear definition of goals and strategy.

An instance of B.C. TEAL's networking strategy is the *Newsletter*. The issue examined (June 1993) is 32 pages long and contains the usual: message from the president, announcements for future conferences and meetings, reports of recent conferences, a list of board members with home and work telephone and fax numbers, ESL programs at educational institutions, pictures taken in professional and social activities, book reviews, ideas exchange, information on TEAL Professional Certification, and a few advertisements. An interesting fact is that B.C. TEAL acknowledges the British Council as a long-time benefactor, who

has sent a keynote speaker to every TEAL Conference since 1980 and instituted a scholarship that has taken a British Columbia teacher to Britain each year since 1986 to meet ESL/EFL experts. This is an example of good inter-institutional relationships and means a great deal of trust based on performance has been built up by B.C. TEAL.

***British Association of Lecturers in English for Academic Purposes
(BALEAP)***

BALEAP was founded in 1972 under the name of SELMOUS, an acronym for 'Special English Language Materials for Overseas University Students'. The founding members each represented a university and were R.R. Jordan (Manchester), M. Sculthorpe (Kent), B. Heaton (Leeds), T. Johns (Birmingham), and R. Mackay (Newcastle upon Tyne).

SELMOUS later became the 'Association of Lecturers and Tutors in English for Overseas Students' until 1989 when both the acronym and the name were changed to their present form. The materials examined from this association were:

- Lists of administrative chairs, seminars and conferences, and publications,
- Brochure: *BALEAP Accreditation Scheme*, and
- *Accreditation Scheme for English Language and Study Skills Courses in Universities and Polytechnics: Handbook.*

The 1989 Constitution, which is included in the *Handbook*, states that "BALEAP is an organisation whose aims are to improve the English language provision for overseas students in institutions of higher education and to increase the professional status of the staff at BALEAP member institutions" (BALEAP, 1991, p. 17). Unlike B.C. TEAL, this association has only institutional members such as

university or polytechnic units which teach EAP to overseas students, produce EAP materials, and do EAP research. To become a member, the unit head must apply in writing to the BALEAP chairperson, who will take the application to the first business meeting following its receipt. A simple majority vote decides admittance. If admitted, the member institution appoints at least one representative to BALEAP.

BALEAP's mission focuses on standards of performance across member institutions. This evidently cannot be accomplished without looking at individual teacher development, but BALEAP's emphasis is on the broader program perspective where teachers are immersed. Therefore the training it provides is institutionally contextualized. Although not a requirement to remain active, BALEAP members are expected to apply for assessment under the BALEAP Accreditation Scheme (BAS).

The scheme is a program run by the BALEAP Accreditation Scheme Committee (BASC), which confers accredited status to EAP courses offered by members under certain conditions of quality. These conditions include: management and administration, staffing, resources and facilities, course design, teaching, student performance assessment, student welfare, course evaluation, and publicity. The BASC will either confer accreditation, declare the institution's failure to achieve it, or defer accreditation pending remedial action. If granted, accreditation is valid for three years, when course reassessment is again required. The cost of the scheme is charged to BALEAP members as an annual administration fee determined by the BASC. The BALEAP Accreditation Scheme brochure is a concise and impressive way of advertising the BAS: it not only summarizes course standards, but also lists the addresses of 25 member institutions offering

accredited courses across the U.K., something that gives an idea of the results of the association's EAP improvement strategies.

The administrative chair is rotated among members every two years. Until 1987, it was a one-year post. The complexities of coordinating activities made it convenient to extend this period (R.R. Jordan, 1993, personal communication). The rotation of administrative tasks is recognized as a strategy to avoid volunteer burnout in NPOs.

In the area of information dissemination, SELMOUS/BALEAP has been actively organizing events and issuing publications. With respect to the former, it has coordinated nine seminars and two conferences since 1975. As to publications, since 1977 until 1993, this association has put out twelve volumes, ten of which as a result of seminars or conferences.⁸ Two aspects are worth noting here: first, the volumes eventually get published even if not immediately following the event, with two-year lapses not being uncommon; and second, publishing these volumes is done through either member institutions or through the British Council. As a strategy, this way of looking for outside support is an effective way of furthering EAP development even after the seminars and conferences are over.

Société pour la promotion de l'enseignement de l'anglais (langue seconde) au Québec (SPEAQ)

SPEAQ is The Quebec Association of ESL Teachers. It was founded in 1972. The documents analyzed from this association are:

- 'Teachers Training Teachers' Colloquium Pre-registration form,
- 1992 Annual Report,
- SPEAQ News,

- SPEAQ '93 Contract for Exhibit Space and Advertising and Exhibitors' Manual,
- SPEAQ '93 Call for Presentations, and
- SPEAQ '93 Convention package (besides advertising materials, it includes the Program, an issue of *SPEAQ Out*, a SPEAQ '94 Call for Presentations, a SPEAQ/GELI Pen Pal Club Biodata Form, the *1993 Annual Report*, and a Convention Feedback sheet).

SPEAQ has built up a support framework for ESL teachers in Quebec, Canada's French-speaking province. Members are individual teachers and student teachers as well as commercial representatives. By constitution, SPEAQ does not have institutional members (Contract for Exhibit Space and Advertising and Exhibitors' Manual, p. 8).

The *Annual Reports* portray the association's serious concern for accountability. These reports make available to the membership a balance of the year's activities from different perspectives: the President, the Vice-President, the various Committees (Convention; Membership, Awards and Elections; Publications; Research and Development; Special Interest Groups), the Secretary, and the Advisory Council. (A separate leaflet displays the financial balance.) There is a section describing activities related to SPEAQ's affiliation with a local education council (the 'Conseil Pédagogique Interdisciplinaire du Québec'—CPIQ) and with TESOL international. In the *1993 Report* there is also a section on office update, which shows that SPEAQ does not suffer from the servant syndrome mentioned in the first section of this chapter. As Melvin Shantz reports, the association made an information needs analysis which resulted in the purchase of computer and telecommunications equipment that is adequate for present and future networking requirements (*1993 Annual Report*, p. 12).

SPEAQ News is a leaflet-type publication of the Board of Directors "to keep the membership in tune with the initiatives of the Board as well as trends in the field of TESL" (1993 *Annual Report*, p. 8). *SPEAQ Out* is the association's pedagogical journal, a high-quality publication which caters to the various interests of the membership. It accepts articles both in English and in French. Through the articles and announcements published in the issue examined, SPEAQ appears as a grass-roots organization actively engaged in facilitating its members' development plans, particularly via special interest groups (SIGs).

One more instance of the association's attention to information matters is the Contract for Exhibit Space and Advertising, which is accompanied by a short Exhibitors' Manual. This nine-page document invites potential exhibitors of pedagogic materials, includes a contract form and two commercial presentation forms, clearly explains exhibition conditions at the Convention location, and invites donations and contributions. The description of location conditions is so good that it is sure to have saved many an unnecessary call from publishers wishing to exhibit materials. In a profession with strong links with the publishing world, this simple document is an effective marketing strategy.

Convention performance is measured by means of a Feedback sheet. Besides the Convention, there are other activities during the year such as the one-day 'Teachers Training Teachers' Colloquium and the two-day 'SPEAQ en Région' meeting advertised in *SPEAQ Out* (December 1992, p. 11).

An example of the down-to-earth approach of this association to meeting its membership's needs is the Research and Development Committee's focus on a *Teacher In-Service Training Kit*. This training kit is composed of printed and video material. Carolyn Turner (1992 *Annual Report*, p. 11) explains that the kit was

started after a feasibility study identified four topics that Quebec teachers thought necessary for their own professional development. These topics were oral production evaluation, classroom management techniques, computer-assisted language learning, and coping with the needs of special students. One year later, the 1993 Convention featured the oral evaluation kit as a finished training product ready for purchase by participants. This is a fine display of effectiveness and commitment to realistic goals on the part of a committee that is justly called *Research and Development*. The kit was authored and coordinated by F. Bonkowski, from McGill University, which also shows how SPEAQ is a meeting place for the interests of higher education and secondary education institutions in Quebec.

Maybe inspired by the British Columbia initiative, SPEAQ now has also established a foundation. Although the *1993 Annual Report* (p. 4) mentions that technical difficulties of a legal nature had hindered the process, the foundation was announced as a reality in the course of the 1993 Convention. The way this issue was managed is another sign of SPEAQ's continuous commitment to innovative fund development strategies for the good of the profession.

With respect to SPEAQ's concerns for the development of ESL teachers elsewhere, an initiative is worth noting. SPEAQ has made professional contacts with GELI ('Grupo de Especialistas en Lengua Inglesa'), the Cuban EFL teacher association. Following the summer 1993 visit of two GELI representatives in Montreal, SPEAQ set up two projects to help this association. The first is a 'Book Collection Drive' whose aim is to encourage Quebec teachers to donate their no-longer-used books to be sent to Cuba in an effort to compensate for the isolation that political circumstances have forced upon EFL teachers there. The second

project is the 'SPEAQ/GELI Pen Pal Club', which aims at promoting the sharing of ideas between teachers in Quebec and in Cuba. The Biodata Form included in the Convention Package is meant to gather information on volunteer teachers' interests. Later this information will be compared with the one collected in Cuba in order to match teachers by interest so that they can start writing to each other. Eventually this may lead to their students' becoming pen pals too. In this way, an initiative that could be perceived as unrelated to SPEAQ's local mission may really work out to create further opportunities of ESL/EFL development for its members as well as for their students.

Through all the documents analyzed, it is evident that SPEAQ has done a great deal of work with its constituency, something that is absolutely necessary in a province where linguistic issues have a heavy political weight.

***California Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages
(CATESOL)***

We did not examine primary documentation from CATESOL. The following is based on a comprehensive description of CATESOL by Murray (1992). Her article is relevant because it describes an effort that typifies the influence that language teacher associations can have on the higher education environment when they pursue teacher and learner advocacy issues.

CATESOL has developed a series of position statements,⁹ some of which are 'Language Policy', 'The Role of English as a Second Language (ESL) in Public Postsecondary Education', and 'The Need to Increase Full-time, Permanent Teaching Staff in Adult Non-credit ESL Programs.' The association also hired a legislative analyst to monitor new bills that might affect ESL education in California, summarize the bills for the CATESOL executive board, find out key legislators' positions with respect to these bills, and then discuss them with

CATESOL executives or appropriate committees in order to plan actions when deemed necessary.

This proactive stance has allowed CATESOL to become an effective instrument in making ESL into a separate community college discipline requiring adequate qualifications from teachers. Before this, other professionals could teach ESL without any formal ESL teacher training. Their campaign stressed basic instructor competences that were described in a letter that was mailed to a number of community colleges. Murray reports that many colleges subsequently called them "asking for copies of the letter or stating how useful it has been as they have examined the qualifications of job applicants." (p. 94)

CATESOL's advocacy has not only helped determine qualifications for teaching ESL at community colleges, but has also given the association and the ESL field a higher profile in California.

3.2.2. Non-ELT-related associations

The following professional associations do not operate in the field of ELT. However, they were included here because their success is seen to be related to particular strategies that will be of use for the AVEPLEFE case.

Canadian Evaluation Society (CES)

CES is a non-profit corporation founded in 1981. The documents analyzed from this association are:

- *By-Laws of the Canadian Evaluation Society,*
- Brochure: *All about the... [Canadian Evaluation Society],*
- *Canadian Evaluation Society Newsletter* (six issues),
- Discussion paper: *Standards for program evaluation in Canada, and*

- Research paper: Knowledge required to perform the duties of an evaluator.

As described in their application to incorporate (included in the *By-Laws* and the brochure), the objects of the society are to provide a forum for the discussion of program and project evaluation issues in Canada (including theories, policies, funding sources, and so on), to promote high-quality evaluation practices, to develop evaluation theories, standards, and practices, and to promote training programs in evaluation. Support for the society's activities comes primarily from member fees; additional support comes from a three-year grant from the Social Sciences and Humanities Research Council for administrative costs.

The CES has both individual and institutional members. The individual members can be either full members or students. Institutional members can be either library members or corporate members. The professional development services this society offers its members are an annual conference and a number of publications. The latter include the *Journal of Program Evaluation*, the *CES Newsletter*, the *National Inventory of Academic and Training Courses in Program and Project Evaluation*, regional and national membership directories, and the *Evaluation Methods Sourcebook*. Another information service is the *Speakers' Bureau*, a list of presenters throughout Canada that can be used by professionals organizing events to choose potential speakers from a wide range of evaluation expertise. Some of these services are available for free on request while some others bear a price.

An indirect service is CES's campaign to make managers "more knowledgeable clients of program evaluation" (CES, [no date], p. 6). This is an invaluable aspect of the society's work in favor of its membership since by cultivating this market

segment it helps to establish communication bridges between managers and evaluators. Another service is provided through the CES Scholarship Foundation, which awards scholarships to worthy students at Canadian universities. Fund development strategies used include a one-dollar annual quota from each membership fee and donation-seeking from outside institutions. Also, some CES members "donate speaking honoraria or royalties received on evaluation-related publications" (CES, [no date], p. 11).

With respect to program evaluation standards, discussion is continuing since consultation with regional chapters has so far yielded substantial differences of opinion. Copies of the discussion paper and the research paper under debate are available upon request. The fact that the on-going discussion is held in the open attests to the society's commitment to develop standards without ignoring individual members' opinions. This is a factor that contributes to the credibility of the association. The same can be said of the process of amendments to the by-laws, which is made public in the *Newsletter* (March 1993, pp. 11-13) in order both to provide a rationale for each amendment and to invite participation.

A point must be made here about standards. The discussion paper gathers a diversity of opinions and shows that a particular profession's standards may not be an easy topic that can be voted on in one meeting. The discussion paper cites Slayton and Trebilcock (1978) to explain that organizations adopt standards for a number of reasons:

[...] to assure minimum levels of quality in their services, to define exclusive domains of practice, to be able to protect their members in litigation and/or to promote a collective sense of professional identity. (CES Standards Development Committee, 1990, p. 1)

The Committee also recognizes that there are both positive and negative points to adopting standards:

Although there may be much to be gained in terms of improving Canadian evaluation practice, there may also be much to be lost in terms of professional liberty and innovation, and much to pay for the development and maintenance of standards. (CES Standards Development Committee, 1990, p. 2)

The Committee suggests that the introduction of standards does not necessarily have an immediately observable impact on practice or client expectations while at the same time there are implementation and maintenance costs (pp. 13-14). The concepts dealt with in this paper are worth studying by members of any professional discipline inclined to implementing standards. The questions involved cannot be naïvely ignored, especially when the practice base has not been described (or is not even describable) in terms of a limited set of specific techniques.

The issue of standards is logically connected to that of professional training and education. The research paper analyzed links "tasks performed by evaluators to the knowledge required to perform those tasks" (Caron, 1991, Abstract) in order to identify knowledge modules that can constitute a nucleus of study for evaluator education. Caron concludes that, in the Canadian situation,

the current supply of courses is wholly adequate to meet the specific needs of evaluators. However, we do feel there is a need to do some promotion and to encourage evaluators to cover *all* of the knowledge modules and not restrict their knowledge to one or two. (Caron, 1991, [p. 22])

Caron concludes his paper by stating that what is needed is "to encourage a more well-rounded training of evaluators. This encouragement could be done by suggestion or by incentive" ([p. 23]), and it should take self-development efforts into account.

Related to CES's concerns with standards is the column called 'Questionable practice' in the *News/letter*, which presents real cases where evaluation practices

were less than satisfactory or downright dubious. This is sure to have an immediate impact on the development of evaluators who read the column.

Project Management Institute (PMI)

PMI was founded in 1969 (Cleland, Bursic, Switts & Güngör, 1993, p. v). Although it is a U.S.-based association, with chapters in many states, it also has chapters in other countries. The documents we examined from this association are:

- 1992 new member welcoming letter,
- 1993 renewed membership letter,
- *Project Management Journal* (one issue),
- Magazine: *PMNETwork* (one issue),
- *Publications Catalog*,
- *Project Management Body of Knowledge (PMBOK)*,
- *Sample Examination for Individuals Studying for the Project Management Certification Examination*,
- *Project Management Certification Examination Study Notebook*, and
- *Case Situations in Project and Program Management: Instructor's Manual*.

The magazine and the journal state that PMI is a non-profit organization dedicated to advancing the state-of-the-art of project management. PMI includes among its objectives: to foster professionalism in the management of projects, to identify and promote the fundamentals of project management, to stimulate the application of project management to the benefit of industry and the public, to provide an interface between users and suppliers of project management hardware and software, and to collaborate with educational institutions regarding project management career development.

To achieve its mission, PMI's services (as listed in the letters) include publications and handbooks, an annual seminar and symposium, an awards program, an employment listing service, an electronic bulletin board, a graduate degree program accreditation scheme, and a professional certification scheme.

Apart from journal and magazine subscription, the *Publications Catalog* offers twenty products, two of which are indexes to PMI papers, ten are handbooks, one is a casebook (see *Case Situations Instructor's Manual* further below), three are certification study materials packages, and the rest are books. All are published by PMI. Among the publications, the *PMBOK* is of special interest. The *PMBOK* contains a description of each of the eight different knowledge areas in project management as they have been identified by PMI. Each of the area articles features an overview, a glossary of terms, and a list of references. There are also an article that gives a general framework and a general glossary. The *PMBOK* represents the association's effort to define quality standards for professional certification:

Creating standards meant establishing a standard project management vocabulary and a standard set of terms and definitions. This vocabulary now includes over 500 entries in PMI's *PMBOK* and has received widespread adoption by numerous companies. (Choyce, 1993, p. 32)

Writing the *PMBOK* was not a simple task for the PMI Standards Committee. According to Wideman (1987), it took PMI several years to come up with today's approved version of the body of knowledge, since 1976, when the concept was first introduced at the PMI Montreal Symposium, until approval by the Board of Directors in 1987.

Certification is achieved by passing the Project Management Professional Certification Examination. In this test, given several times a year and in different

locations throughout the U.S. and Canada, each 40-question section examines competencies in an area of the PMBOK. The whole test examines all eight areas for a total of 320 questions. The *Sample Examination*, also based on the project management body of knowledge, has 160 questions. Each sample section has an answer key with explanations. The *Study Notebook* is a complementary ten-page document which gives prospective exam-takers a list of key themes and concepts as well as some study tips for each one of the areas of the PMBOK. Its author warns that

the depth of knowledge required to pass a given section of the exam is not great. However, the breadth of required knowledge can be overwhelming for anyone trying to organize a study attempt. (Frame, 1992: Introduction).

The PMI's professional development strategy also includes "learned articles" in the *Project Management Journal* and "timely articles of immediate applicability [...] as well as news" in the *PMNetwork* magazine (Cleland et al., 1993, p. v). PMI organizes seminars and workshops on various aspects of the body of knowledge too. With the *PMBOK* and its auxiliary materials and activities, the association has taken every step to provide a certification program that gives its members a concrete way to achieve 'Project Management Professional' status.

The last document that we will comment on is the *Case Situations Instructor's Manual* (Cleland et al., 1993). This manual is part of an innovative training materials initiative by the PMI Communications Office. Case situations are one of the most widely used teaching tools in the field of project management. The PMI strategy makes available to qualified PMI members a set of cases related to the *PMBOK*. These cases are intended for use in workshops, seminars or courses. The innovation lies in the fact that an instructor orders the manual for free to read a brief pedagogical review of each case. Reviews consist of a case synopsis,

learning objectives, discussion questions and possible answers, additional suggestions, and a 'lessons learned' wrap-up. An instructor can then decide which cases are relevant for his/her course and places a paid order for those cases only. Copyright is enforced throughout the process, as witness the excerpts from the law at the beginning of the manual. If an instructor wants copies of the cases for his/her students, he/she should place orders for them too. The students' copies are less expensive than the instructor's. With this *Manual*, PMI has created a flexible work tool that is directly aimed at satisfying a clearly defined need of the teaching segment of its membership.

Canadian Society of Association Executives (CSAE)

CSAE was founded in 1951. The materials we examined from this association are:

- Brochure: *Benefits of Belonging to the Canadian Society of Association Executives*,
- Brochure: *The Association Management Education Program (AME)*, and
- *The Association Management Handbook*.

As explained in the *Benefits* brochure, the mission of CSAE is "to provide the association community with the means to be more effective and to contribute to a better society" (p. 2). CSAE has regular members (association executives and managers) and affiliate members (suppliers). Regular members represent a whole range of NPOs such as industry associations (e.g., product manufacturers), commercial associations (e.g., chambers of commerce) professional associations (e.g., engineers), registered charities (e.g., some foundations), special interest groups (e.g., universities), and common interest groups (e.g., sports fans).

This association's strategies for accomplishing its mission emphasize education and information. CSAE offers a two-year, four-course, distance education program (the AME), which is a partial pre-requisite to earning the Certified Association Executive (CAE) status. The association and its chapters also offer seminars on issues related to members' needs, and a summer conference with trade show. CSAE also has a winter conference with sessions for both regular and affiliate members, something which reinforces the quality of interaction between non-profit-minded association executives and profit-minded supply company representatives. This seems to be a marketing strategy that adequately relates the association to its relevant milieu.

CAE status is reached by a member when he/she has approved all AME courses, fulfills a practical experience requirement, and completes the four-hour CAE Examination successfully. CSAE is the only organization in Canada providing "assurances to potential employers that the candidates have the necessary skills, knowledge and integrity for an association management leadership position" (AME brochure, [p. 2]). The role of CSAE in leadership development is thus clearly defined. Like other organizations, CSAE also recognizes exemplary professionalism by presenting awards and scholarships to deserving members and chapters.

Regarding information, CSAE publishes a magazine and a newsletter, a membership directory, and a *Buyer's Guide* listing CSAE affiliate members' products and services. There is also a collection of monographs and handbooks published by CSAE, one of which is the *Association Management Handbook*, which we will comment on below. CSAE's Leadership Institute provides a support program for association executives which is based on intensive monitoring of emerging trends impacting NPOs. Besides this, CSAE contributes to the

decision-making process at the highest level by helping government understand the role of associations in Canada. All of these information-related services represent the association's commitment to advocacy for the interests of its membership. In the end, this means that CSAE has become an effective provider of feedback to the country's decision-makers, which is bound to have an impact on Canada's economy.

The *Association Management Handbook* (Shand, Mandarich & Wilson, 1989) is CSAE's response to the need for adequate source materials contextualized to the Canadian circumstances. Before publication of the *Handbook* in 1989, CSAE used a great deal of quality material from the American Society of Association Executives, which unfortunately was not geared to Canadian realities (Wilson & Carisse, 1989, p. v). The editors put together fourteen chapters, written by experienced and/or certified members, and divided into three parts, each dealing with one broad area of concern for NPOs: administration, planning and programs, and personal/interpersonal skills and characteristics. Each chapter is followed by a reference list as well as a set of questions that should facilitate study by helping focus on the most important aspects discussed.

The *Handbook* states that the body of knowledge characterizing association management "consists of both material unique to the profession and material which is found in other fields" (Wilson & Carisse, 1989, p. v). The administration part of the *Handbook* features chapters on meetings and conferences, surveys and statistics, association law, financial management and accounting, and office management. The planning and programs part deals with association structure and organization, planning, public relations and communications, membership recruitment and retention, government relations, and education and training programs. The third part has chapters on the role and behavior of the association

executive, group dynamics, power relationships, executive leadership, office and member involvement, and committee operation. As a whole, this publication is an excellent professional development tool for CSAE's members.

3.3. An inventory of desirable ESP professional association characteristics

This section lists an inventory of professional association characteristics distilled from the two previous sections of this chapter. These we believe constitute the core of a set of desirable characteristics for the development and professionalization of an ESP professional association, whether it is in a developed country or in a developing one. In this sense, it represents the characteristics of an ideal AVEPLEFE that the proposal in Chapter 4 will try to project.

A successful ESP association sees the ESP profession as an ingredient of the technology transfer scenario and international communication characteristic of today's global economy. In so doing, it understands that it does in fact contribute to economic development and in what ways and by what mechanisms its contribution is made. This sometimes represents an attitudinal change from old notions that have non-profit associations play the role of second-rate institutions dependent on the benevolence of 'really productive' corporations for their survival.

A successful ESP association has a mission statement, a strategy, a development plan for its members (including leadership, staff, and volunteers), and concrete ways to measure its own performance. This also implies an attitudinal change from the ideological fanaticism that shuns management notions and from the strategic delinquency that leaves goals vaguely defined.

3.3.1. The mission: Matching ESP competencies with environmental needs

A successful ESP association constantly looks to know more about the environment in which it exists and about itself. It thus collects outside information and analyzes it in search of trends and needs that call for a response. While the ESP association deals with the academic needs of universities, it does not ignore other important segments of the market such as vocational high schools, businesses, industry or government. Within the constraints of the local situation, the association is committed to providing each of these sectors with innovative, flexible, specific language-related services. The ESP association also collects information about its members, programs, publications, activities, and so on in order to assess its own capabilities to respond to contextual needs. The association seeks to improve on these capabilities by raising the standards of ESP practice.

A successful ESP association is a source of feedback to government, industry, and the business world with respect to its English language and communication training policies. Likewise, the ESP association looks to influence higher education institutions concerning ELT/ESP teacher training. It also promotes links between these institutions, vocational/occupational secondary institutions, and adult education and training institutions.

A successful ESP association has adequate national and international inter-institutional relationships, particularly with institutions which share similar circumstances and/or concerns and which carry out state-of-the-art ESP research and practice. The association-created network tends to minimize the effect of the center-periphery paradigm.

A successful ESP association employs adequate staff to do the monitoring in various segments of the environment. When necessary, the association hires non-ESP staff to carry out tasks that are beyond the reach of ESP professionals, such as legislation analysis. The association also has a cadre of key ESP professionals who can bridge gaps of different nature (managerial, informational, governmental, commercial, industrial, international relationships). These people act as translators for the association in its relationships with relevant entities in the environment.

A successful ESP association nurtures a mix of organizational cultures that facilitates mission accomplishment. It has room for individual researchers who feel at home in the quiet of a person culture, but also for teachers who like the team work and project mentality of the task culture. The ESP association also holds a place for staff and leaders who see the need for regularity, standardization, and procedures typical of role cultures. Finally, it can also house a charismatic professional or two who need a club culture to carry out their own development goals.

A successful ESP association understands that there is not a single, ideal way of doing things. It therefore has a structural shape and a degree of formal procedures adequate to its goals. Although the ESP association looks to other similar organizations to learn about characteristics that make them successful, it does not simply copy these formal features but seeks to adapt them to its own ends. The ESP association in a developing country does not seek to resemble its counterparts in the developed world except in those things that would make goals more attainable.

A successful ESP association accepts the consequences of its size, work flow, and environment in a way that makes it constantly improve over its own history. It has a basic set of administrative norms and procedures to serve the purposes of management, which, in turn, serves to advance the mission. The association has an efficient parliamentary procedure for business meetings that respects the local culture and customs.

A successful ESP association defines membership categories in accordance with its mission. In order to attain continuity, the association makes some volunteer position terms longer than others so that new volunteers can count on experienced members to learn the organization's way of doing things. Members in leadership positions are accountable for ensuring that the association's resources are used for mission-related programs and activities and therefore present an annual report to the membership.

3.3.2. The strategies: Reaching out innovatively for people and funds

A successful ESP association works in close contact with its entire membership and constituency. To do this, it has a marketing plan, a fund development plan, and it seeks to introduce innovation in its services.

The marketing plan

A successful ESP association has clear member recruitment and retention policies. It attracts ESP teachers by devoting a great part of its efforts to the improvement of ESP practice in the geographic area it attends to. This is done primarily by teacher (and student teacher) development programs which contemplate not only their professional needs but also, inasmuch as possible, their personal and social development needs. The association also uses other commonly recognized means to attract ESP teachers, such as a journal devoted

to theoretical and practical research papers, a newsletter with articles of more immediate application, and conference proceedings. The association also keeps a database of its members with information that describes their current employment, their professional interests and their educational background.

A successful ESP association understands that its training programs, publications, regular and electronic mail networks, national and regional conventions, and meetings are all meant to put information in the hands of people who will benefit from it ultimately for the improvement of ESP practice. The association uses information to maintain a year-long presence among its membership, not only in terms of technical ESP matters, but also in terms of association business. By taking members' needs and views into account, the association gives them a sense of ownership in a network of respected professionals. However, administrative aspects do not take excessive room in the association's publications and events at the expense of ESP concerns.

A successful ESP association establishes and cultivates links with leading national and international higher education institutions and LSP/ESP or ELT associations and enthusiastically supports networking projects with them that have an impact on ESP practice, such as teacher exchange programs, electronic mail exchange, and joint authorship of ESP projects, articles, and other publications.

A successful ESP association devotes another part of its efforts to the implementation of new ESP courses in fields which are related with the country's economic development. To do this, the association campaigns to make government, industry, the businesses, and the educational institutions more knowledgeable clients of ESP. It negotiates for the interest of ESP learners by

negotiating for the interests of ESP teachers and researchers. When doing this implies lobbying authorities and politicians to get valid ESP concerns into the public agenda, it does so without losing perspective of its social responsibilities.

A successful ESP association also publishes position statements on relevant ESP topics of interest to national development. It then follows these documents through to appropriate decision-making instances in government, industry, the businesses, or educational institutions.

The fund development plan

A successful ESP association has a fund development plan, especially if it is in a developing country. This plan contemplates negotiating support from potential clients in many ESP market segments (secondary and higher education, business, industry, government, other non-profit organizations, national and international corporations and foundations) to convert them, in Drucker's terms, from donors into contributors to the association's goals. The successful ESP association facilitates the productivity of these organizations through the improvement of their human resources' language and communication capacities. This fact is in itself a powerful source of negotiating capacity for fund development.

A successful ESP association concludes each year with more resources than it starts with. To do so, it rejects the servant syndrome and uses funds intelligently in order to build up a critical mass of operational resources that favor goal accomplishment beyond the initial club-like, informal stage. Not only is it not afraid of finances and material possessions, but it actively seeks to invest its hard won funds in renting or buying comfortable physical facilities, office furnishings, and adequate information technology and services (i.e., telephone, fax,

photocopier, microcomputer with adequate software, printer, modem) as well as in hiring necessary temporary or permanent support personnel. In so doing, the association looks not only to fulfill its present needs, but also to prepare for future growth.

A successful ESF association seeks support for its publications, programs and activities not only from realistic membership fees, but also from research and development councils, donations from individuals, and cooperation from publishing houses. Whenever possible, it establishes a foundation to raise funds that can be used for awards, scholarships, convention attendance financial help, and other such services. All of the financial services of the foundation reinforce the improvement of ESP theories and practices.

The drive to innovate

Apart from commonly recognized means, a successful ESP association also offers innovative services and products. Besides the traditional proceedings, newsletters, and/or journals, the association puts out useful publications such as ESP materials inventories, ESP teacher training institutions directories, ESP theory and methods handbooks, or even flexible learner materials templates that can be applied to various situations without betraying the specific nature of ESP courses. Apart from the usual events (national and regional conventions), the association establishes, in conjunction with higher education institutions in the country, other technically and managerially feasible services to improve professional ESP standards, such as certification examinations and accreditation schemes.

A successful ESP association innovates by not insisting on a single track, academic solution to teacher training. The association develops, publishes, and

constantly reviews a set of training or self-study modules focused on learning objectives for the ESP teacher. These modules emphasize various components that ELT/ESP teacher training authors have identified, such as linguistic knowledge, specialist knowledge, teaching methodology skills, professional attitudes, and organizational and management skills (Ewer, 1983). The content of these training modules is wider than it is deep, since it tries to give every ESP teacher that studies them a comprehensive idea of ESP professional modes that may differ from his/her own experience. Through the training modules, the association strives to balance the profusion of 'atomistic' ELT practices with more holistic teacher training (Richards and Nunan, 1988). The association sees the generalization of this common background among ESP teachers as a sign of professional quality improvement, particularly since it facilitates communication and professional versatility within the field.

A successful ESP association innovates through alternative teacher development programs, in-service seminars based on standard training modules, or distance education schemes that make training accessible to teachers who live in hard-to-reach-corners of the country or who cannot attend the association's events. The association does this by using technology that is available to its members, including, as the case may require, printed materials, video, audio, and/or computer packages.

A successful ESP association encourages its members to look for suitable, innovative materials in non-ELT fields, especially those fields served by ESP courses, in order to develop practical teaching materials as well as to import concepts of value to the ESP discipline, such as project management techniques, game and simulation theories, industry and business case studies, or problem-solving techniques. The association contextualizes this material to local

circumstances without losing sight of its mission as a bridge builder in today's global scenario. As a result of this bridge-building activity, the ESP association presents its membership with lists of ESP research topics and issues that are locally relevant. The association also explores the possibility of engaging in commercial production of materials, particularly those that complement 'international' ESP books to adapt them to local situations.

A successful ESP association works as an interface between ESP clients, ESP materials suppliers, and ESP teachers. It implements creative ways to bridge the gap between ESP professionals and their relevant milieu. The association does this, among other things, by holding common training or discussion sessions for ESP teachers and non-ESP-teachers such as commercial publishers, suppliers of ESP materials, academic program coordinators, industrial training managers, public relations personnel from chambers of commerce, and officials in the government. The association also runs an employment clearinghouse linking potential employers with ESP teachers.

3.3.3. The development plan: Improving ESP practice and association work

A successful ESP association has a development plan for its executive members, volunteers, and staff. This plan contemplates both their technical ESP improvement and their managerial improvement.

Technical improvement

A successful ESP association encourages members of the executive board, volunteer members on different committees, and staff with an ESP background to get involved in ESP research, development, and/or teaching. The association promotes discussion on ESP theories and practice among these professionals

and therefore expects them to do presentations and workshops in professional events, setting an example for the rest of the membership. The association's teacher development programs and activities are also made especially available to members who volunteer their time.

Managerial improvement

A successful ESP association understands that its intrinsic mode of operation is by facilitating information flow and information dissemination among its executive board, volunteers, staff, and the rest of the membership. Therefore, the association has a leadership training kit (or handbook, or manual) and a support program for members who take care of association business. In particular, members in leadership positions (the executive board, volunteers on committees) are trained to use parliamentary procedures, to present annual reports, and other skills that make association business more efficient and avoid people burnout. In the same line, the association has clear descriptions of what the regular committees should do, when they should do it, how they can do it, and what mission-related results are expected from them. For example, the committee dealing with publishers' exhibits is given an exhibit organization manual with instructions on how to address the publishers. The association documents all of its policies and guidelines in file so they can be used to facilitate regular operation.

A successful ESP association has an executive board which respects the assembly's democratic values and facilitates planning, budgeting and financial information on request. The executive also invites participation in decision-making by regularly publishing association business, such as amendments to the constitution or the by-laws, in the newsletter or an ad-hoc leaflet and asking

for members' opinions. As representatives of the association's leadership, members of the executive board give attractive presentations on organizational aspects of the association during events as a way to train potential volunteers.

3.3.4. Performance: Measuring success

A successful ESP association periodically reviews its own operations. Since it first establishes goals which are in tune with its mission and then objectives, activities, and tasks which are in tune with its goals, it measures its own performance in fulfilling the mission in many practical ways. The association keeps track of its plans (marketing, fund development, innovation, technical and managerial development) by examining their observable results (e.g., research papers presented, training materials produced, services provided, contributors engaged, government policies approved, and so on). Although there is an element of subjectivity in evaluating some performance, the successful ESP association knows that essentially, many results are measurable and quantifiable. It therefore carries out surveys and keeps statistics of performance which build up the baseline data necessary for periodical mission review.

A successful ESP association makes decisions that correct its own plans on the basis of observed performance. Eventually, these decisions can even deal with changing the mission or some aspects of it; however, regularly, most decisions have to do with re-focusing and changing goals and doing the subsequent planning adaptations required. The association keeps written documentation of all major decisions.

3.4. Conclusion to this chapter

The present chapter has listed an inventory of ESP association characteristics based on the study of theoretical works on association management and the

examination of practical examples of existing professional associations. The following chapter will take this inventory as one of the elements to build a proposal for the professionalization of AVEPLEFE.

Notes to Chapter 3

¹The contribution of the third sector to the global economy is difficult to calculate. Estimates can be guessed at based on, for example, the fact that for 1985 Britain alone was reported to have between 150,000 and 350,000 NPOs of all kinds (Handy, 1988: 3). The U.S. has been estimated to have more than 6 million NPOs, i.e. about 30 groups per 1,000 population, employing "one of every ten service workers and *one of every six professional workers*" (Connors, 1980: xv). Whatever the figures, some authors agree that NPOs "seem to take on more importance in nations where government resources are limited such as in developing countries" (Hodgkinson & Sumariwalla, 1992: 489).

²For example, Hodgkinson & Sumariwalla (1992), citing Williams (1990), say that "in the Third World [i.e., the developing world], the World Bank is increasingly working with nongovernmental organizations and including them in their grant to governments" (p. 491). This may well be a funding opportunity to be explored by professional associations such as AVEPLEFE.

On the same line, in Venezuela, CONICIT, the National Scientific and Technological Research Council, recently launched a funding program for information projects. The first year, very few applications were received and of those received, many did not have the characteristics of an information project. This led the Council to implement a nation-wide training drive to motivate and improve application submissions since many institutions needing information projects to solve their problems did not know how to write them. The author participated in the drive as an instructor and had the opportunity to observe the generalized lack of experience faced by many individuals in a broad range of professions when they have to write a project to obtain funds. In this sense, too, professional associations must overcome their deficiencies in searching for opportunities that are waiting to be seized.

³This difference between cultural approaches might explain the negative perception that some Venezuelans have of VenTESOL, an association where many Americans work together with Venezuelans. The perception unjustly sees VenTESOL as an "American club". In our opinion, and if we follow Anheier and Seibel, after doing the same amount of volunteer work, an American will feel he/she has fulfilled his/her share of culturally expected community work, while a Venezuelan may feel that his/her talents, time, and sometimes even money have been abused. As a consequence, it used to be that fewer Venezuelans got involved in the association's business, which then logically was taken over by an apparent majority of American volunteers. Fortunately, this situation has been gradually changing since VenTESOL decided to actively promote regionalization. In addition, the economic and political circumstances of the country increasingly point to a need for citizens' participation which many individuals may have already felt. This scenario must be taken into account by AVEPLEFE in developing its own professionalization.

⁴Drucker's own clever definition of a customer is "a person who can say no" (p. 55) to the NPO that approaches him.

⁵Some people might like to explain marketing strategies as a manifestation of what Ivan Illich, the famous educational critic, calls 'iatrogenic power'. Handy (1988: 74) says that Illich "is the great adversary of 'iatrogenesis'—the way doctors, for instance, may unconsciously or consciously induce people to think they have the illnesses which they can cure. The professions, argues Illich, depend on people feeling inadequate in the areas in which they are skilled. They therefore have a vested interest in de-skilling their clients." We disagree with this view of marketing an NPO's competences and associate it with the 'ideological fanaticism' pointed out by Handy (see above in section 3.1.1).

⁶For example, the Committees section of the *Manual* describes the different committees and boards that take care of TEAL business. An alphabetic list is given with an indication of the optimum number of committee members. The Policies section lists sixteen policies, among which are those concerning sale of the TEAL membership list and labels, executive member expenses, TEAL request for support from executive members' institutions, staff salaries and expenses, and review of sensitive correspondence. Each policy bears the date when it was approved. The Procedures part includes procedures for executive meetings, financial reports, the newsletter, office use, photographs, and appointment of TEAL committees. The Order of Business section of the *Manual* describes meeting and parliamentary procedures. The Awards/Scholarships part gives guidelines which include purpose, amount, eligibility, notification, criteria, application procedure, supporting documentation, expectations, announcement, use of funds, and application deadline. All of this information represents the institutional memory of B.C. TEAL and allows the executive to focus on central issues of professional development while repetitive tasks take on an appropriate auxiliary role.

⁷Concern with AIDS is justified in the *AIDS Education* brochure: "the ESOL classroom is a safe place to talk about issues that are culturally and socially sensitive."

⁸Some of these publications were listed in Table 2 in Chapter 2 of this thesis.

⁹The Position Statements and the Statements of Teacher Competencies are available from Dr. Denise E. Murray, Chair, CATESOL Teacher Education Committee, English Department, San Jose State University, San Jose, CA 95192, USA, according to the article we read (Murray, 1992, p. 95).

CHAPTER 4

PROFESSIONALIZING AVEPLEFE: A PROPOSAL

Chapter 3 provided us with an extended inventory of desirable features making up a successful ESP association. Such desideratum is one answer to the question 'What future do we want for AVEPLEFE?', but says little about *how* this may be achieved. On the basis of the conceptual framework represented by the inventory, the present chapter will propose an answer to this question, i.e., an operational framework to solve the problems facing AVEPLEFE as presented in Chapter 1 by professionalizing the association's activities. In turn, the national development of Venezuela will benefit from the increased professionalization of the ESP enterprise.

The focus of this chapter is on planning. The rationale for this is that an organization needs planning so it can

choose a future rather than be forced into one. If you don't plan your own future, someone else will be planning it for you. Then all you will be able to do is react to decisions already made by somebody else. (Hatcher & Hatcher, 1988, p 4)

Or, as Ziegenfuss (1988, p. vii) says, an organization's future will eventually "emerge either randomly or by design. A randomly arrived at future is unlikely to meet the specific needs of those who have a particular future in mind." The only reason this thesis has looked at the past is to identify problems, to obtain background data, and to reflect on experience.

4.1. Some useful suggestions

In looking for models and tools that can be of help in planning AVEPLEFE's future, the concise document *Developing an Association for Language Teachers: An Introductory Handbook* (Allwright, 1988) has been found useful. It is the product of the combined experience of a team of highly experienced participants to an international symposium on the development of teachers' associations held in Lancaster in 1988. The *Handbook* offers suggestions for teachers who wish to start an association or who wish to generate ideas for the development of an association that already exists. It covers the following topics: rationale for associating, getting started, structure and membership, activities, finance, and publications. It also calls for collaboration from professionals interested in association development.¹

The *Handbook*, however, as the author acknowledges, is too concise to develop many of its useful ideas and suggestions in any detail. Perhaps it can be used to introduce ESP teachers to relevant topics of professional associations. In this sense, it has a great value as a discussion document or a motivational one, but it does not provide us with tools to draw a plan, only with itemized lists.

4.2. A social intelligence system model for AVEPLEFE

Páez-Urdaneta (1992), a Venezuelan linguist working in the field of information theory, offers a model for a 'national intelligence system' which is worthy of our attention due to its explanatory power and potential applicability to the dynamics of professional associations. By 'intelligence' he means social intelligence, i.e., "a society's capacity to successfully resolve the problems it faces by using its current knowledge or knowledge it has access to" (Páez-Urdaneta, 1992, p. 108; our translation). His model refers to the society at large and to the role of

information specialists as agents for development.² We think it is also applicable to professional associations since these are groups which are called to make a contribution to the development of a profession and, as we have observed, they operate by carrying out various information-related activities.

We will present here Páez-Urdaneta's model briefly with the help of Figure 3. A national intelligence system (NIS) exists in the context of a geographic area where socioeconomic, political, cultural, and educational components interact. The country (or state or province, as the case may be) faces problems, which hinder normal operation of its components, as well as opportunities, which can be used for strengthening components. The system is made up of a number of elements which operate in this environment to give a socially relevant response to both problems and opportunities. These elements of the NIS are called 'effectors' because each one has a mechanism to operate specific effects within the system. Effectors are linked by an 'activation circuit' network, i.e., one in which an effector triggers another effector to respond with an appropriate action, such as accepting information, transferring it or processing it. The system also has a way to control the quality of the effectors' different technical operations.

This model of a NIS can be adapted to fit AVEPLEFE's proposed role in the development of the ESP profession and of Venezuela, particularly if one takes into account Páez-Urdaneta's description of the effectors' mechanisms and effects. Sensors monitor the environment, filter what they see there and, as a result, perceive a *need* which they communicate to the operators. Operators refine and pack information relative to this need in the form of a *documented response*. Tanks further contextualize and consolidate this response into *action models* and position them through promoters, who contribute to their *socialization* among users, who in turn put the models to *action*. As a small society, an

AVEPLEFE organized for intelligent action has sensors, i.e., ESP practitioners interested in surveying the Venezuelan needs for ESP services in industry, business, government, and universities. There are also operators, such as AVEPLEFE staff in a central, reasonably well-documented office linked to a network of ESP-sensitive librarians throughout the country's institutions. AVEPLEFE tanks represent the Venezuelan capacity for ESP research and development and include not only academic institutions such as Universidad de Los Andes, La Universidad del Zulia, and Universidad Simón Bolívar, but also other types of institutions such as CEPET, the oil industry training center. Tanks

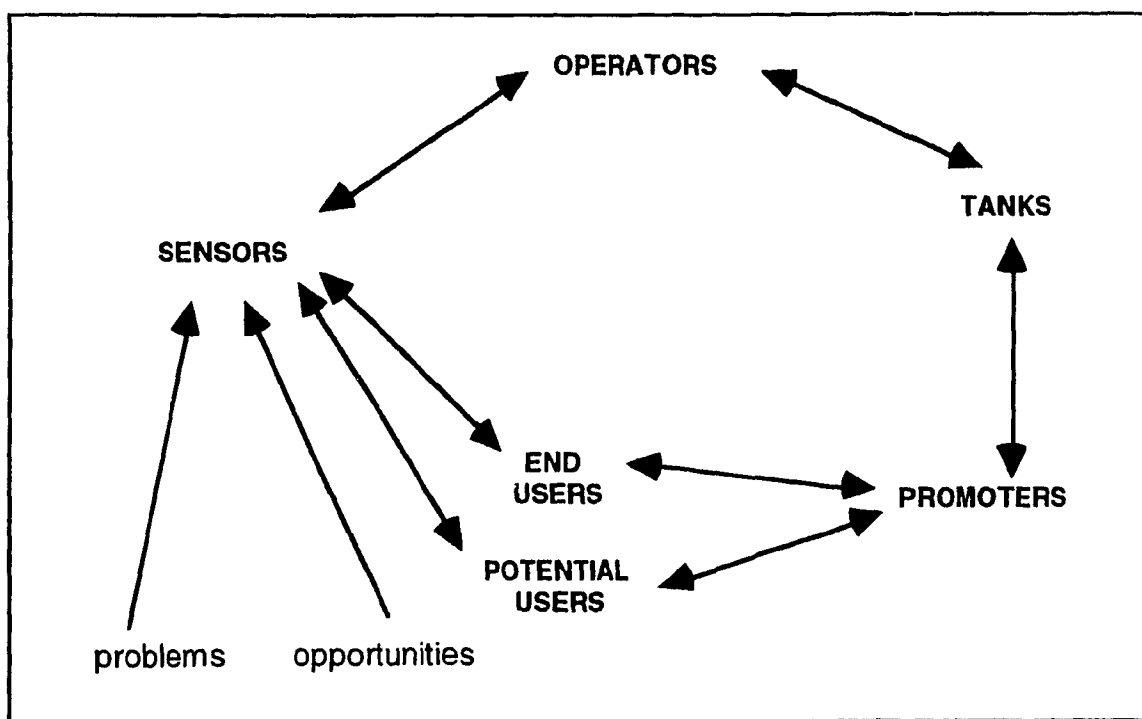


Figure 3. A model for a national intelligence system. In this simplified version of Páez-Urdaneta's model, *sensors* perceive opportunities and problems in the environment and direct them within the system, mostly through *operators* such as information centers. These operators organize and analyze information relevant to the problem or opportunity and then activate *tanks*, i.e., institutions such as universities and research centers, which in turn evaluate this information and turn it into intelligent action models for the national society. Tank-made models are placed in the hands of *promoters*, who make them available to *end users* and *potential users*. It is the users who transform models into concrete social actions. For a detailed explanation, see Páez-Urdaneta, 1992, pp. 112-118.

can even be not-so-large institutions, as long as they do research that translates needs and documents into action models such as ESP theories, materials, training or consultants. Many teachers in the tanks work as promoters of other colleagues' and their own models in AVEPLEFE events, activities, and publications. AVEPLEFE staff also works in ESP model promotion by facilitating information about the association to the targeted public. Users of these models include not only ESP teachers willing to adopt or adapt teaching approaches in their own classes but also, for example, personnel training coordinators in industry in need of guidelines for ESP course design or for hiring ESP teachers.

Within Páez-Urdaneta's model, AVEPLEFE should facilitate the work of all effectors, particularly by playing the roles of operator and promoter. This seems essential to the nature of the association and can be done via networking, publications, and promotional activities. Most of the members would be in the roles of sensors, tanks, and/or users, going to AVEPLEFE in order to relay information that can be of use to members playing other roles. In this way, the association would be informed of what is going on in the country with respect to ESP and it will develop the capacity of working as a kind of clearinghouse. See Figure 4 for an illustration of this.

If, for its starting point, AVEPLEFE learns to identify strategic needs of the country that call for an ESP response, then the whole NIS model followed will result in the association's insertion in the process of national development as a consciously active element. Again Páez-Urdaneta (1992, pp. 118-123) suggests that a concrete way to do this is by identifying 'macrothemes' in the current five-year plan that every government puts out, which "is the official coordinating instrument for national development activities" (p. 119; our translation). In his

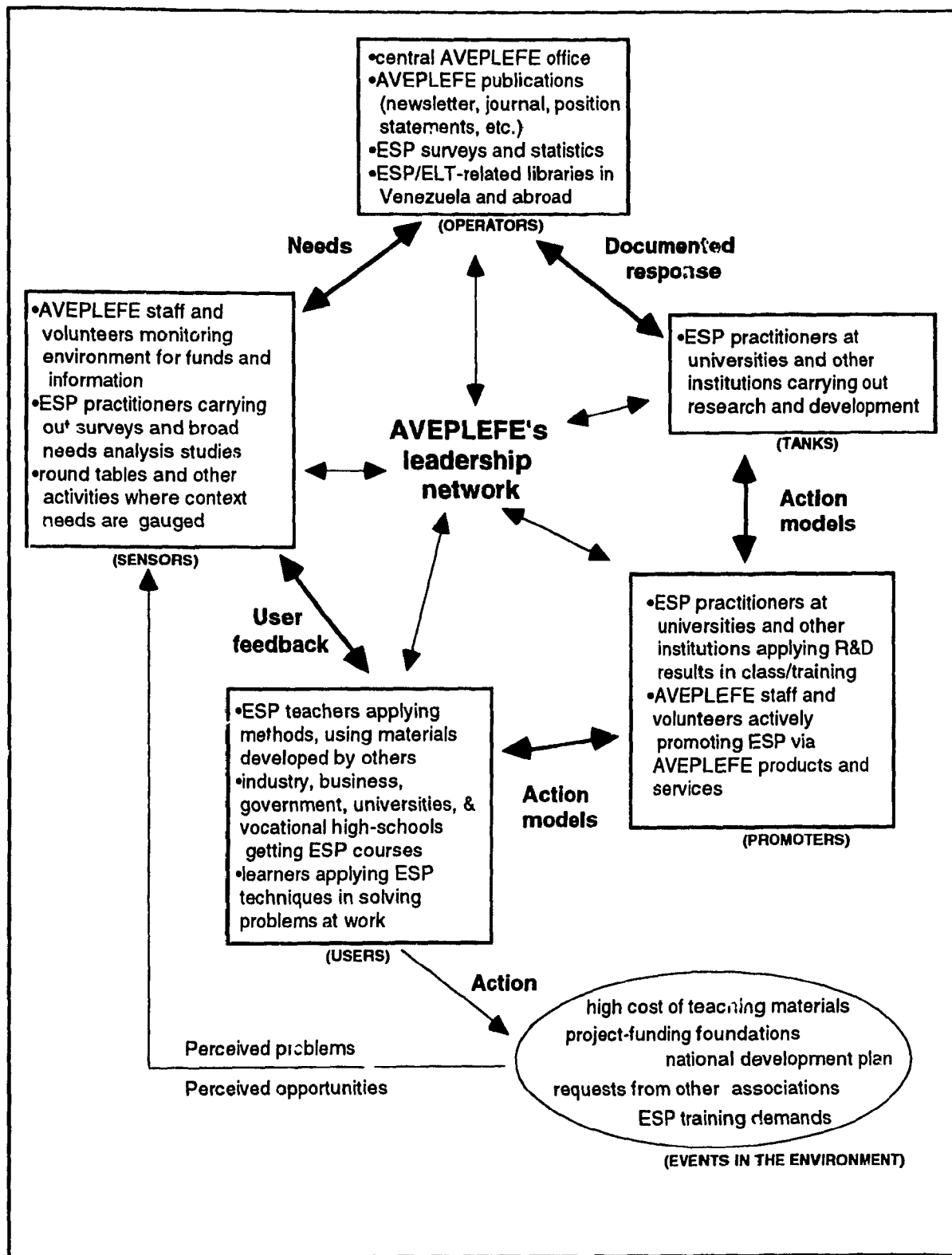


Figure 4. AVEPLEFE as a social intelligence system. Following Páez-Urdaneta's (1992) model, the figure illustrates what roles the various effectors would play in an AVEPLEFE organized as a social intelligence system within the national environment of ESP-related events.

example, he cites the *VIII Plan de la Nación* as having the following macrothemes: social commitment, growth without inflation, international competitiveness, environmental conservation, regional development, territorial security, institutional change, and capitalization of human resources. The last macrotheme is a logical place for AVEPLEFE's insertion since it has to do with the "integral formation of human resources in accordance with the new requirements of economic, social, and cultural development" (p. 121; our translation).

The social intelligence system model is a holistically useful way of looking at AVEPLEFE and complements the conceptual framework started in the inventory. In other words, most of the items in the inventory can be seen as pertaining to one or more specific components of the model. However, in spite of its value, this model does not provide us with tools to draw a concrete plan either.

4.3. Planning a strategy for AVEPLEFE's future

The concept of planning is, of course, not unknown to language teachers. Stern (1992, p. 3) describes a three-level conceptual framework for second language teaching theories. His framework includes a general level of theoretical foundations, an interlevel of educational linguistics, and a practical level of methodology and organization, which includes planning and administration. At the lowest level, professionals with ELT training regularly plan what will go on in class. At a higher level, many are also involved in course planning and administration, deciding matters such as who will teach what class, what resources are available, what needs to be ordered and so on. Language teachers concerned with curriculum development—often the case with ESP practitioners—also know about a planning process that involves identifying and analyzing

language needs, writing instructional goals and objectives, outlining the course syllabus, selecting/designing teaching methodology and materials, devising instructional evaluations, implementing the curriculum, and evaluating curriculum implementation (Stern, 1992, pp. 43-48; Richards, 1990, pp. 1-19; Mackay & Bosquet, 1981, pp. 1-28).

Planning tools are adapted to the ends pursued. A lesson plan or a table of specifications, for example, can be used by a teacher to plan a single class or a test, respectively. Other tools, such as Rodgers and Richards' (1987) 'program planning profile' (cited in Richards, 1990), furnish problem-solving and group-discussion procedures to "administrators, curriculum planners, and teachers that [focus on] different categories of considerations in curriculum design" (Richards, 1990, pp. 20-25).

So, one might assume that ESP professionals are familiar with some planning tools. However, in his book *Understanding Language Classrooms: A Guide for Teacher-Initiated Action*, Nunan, in talking about teachers as planners, says that

there is evidence to suggest that many teachers focus on classroom tasks and activities rather than following a logical sequence of needs analysis/entry behaviour specification, objective setting, task design and evaluation. (Nunan, 1989, p. 22)

In any case, if the inventory of characteristics of successful ESP associations presented in Chapter 3 is to become a reality for AVEPLEFE, the association needs to learn how to tap and improve on whatever planning knowledge ESP practitioners have in order to design and implement a well-thought-out strategy. As we see it, the inventory is an indication of the amount of work to be done and it suggests that AVEPLEFE will need to manage two kinds of projects:

- multiple small projects to attack the many opportunities and problems facing the association, and
- one longer-range, strategic project that can serve as a framework to all of the smaller ones.

Of these, the long-term project must be the first to be started since it will result in a well-defined strategy for AVEPLEFE's professionalization.

Since the inventory is an idealized version of an ESP association, a more natural point of departure for immediate action is the list of symptoms given in Chapter 1. These symptoms portray the current apparent ineffectiveness of the association and can be more useful than the inventory in identifying priority areas for AVEPLEFE's development. Figure 5 illustrates this by listing clusters of related symptoms and possible projects to attack them. The figure labels some of these as priority projects and shows that there is one long-term strategic project and a number of smaller ones.

Ziegenfuss (1989, p. 5) says that there is not one best way of doing a strategic plan, but suggests an eight step procedure that can be used by any organization:

1. planning to plan (i.e., designing the planning process),
2. external analysis,
3. internal review,
4. creative design/redesign of desired future,
5. matching current and desired future,
6. choosing strategies,

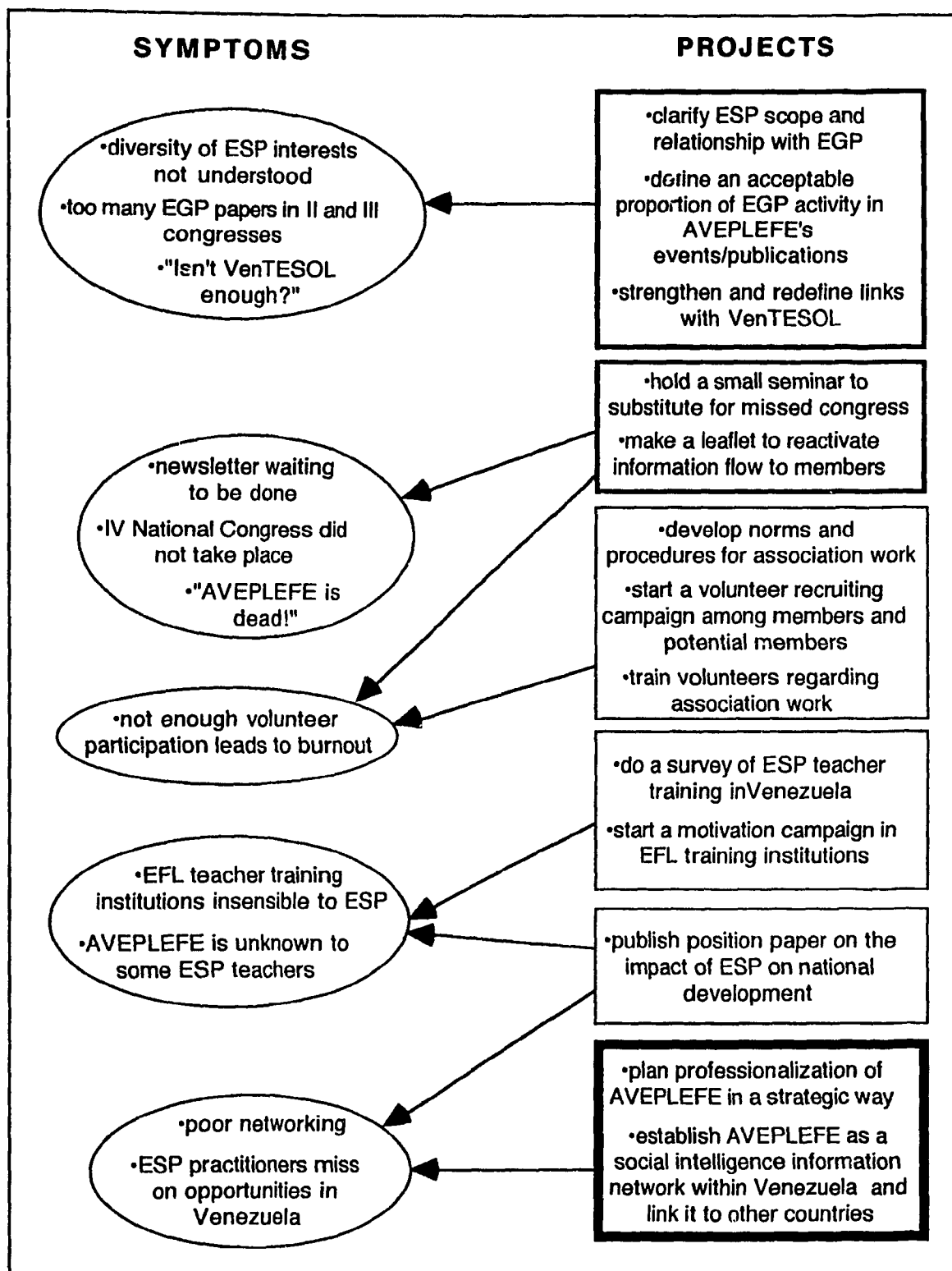


Figure 5. Symptoms of AVEPLEFE's apparent ineffectiveness and projects to attack them. The illustration shows clusters of current problem areas and proposes clusters of projects to respond to them. Highlighted project clusters correspond to priority areas. The thickest box represents AVEPLEFE's long-term, strategic plan project.

7. identifying actions and programs, and

8. linkage of strategies, actions, and programs to operations and budgeting.

This is not a task for one person, as Ziegenfuss himself talks about a planning team right from step 1. Therefore the proposal in this thesis must be considered a working document to motivate key AVEPLEFE members to team up and plan a strategy for the association's future.³ The planning team will need a concrete way of looking at strategic planning without being required to become experts in a non-ESP field. Cleland gives us some clues about what this way is:

Strategic planning establishes the mission, objectives, goals and strategies for where the organization wants to go in its future. *Strategic design and implementation* is concerned with how the organization is going to get there through the planned use of resources. *Strategies* include things such as short-term action plans, policies, procedures, resource allocation directions, programs, and projects. (Cleland, 1990, p. 39)

Programs focus on strategic purposes (i.e., the organization's broad objectives and goals based on its mission). But it is projects that are of special interest for us here since they operationalize the implementation of the general strategy. *We therefore propose, first, that AVEPLEFE should start a process of strategic planning based on a project management approach and, second, that AVEPLEFE should do this by using a concrete tool that can be intrinsically appealing to ESP professionals, namely, the project brief.* Each of these concepts will be discussed in the next two sections.

4.3.1. A project management approach

What is a project?

Managing projects requires a clear definition of what a project is.

A project is an undertaking that has a beginning and an end and is carried out to meet established goals within cost, schedule, and quality objectives... (Haynes, 1989, p. 3)

and which is not a routine operation.

While programs seem to extend themselves indefinitely into the future to ensure the organization's continuous fulfillment of its mission, projects are much shorter in span and have clear time boundaries. Every project creates something visible—a product, a service, a capacity—that did not previously exist and that will contribute to the overall strategy (Ingram, 1989, p. 3; Cleland, 1990, pp. 1-2). Thus a project has quality standards to satisfy. A project consumes human, material, and financial resources which must be shared with other projects within the institution. This means that projects also have cost limitations.

An example will illustrate this. AVEPLEFE's mission includes the development of ESP teachers in Venezuela. To achieve this, the association could choose to have a financial support program for teachers attending ESP seminars at certain institutions. The program would have several projects. Initially, one project would focus on establishing an operational base and structure for the program itself. This project would define norms and procedures regarding matters such as application requirements and amount or mode of the financial aid. After this, there would be various projects for fund development, perhaps one per identifiable ESP clientele group, i.e., a fund development project that seeks support from industry and business, another from universities, another from

government, another from international foundations. Each project has a quality dimension (a predetermined fund-raising goal sets the standard of performance), a time dimension (the funds must be raised by a certain date), and a cost dimension (the resources employed to visit potential contributors are limited). Another project would promote the financial services among potential candidates by encouraging them to apply and by informing them of the options available. Still another project could develop an ESP teacher training curriculum to be taught at the seminars. These projects would also have the three parameters of time, cost, and quality—only expressed in a different way.

When is a project needed?

A knowledge of the project approach is necessary for "those who have been assigned, who assume, or who are preparing for leadership roles in education" (Ingram, 1989, p. 1), a description we think befits AVEPLEFE. Westrup (1992, pp. 43-44) cites Bowers (1987) as proposing a methodology for language teacher training that includes project management. According to Cleland (1990, pp. 40-48), a project is needed when the proposed undertaking is larger than normal and unfamiliar (non-routine), when the environment where the organization exists is constantly changing, when the objective sought affects interdependent components of the organization, when scarce resources must be shared, when the undertaking is perceived as very important to the organization, or when organizational reputation is at stake. All of these apply to the problems faced by AVEPLEFE and the type of undertaking represented by the inventory. Cleland also says that project management may not be required when there are stable, standard ways to achieve the desired result, not at all the case with AVEPLEFE.

What is project management?

To Haynes (1989, pp. 3-5), project management involves directing a project through its four phases. (1) During the conception and definition stage, preliminary ideas are produced, organized, explored, and tested for feasibility. (2) If an idea is judged feasible, then the project planning stage transforms it into a plan, i.e., a written document that outlines how the idea will be carried out within the parameters of quality, time, and cost. (3) In the implementation stage, the tasks outlined in the plan are carried out. Tasks in progress are monitored so that they can be done within the specified parameters; corrective actions are adopted when needed. (4) Finally, the project completion stage hands over the results of the project to the end user and evaluates whether or not these results satisfy initial expectations outlined in the plan. Table 3 shows some similarities between lesson planning, curriculum development, and project management.

The rationale for project management is that it provides an approach that allows one to plan, organize, motivate, direct, and control an organization's efforts and resources towards achieving its goals. Haynes says that

project management brings together and optimizes the resources necessary to successfully complete the project. These resources include the skills, talents, and cooperative effort of a team of people; facilities, tools, and equipment; information, systems, and techniques; and money. (Haynes, 1989, p. 3)

A project management approach appears to provide a useful operational framework for the professionalization of AVEPLEFE. However, the association will only develop project management skills by carrying out projects. The central technique for this is the *project brief*.

Table 3
Similarities between lesson planning,
curriculum development, and project management

ACTIVITIES	LESSON PLANNING	CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT	PROJECT MANAGEMENT	STAGES
ANALYZING	entry behavior	needs in context	needs in context	CONCEPTION AND DEFINITION
SPECIFYING	instructional goals and objectives	instructional goals and objectives	project scope, purpose and objectives	PLANNING
OUTLINING	lesson content	course syllabus	implementation strategy (schedule)	
SELECTING AND DESIGNING	tasks, materials, and instructional tests	methodology, materials, and examinations	tasks, resources, and control measures	
IMPLEMENTING	lesson (i.e., teaching it)	new curriculum	tasks	IMPLEMENTATION
CONTROLLING	lesson (in terms of student feedback)	effectiveness of new curriculum	task quality, cost, and time	
COMPLETING AND EVALUATING	lesson (formal test)	immediate and long term learning outcomes	project final evaluation	COMPLETION

Note. The purpose of the table is to emphasize that project management is not a totally alien technique to ELT/ESP professionals, who have been trained in lesson planning. Of course, the scope of lesson planning is narrower than that of project management. On the other hand, ELT teachers (and particularly ESP practitioners) involved in curriculum development are in fact involved in an educational project requiring management techniques.

4.3.2. The project brief

The project brief is a concise document that outlines the most important elements of the project. It is known variously as project outline, project brief, project summary, project overview, project proposal, or project plan (HM Inspectors of Schools, 1991; Haynes, 1989; Ingram, 1989; Golding, 1978). The greatest advantage of the project brief is that it *exteriorizes* projects, i.e., it describes

ideas, plans, and intentions within clear parameters on paper so that they can be carried out even by those not involved in their conception.

What characterizes a project brief? As it is proposed here (and the name suggests), it should take no more than two or three pages. Although it can have appended material, it should not be necessary to refer to it to understand the project's essence.

The format of the project brief should be standard so as to facilitate communication within the association, particularly in the context of multiple small projects (Westney, 1992, pp. 13-14). A standard format can be as easily understood by individuals sitting together in a meeting as it can by people in different geographic regions of the country since everyone involved knows what to expect with respect to form. A standard format facilitates project comparison and selection, control, revision, and evaluation. Also, when used as documentation to accompany support requests, the standard project brief communicates coherence and structure to potential contributors.

The components of a project brief are:

- project name,
- overall purpose,
- project general objective,
- project specific objectives,
- results to be accomplished,
- time frame,

- resources,
- project strategy,
- review dates,
- additional details, and
- responsibility.

Project name. This is the official name of the project, the name by which it will be identified in AVEPLEFE documents and publications. It should be concise but descriptive.

Overall purpose. This describes the global intent of the project, i.e., what goal the association wants to further in doing this project. The goal must be in direct relationship with the association's mission and it is likely to be inscribed within one of the association's programs. It is usually expressed as a phrase starting with 'To.' Program affiliation may be indicated.

Project objectives. This part of the project brief lists one general objective and a few specific objectives.

The general objective is a statement of what needs to be done in order to accomplish the overall purpose and is also expressed as a phrase starting with 'To.' However, while the overall purpose might use an abstract, idealized kind of language (e.g., 'To stimulate the development of EAP reading tests in Venezuelan higher education institutions'), the general objective uses a more concrete language that refers to an observable goal (e.g., 'To organize a two-day inter-institutional seminar on EAP reading tests for March 28, 1994'). The general objective is thus the operationalization of the overall purpose.

The project's specific objectives are also statements of what needs to be done, but they refer to partial goals, i.e., those goals that add up to achievement of the general objective. The specific objectives are then the operationalization of the general objective, under which they are listed.

There should be no more than a few objectives, perhaps three or four, but this will depend on the project's complexity. A test for the adequacy of project objectives is to ask first the question, 'Is every one of these objectives *necessary* for attaining the overall purpose of the project?' If the answer is no, one should take out those objectives that are unrelated to the project. Then one can ask the question, 'Are the remaining objectives *sufficient* to attain the overall purpose?' If they are not, one needs more objectives.

If project objectives are taking too much space in the project brief, this is an indication that there might be more than a project. In this case, one can resize the project by selecting those objectives that are most related to each other and by transferring the rest to another project, for which one can write an appropriate project brief later.

Expected results. This answers the question 'What exactly is the project going to create?' A list of the most important products, services and/or capacities that the project will create is adequate here. This part of the project brief refers to the quality parameter of the project, the measurable performance that we should expect from it. That is why items on the list should be briefly described so as to facilitate later control of quality features in the results.

Time frame. This answers the question 'How long will this project take?,' i.e., the period of time that has been scheduled for the project. Project start and project completion dates must be indicated.

Resources. This is the answer to the question 'How much will the project cost?,' i.e., 'How much human effort will be employed in the project?,' 'What kind and amount of other resources will it need?' Abridged budget information should be included here, which implies that the project planner has carefully listed all items that imply an expense and found current prices for each item. If no costs are listed, at least the information should give an approximate idea of the kind of expenses the project will incur.

Project strategy. The question here is 'How are the expected project results going to be accomplished within schedule?' An enumeration of stages of the project leading to the specific objectives should be given here, with indication of what tasks are to be done in each stage. A graphic device such as a network plan can also be used since it helps visualize the tasks and their relationships to other tasks and to the specific objectives.

Review dates. 'When are we going to control that the project will be done within schedule, cost, and acceptable performance?' These are the dates for evaluation of partial results or partial task completion. This might lead to corrective action or to changes in the initial project brief. The last date indicated corresponds to the summative evaluation of the project.

Additional details. This includes short notes, when necessary, about the project's background, its relationship to other current projects, references to useful works or completed projects, and assumptions or conditions of implementation, such as training or funding needs that need to be resolved for the project to be successfully completed.

Responsibility. The final part of the project brief gives the names of the people who are accountable for the project, as well as the capacity they are acting in.

The following section will illustrate the project brief technique by presenting a project proposal in the standard format of the project brief.

4.4. The project brief for writing AVEPLEFE's strategic plan

The following project brief does not correspond to the strategic plan itself. As we saw above in section 4.3, it would be unrealistic for a single person to even attempt writing it. What we propose here is a project outlining the tasks necessary for the first step of strategic planning, namely, 'planning to plan,' in Ziegenfuss' words. Our project thus only represents our view of how AVEPLEFE can go about writing a strategic plan with participation of its membership.

<i>Project name</i>	Writing AVEPLEFE's Strategic Plan
<i>Overall purpose</i>	To give direction to AVEPLEFE's process of professionalization for a number of years.
<i>Project objectives</i>	<p>To produce a written document that expresses AVEPLEFE's Strategic Plan.</p> <p>(1) To form a Planning Team to represent AVEPLEFE members.</p> <p>(2) To design planning processes and procedures for this project.</p> <p>(3) To write a mission statement for AVEPLEFE.</p> <p>(4) To write a plan for AVEPLEFE's technical and managerial improvement.</p>

<i>Expected results</i>	<p>AVEPLEFE's First Strategic Plan: A document composed of a mission statement, and a number of mission-based plans, such as an innovative member development plan, a marketing plan, and a fund development plan.</p> <p>A Planning Team with experience in strategic planning for a small teacher association.</p> <p>A membership stimulated by its participation in the planning process of AVEPLEFE's future.</p> <p>Additionally: A number of informal documents that can provide input for future AVEPLEFE projects as rough drafts of ideas. E.g.: research and development priorities, certification and/or accreditation, inter-institutional relationships, norms and procedures, convention preparation.</p>
<i>Time frame</i>	<p>Twenty-one months, starting January 1994 and ending September 1995.</p>
<i>Resources</i>	<p>Human: The Planning Team (at least two AVEPLEFE members from each of the first three executive boards involved in the preparation of the national congresses; plus one representative for each AVEPLEFE region); secretarial support for typing or word processing as needed; one-time, technical consultancy from an ESP professional with experience in setting up projects for sustainability and in strategic planning in education.</p>

Information: Four discussion documents—*AVEPLEFE's Ineffectiveness Symptoms List*, *Inventory of Characteristics of Successful ESP Associations*, Allwright's (1988) *Handbook*, and *AVEPLEFE as a Social Intelligence System*. Copies of these documents for each member of the Planning Team.

Financial: Mailing expenses for 2000 pieces of regular mail; mailing expenses for special mail; two round-trip airplane tickets to Mérida for each member of the Planning Team not living there; accommodation, and expenses in Merida for four days for the same people; airplane ticket, accommodation, and expenses for one week for consultant; photocopying expenses.

Material: stationery; photocopying paper; office supplies.

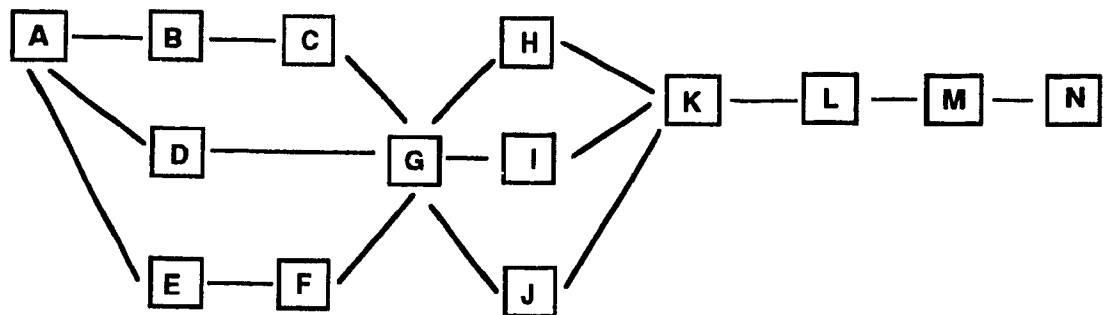
Project strategy

Jan-Aug 1994: (A) establish contact with potential Planning Team members, (B) get Planning Team commitment, (C) distribute discussion documents, (D) prepare first meeting, (E) examine consultantship options, (F) get consultant.

Sep-Dec 1994: (G) first meeting of Planning Team, (H) write mission statement, (I) write technical and managerial development drafts, (J) design planning procedures.

Jan-July 1995: (K) consult members on mission statement and technical and managerial drafts, (L) second meeting of Planning Team, (M) write final mission statements and technical and managerial development plans.

Sept 1995: (N) present final Plan at national congress for approval.



Review dates

May 1994, October 1994, March 1995, September 1995.

Additional details

Allwright's *Handbook* can be photocopied without infringing copyright laws as long as comments on its use are sent to the author.

Project success depends strongly on motivating and giving initial training to members of the Planning Team. Success also depends on support from three universities: Universidad de Los Andes, La Universidad del Zulia, and Universidad Simón Bolívar. Financial support can be sought from the research and development funds of these institutions.

Financial support should also be sought from other sources, including CONICIT, the National Scientific and Technological Research Council, particularly.

Responsibility

In his capacity of project initiator, the author of this thesis is responsible for preparing the working documents by editing adequate sections from Chapters 1, 3, and 4.

Responsibility will be defined after initial contact with potential Planning Team members.

The above project brief should be one of the first things to be made available to potential Planning Team members. This has a two-fold advantage: first, it will motivate discussion, and second, it will incidentally introduce a standard project brief format that will give a common language to the ESP community in Venezuela.

4.5. Conclusion to this chapter

This chapter integrated both a conceptual framework and an operational framework in a proposal to professionalize AVEPLEFE. First, the chapter complemented the inventory in Chapter 3 by introducing the idea of a social intelligence system. This concept presents AVEPLEFE as an association which successfully resolves ESP problems in the environment by making knowledge and information available to its members and other potential users. Then, the chapter illustrated how project management can help to operationalize the professionalization of AVEPLEFE by means of a specific planning technique, the project brief. An example of the use of this technique was given, resulting in a proposal that can be submitted to AVEPLEFE members for discussion.

Notes to Chapter 4

¹The address given is: Language Teacher Association Development Group, c/o Dick Allwright, Department of Linguistics and Modern English Language, University of Lancaster, Lancaster LA1 4YT, U.K. (Allwright, 1988, p. 23).

²Páez-Urdaneta defines development "not as a strategy to *reach the countries whose economies are the most advanced*, but a strategy to manage opportunities, particularly those that supereconomies willingly or unwillingly leave aside" (p. 111-112; our translation).

³In fact, this thesis has provided elements that can be used in various steps. The statement of the problem, the background of the problem and the review of the literature contribute to steps 2 and 3 (external analysis and internal review). The inventory of characteristics of successful ESP professional associations can be used in step 4 (creative design/redesign of desired future). The proposal in this chapter will be of use in steps 5 through 8, but it should be considered primarily a tool for step 1 (organizing the strategic plan).

CHAPTER 5

CONCLUSIONS

This thesis has addressed the problems of the Venezuelan Association of Teachers of Foreign Languages for Specific Purposes (AVEPLEFE) from the viewpoint of the ESP practitioner interested in association development. Symptoms of the apparent ineffectiveness of the association were listed and contextualized locally and within the background of ESP in the developing world. An analysis of theoretical works in the field of association management and of practical documents from existing associations yielded an inventory of characteristics of the successful ESP association. This inventory, together with a model of the association as a social intelligence system, forms the conceptual framework of our proposition to professionalize AVEPLEFE. A project management approach and a technique known as the project brief form the operational framework of our proposal. We believe that the integration of these two frameworks fulfills the first purpose of the thesis.

The thesis had the additional purpose of establishing how the ESP profession can contribute to the national development of Venezuela. We believe that this purpose, too, has been fulfilled, particularly by the inclusion of the model of the social intelligence system. In this model, the success of the ESP association lies in its integration to the national environment in order to identify problems and opportunities that call for an ESP response and to create such a response. In this sense, AVEPLEFE will better serve the interests of Venezuela if it adopts a professionalization strategy that takes Páez-Urdaneta's model into account.

The scope of the thesis left out important aspects of today's ESP theory and practice. The following is a list of areas where AVEPLEFE could encourage its members to carry out projects. Some will require research projects into the technical aspects of ESP teaching/learning; others will require projects to augment AVEPLEFE's or its members' managerial capacity; still others will require a combination of both. Projects in the areas listed have a potential local impact since, in our opinion, they respond to needs of ESP practitioners in Venezuela.

- Surveying priority ESP research needs in Venezuela.
- The use of group work problem-solving techniques in ESP.
- Applicability of ESP action modes to other LSPs.
- ESP vs. EGP: How specific can courses for X client type (industry, business, government, academic institutions) be?
- Use of Spanish in the EAP reading classroom.
- Use of the (bilingual/monolingual) dictionary in the EAP reading classroom.
- ESP and Spanish for specific purposes in Venezuela.
- Team-teaching in ESP.
- Regional events as a strategy to decentralize ESP teacher development.
- Inventory of national ESP resources.
- Contribution of ESP to the development of X client.

- Giving AVEPLEFE a street address.
- Fund-development skills for ESP practitioners.
- Management skills needed by different AVEPLEFE members.
- AVEPLEFE information maintenance work.
- Connecting AVEPLEFE-related institutions via electronic mail.
- Guidelines for volunteer work.
- Developing the capacity of effector roles in AVEPLEFE as a social intelligence system.

We hope that our proposal will give AVEPLEFE some ideas to transform the problems facing it today into opportunities for a sustainable process of ESP professionalization.

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