

**CHAPTER TWO**  
**LITERATURE REVIEW, RELEVANT STUDIES**  
**AND CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK**

**A. Literature Review**

**1. English for Specific Purposes (ESP)**

English for Business and Economics is one part of English for Specific Purposes. English for Specific Purposes or abbreviated as ESP. ESP is the branch of ESL and/or EFL which was developed because of the rapid growth of English in all areas of disciplines in all over the world (Hutchinson, 1987). It has increased over the decades as a result of market forces and a greater awareness amongst the academic and business community that learners' needs and wants should be met wherever possible (Brunton, 2009: 2).

Hutchinson and Waters (1987) traced the early origins of English for Specific Purposes (ESP) to the end of Second World War. In the new commerce-driven world, many saw the need of learning English, which was considered the accepted international language. Nonnative speakers saw it as the new *lingua franca* that responded to their needs of cross cultural communication, business doing, and information sharing (Teodorescu, 2010 as cited by Ramirez, 2015).

During the 1960's, changes in the world's markets resulted in the rising of ESP as a discipline as mentioned by Hutchinson and Waters (1987). ESP emerged due to the development of the world's economy, which entailed the progress of technology, the economic power of oil-rich countries, and the increasing amount of overseas students in English-speaking countries (pp. 6-7). Also, according to Johns and Dudley- Evans

(1991) as cited by Ramirez (2015), the international community recognized the importance of learning English not only as a means to achieve the transmission of knowledge and communication but also as a neutral language to be used in international communication. Therefore, ESP is functioned to help language learners cope with the features of language to develop the competencies needed to function in a discipline, profession, or workplace (Basturkmen, 2006: 6).

At a 1997 Japan Conference on ESP, Dudley-Evans, as cited by Gatehouse (2009) offered a modified definition of ESP. The revised definition he and St. John postulate is as follows:

#### 1. Absolute Characteristics

- ESP is defined to meet specific needs of the learner;
- ESP makes use of the underlying methodology and activities of the discipline it serves;
- ESP is centered on the language (grammar, lexis, register), skills, discourse and genres appropriate to these activities.

#### 2. Variable Characteristics

- ESP may be related to or designed for specific disciplines;
- ESP may use, in specific teaching situations, a different methodology from that of general English;
- ESP is likely to be designed for adult learners, either at a tertiary level institution or in a professional work situation. It could, however, be for learners at secondary school level;
- ESP is generally designed for intermediate or advanced students;

- Most ESP courses assume some basic knowledge of the language system, but it can be used with beginners (1998: 4-5).

This definition of characteristics makes clear that there is the clarification of what ESP copes with, that ESP is the unique part of ESL and or EFL which requires certain characteristics, certain learners with certain context.

Considering that ESP is unique and can be different from each other depends on the purposes of learners, many different methodologies come to be used in designing the course of ESP and the target of learning. Absolutely, when ESP course has to be conducted, a need analysis becomes the key, an important and basic part of ESP, because it plays as major source of information about the students' wants, needs and job needs (Sulistio, 2016).

As what is argued by Brunton (2009) there are some issues raised up concerning with ESP, as follows:

a. The importance of need analysis as a fundamental part

★ An undoubtable fact from ESP is that needs analysis is and always will be an important and fundamental part of ESP. Brunton elaborates that the need for need analysis in ESP emerged in the 1970's to bridge the learning gap between target language use and current learners proficiencis. It was previously concerned about exprt gathering and data driven about learners. Somehow in its way to modern era, it is found out that actually the focus has to be to the learners' subjective needs.

b. The scope of ESP

Another issue that is argued by Brunton is about whether the course of ESP should be broad or narrow. Does it have to be limited only to certain objective situation or skills or can it be broadened to a range of skills and situations nearly outside the needs of learners.

c. The authenticity of materials

The materials of ESP should be authentic, up to date and relevant (Bojovic, 2006). He argues that the use of authentic learning materials is possible if we accept the claim that ESP courses should be offered at an intermediate or advanced level. The use of such materials, modified by teachers or unmodified, is common in ESP, especially in self-directed studies or research tasks. The students are usually encouraged to conduct research using a variety of different resources including the Internet (2006: 489). Therefore the instructors of ESP ideally have to conduct regular course book evaluation to see the relevance to the students' need.

d. Curriculum development of ESP

The next significant issue about ESP is about the curriculum development. is another important issue in ESP. Vivic (2011) argues about preparing ESP materials as also mentioned by Hutchinson (1998) regarding the design of ESP course. As Vivic mentioned, one of the most important issues regarding ESP materials selection and/or writing is whether the materials selected should be solely or primarily subject specific and what the most appropriate ratio of general materials to subject-specific materials is. This of course is not an easy task to do because somehow Xenodohidis

(2002) states that *'the goals should be realistic, otherwise the students would be demotivated*. Indeed Hutchinson & Waters (1987) believed that all decisions as to content should be based on the learners' rationale for learning.

## **2. English Learning at University in Indonesia**

English after World War II has been developing so much into international language for every nation in the world in order to develop and interact to other nations. As Ramirez (2015) points out, that "by the shrinking of the world, where nations become borderless and communication becomes massive, English continues even more rapidly grows as the lingua franca of all kinds of disciplines all over the world, for example engineering, business and economics, health, media, government". As the consequence, the demand for English study in such disciplines, in this case is ESP, also grows so fast, especially in the countries where English becomes a foreign language yet it has significant role in every single disciplines of work and study.

In Indonesia, ESP for students is used as English subject in Vocational School, and non English Department faculties in universities. As mentioned by Poedjiastuti (2017) upon graduation students are expected to be able to function in workplaces and to be ready to accept the challenges that exist within these, and to be able to answer the challenges of the global world, English is deemed to be a crucial skill that should be mastered by all students and staff, both for academic and administrative matters.

Then, what is it for Indonesian students? In Indonesia, students learn English in order to fulfill the school curriculum requirement, to pass the national examination, to compete in the job markets, or to obtain promotion or professional development of a certain position (Sari, 2018). Therefore, as the demand for English in the professional and occupation context becomes higher than before, the Indonesian government

supports more and more educational institutions to offer ESP courses to meet students' future career needs or to meet the global trend as well (2018: 2).

However, there are some issues raised up in realizing ESP courses to be able to fulfill students' need for their future job. As mentioned in the previous part of this chapter, ESP deals for adults and for professional needs of the students' future career. Therefore the university students should have not learned General English. They are supposed to have been in the more advanced English, or at least intermediate level of English to get the optimum benefit of ESP.

Based on Fania Sari's arguments (2018), the issues of ESP instruction for University level in Indonesia are as follows:

**a. From the view of students' proficiency level as contribution to the students' readiness.**

The students' proficiency level impacted on these factors as follows:

**i. Residential area**

The place of where students live generally influences the students' proficiency in English. Generally, students in urban area are better in English than those in rural area. The need awareness is also possessed bigger by the students in urban area than those in rural area. In urban area, students know that English is an almost absolute requirement of every company and institution. On the other side, in contrast, in small cities, the use of English as a communication is low. English is infrequently practice and concerned on grammar and tenses. Students from remote and some small cities express a negative experience of English teaching due to its grammar teaching focus.

## ii. Heterogeneity

The difference in the students' language proficiency has an effect on ESP instruction. However, the big class where the students had the diversity of competence level as barriers for ESP teachers in a teaching-learning process that is the challenge of ESP teachers how to develop their professionalism in ESP teaching and improvement of ESP teaching quality. It is rare to find a homogeneous group of learners in one class. In other words, learners are different in terms of experience in the workplace with language proficiency, cognitive abilities, etc.

The big size of the class is also a barrier for the teacher in implementing the ESP course. It is not ideal to train the class effectively. Most of the classes of schools and universities had more than 30-40 participants who had involved in ESP course. With this condition, the teachers of ESP give more practice and monotonous strategies which could lead to the students' lack of learning interest.

## iii. Lack of vocabulary

Vocabulary for ESP course is categorized for pedagogical purposes into high-frequency words, academic vocabulary, technical vocabulary, and low-frequency words (Widodo, 2015). In fact, students have no knowledge of English etymology, so they can not understand the meaning of a sentence when they do not know the meaning of a word or a few words in it. Paniya (2008) as cited by Sari (2018) in her research claimed that due to the inadequacy, the ESP instruction in Indonesia has been limited to the specialized lexicon and sentence structures and this ignored the learners' interest. As a result, this dependence limits the flexibility and imagination of learners and many learners give up when they can not remember and use ESP for their work.

#### iv. Inadequate Language Skills: Reading, listening, speaking and writing skills

In reading skill, the students had low ability in comprehending the texts. The reasons are that there is a limited exploration of reading English textbooks, scientific articles, journals and unfamiliar terminology in their disciplines. The teachers concerned about the grammar in reading class to lead the students to be able in producing the grammatically correct sentences when answering the questions. Based on her observation, the students were disinterested (Poedjiastutie, 2017)

In writing skill, the students faced problems related to vocabulary, organizing ideas, grammar, and spelling. In writing for ESP is the barrier for the students to organize ideas logically and connect them together in their writings. They need to write for different purposes in a wide variety context and for different audiences.

In speaking and listening skills, the students' lack of exposure to these skills, they spend most of their time learning concerning on grammar. Even in communication or speaking classes, many teachers still try to focus more on accuracy than fluency (Poedjiastutie, 2017). As a result, the development of the students' communicative competence might not achieve. In short, ESP students need to be able to use and understand the language which occurs in the types of texts used in their disciplines.

#### v. Motivation

The success of ESP can not isolate from motivation. Based on Marwan's study (2009), he found that the students were not motivated to study English because it was not their main intentions in this vocational institutions and they were not

unaware of the importance of English for their professional life, so their teacher had barriers to transfer knowledge to these students. Moreover, there are some factors contributing to increase and stimulate the students' motivation. First, it concerns the objective of the course which must be authentic to meet the needs of students so that they are motivated and their achievement is supported. It is argued that having the clear objectives of the materials will support the students to increase their motivation. Second, the teacher also has a significant influence on the students' motivation (Marwan, 2009). They should need to create a fun atmosphere in the process of ESP teaching and learning and make efforts to help improve students' motivation their subject matter teaching.

#### **b. The ESP Teachers**

Almost ESP teachers/lecturers in Indonesia graduated from the English Department and less competence and experience in teaching ESP course because their educational background not related to the specialized subject of ESP (Kusni, 2013). However, teachers/ lecturers should be trained at least once a year in producing the qualified teachers and adequate teachers of ESP. According to Kusni (2013), the government and some institutions had lack of awareness in producing and preparing ESP teachers/lectures for vocational school and universities and rarely invite them to get training, workshop, seminar or other organizations in-service development.

However, the quality of ESP teachers in Indonesia still is still low because they lack competences, knowledge, and some kind of training. Ali (2015) states that the low quality of Indonesian education based on some experts' analysis is caused

by the lack of Indonesian English teachers' competences and participation. Based on the statistical data, from 32 teachers in these schools, there is only 18% who has pedagogical competences and professionalism. From the educational background, it is recorded that there are 28 teachers (87, 5%) bachelors and 4 teachers (12, 5%) are English magister. As results, the ESP teaching methodology had inadequate preparation, had lack of qualified ESP teachers and had not much opportunities to get involved in any activity professional development. Dealing with these problems, there are some solutions to this situation some methods might be useful are: 1) surveys of the history and present state of ESP in your own or other countries; 2) the ESP teachers collaborate in development of ESP; 3) exchanging the information about ESP through the form of publication; 4) involving the provision that focuses on ESP. Such provision can take a variety of forms: workshops, seminars, short courses, and ESP teacher training etc.

Furthermore, ESP teacher requires three things: (1) a positive attitude towards the ESP content, (2) a knowledge of the fundamental principles of the subject area, (3) an awareness of how much they probably already know (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987). Furthermore, making the methodology more attractive and enjoyable can be a valuable weapon in countering demands for subject-specific ESP.

### **c. Materials for ESP Course**

#### **i. General English (GE) for ESP course**

Generally, the ESP teacher still teaches general English in some institutions and schools which is required in the implementation of ESP.

Similarly, the objective of ESP course in some universities and schools is still like General English. Based on Poedjiastuties's study (2017), she said that most ESP teachers actually focus on general English because of the low English proficiency of the majority freshman at UMM. Moreover, in implementing the ESP course, the students are able to use English sufficiently at a general level. In fact, the students at the target university are not at this level. In line with her study, Kusni (2013) stated that many majors non-English are intended to develop the students' mastery of grammar, basic English skills (reading, writing, listening) which the content is general English subject and sometimes the teacher teach TOEFL for ESP course, it is to use as a part of the assessment of reading test.

Furthermore, GE and ESP are not separated, but rather to complement each other (Poedijastutie, 2017). In addition, according to Yu and Xiao (2013), designing an ESP course also require a considerable amount of GE along with an integrated functional and technical language for the target situation. However, the General English is concerned with communication for daily interaction. It should be learned to transfer the information about social aspects where those not only used the technical language but also non-technical language.

#### ii. The quality of ESP materials

According to Widodo (2015, p.20), in teacher training and teacher professional development in Indonesia, many English teachers work with vocational students use English textbook prescribed by policy makers without analyzing it critically of whether they suit students' needs. Furthermore, the textbooks for the ESP course developed without considering the students' needs

(Widodo, 2015). (Hutchinson & Waters (1989) claimed that choosing ESP materials refers to the goals and objectives derived from needs analysis would improve the students' motivation and thereby make learning better and faster.

However, such learning materials which are really suitable for the needs of the students are not always available (Harsono, 2007). This condition the teacher should be creative in developing the materials for ESP course that is appropriate for the student's needs by identifying what the students need. By identifying needs, it is necessary to set the objective of the ESP course, as a result, the teachers can design their own materials for achieving the objectives that are worthy to the needs (Harsono, 2007).

In this case, ESP materials is often developed by the ESP teachers whose are still lack of specialized knowledge of certain subjects area, such as economics, physical sciences, etc, because most of the teacher for ESP course is graduated from the English department and they are not allowed to take part in refresher courses on methods and knowledge of teaching ESP. It is to have an impact in contributing to the quality of ESP materials. It is supported by Widodo (2015) claimed that ESP teachers do not have vested interest in designing or developing ESP materials because of time constraints, lack of institutional support, insufficient resources, no professional training in language materials development, no national curriculum promotion, and no organization or team of teacher development of language materials development.

iii. The use of available textbook for ESP course

The teachers of ESP implement the available book taken from outsider which is not relevant to the context of Indonesia demands, the target needs, and

the competence level of students. The use of existing books in delivering materials makes the students feel bored and lazy, especially the students of the first semester who is beginning to learn English, most students are introduced with tenses and grammar in order to lead the students to feel awkward and frustrated during learning ESP (Kusni, 2013). In line with Kusni, Poedjiastutie's study showed that the students' lack of readiness for the ESP course is mainly due to teachers' poor teaching ability and particularly their inappropriate choice of materials. In this case, the ESP teachers used teaching materials almost coincident with those used by the English Department for teaching general English. This is contradicting with principles of developing ESP materials claimed that materials should assist to prepare the students to function outside in the classroom, such as in their real life or future career. However, teachers usually use any textbook available to teach their students without evaluation of the textbook whether it works and or not. However, evaluation can result in the most effective textbooks which can be used in the classroom. (Harsono, 2007).

#### iv. Limited resources for ESP course

Some universities might not provide the facilities to accommodate effective teaching and learning ESP. It is supported by Marwan (2009). Based on the results of his study, the institution had inadequate the facilities to access the teaching materials by using the internet which its connectivity was not reliable and very slow. Similarly, The library resources were not insufficient to provide the textbooks and printed journals which can be used as references for ESP course. He also found that the language lab was not well-maintained and maximized to support their teaching especially, listening and speaking skills.

Thus, the students are not adaptability to explore their skills. This condition does not support the teachers and the students for carrying out quality teaching.

### 3. KKNI (*Kerangka Kualifikasi Nasional Indonesia* – The National Qualification Framework of Indonesia)

The National Qualification Framework of Indonesian (*Kerangka Kualifikasi Nasional Indonesia*) has become a milestone for the world of higher education in Indonesia to produce quality and competitive human resources at the global level. Regulation of the President of the Republic of Indonesia Number 8 of 2012 in article 1 states that:

“*Kerangka Kualifikasi Nasional Indonesia, yang selanjutnya disingkat KKNI, adalah kerangka penjenjangan kualifikasi kompetensi yang dapat menyandingkan, menyetarakan dan mengintegrasikan antara bidang pendidikan dan bidang pelatihan kerja serta pengalaman kerja dalam rangka pemberian pengakuan kompetensi kerja sesuai dengan struktur pekerjaan di berbagai sektor*” ( Indonesian National Qualification Framework, hereinafter abbreviated as KKNI, is a framework for qualifying classification competencies that can juxtapose, equalize and integrating between education and fields job training and work experience in the context of giving recognition of work competence in accordance with the structure of the work in various sectors.)

(2014: )

As UUPT (*Undang-Undang Perguruan Tinggi* - High Institution Law) number 12/2012 and The President Regulation number 8/2012 states, the curriculum of High Education in Indonesia:

1. prioritizes the equality of learning outcomes,
2. consists of attitudes and values, work ability, scientific mastery, authority and responsibilities
3. the formulation of minimal learning outcomes is listed on the SNPT (*Standar Nasional Perguruan Tinggi* – High Education National Standard) and the results of agreements of similar study programs.

#### 4. Communicative Approach

The term "approach" refers to the general principles and theories concerning how languages are learned, how knowledge of language is represented and organized in memory, or how language itself is structured (Richards, 1986). As further explained by Sam (1990) it takes into account the basic units of language structure and the nature of language proficiency. It also considers the psycholinguistic and cognitive processes involved in language learning and the conditions that allow for effective learning to take place.

Shift in approach in language learning took place in the 1960s, when audiolingual approaches dominated the European and American continents. However, various discoveries in the field of linguistics and learning psychology led to audiolingual and situational methods based on structural linguistic theories and behavioral psychology theories being abandoned as happened in the tradition of English language teaching (Aziez et.al., 2000).

The Communicative Approach thus refers to the beliefs and theories of language teaching which emphasize that the goal of language learning is communicative competence. (Richards, 1985). "Communicative competence" here refers not only to a knowledge of the grammatical rules of a language and how to form grammatical sentences but also to know when, where and to whom to use these sentences in a speech community (Richards, 1986, as cited by Sam, 1990).

### **a. Characteristics of Communicative Approach**

Communicative approach leads to communicative activities to be conducted to classroom. As stated by Sam (1990), communicative activities have the following characteristics:

1. They are purposeful. They are beyond strictly practising particular structures.
2. They are interactive. The activities are often conducted with others and often involve some form of discussion.
3. Authentic materials are used. The situations in which the learners have to use language should be as realistic as possible. The language models given should be authentic.
4. They are based on the information gap principle.

### **b. Guiding principles behind the use of communicative activities**

Morrow (1981) as cited by Sam (1990) has provided some guiding principles behind the use of communicative activities as language teaching and learning techniques. They are as follows:

#### *1. 'Knowing what you are doing'*

This principle makes sure that each part of the lesson focuses on some operation which the student would want to perform in the target language. For example in teaching listening, the task could be to listen to the arrival and departure times of the aeroplane.

#### *2. 'The whole is more than the sum of its parts'*

In communication, it is necessary to work in the context of the whole. Communication cannot easily be analysed into its various components without

its nature being destroyed in the process. For example you may teach the component of various forms of greeting but it is no guarantee that the student will be able to use it appropriately in a given situation.

3. *'The processes are as important as the forms'*

The processes of communication: information gap, choice, feedback, should be as far as possible replicated in trying to develop the ability of the student to communicate in the target language.

4. *'To learn it, do it'*

Only by practising communicative activities would students learn to communicate. The role of the teacher thus changes. She no longer dominates the learning situation. She is there to provide all the help the student needs to play an active role in his own learning.

5. *'Mistakes are not always mistakes'*

There is the need for flexibility in deciding to treat different things as 'mistakes' at different stages of the learning process towards communicative competence.

The use of communicative activities is a technique to achieve one of the aims of the communicative approach, which is to obtain communicative competence.

The essence of this approach is to communicate with another person in the classroom and in the long term, the society.

Richards and Rodgers (2001: 156) also mentions the major features of Communicative Language Teaching as follows:

1. Meaning is paramount.
2. Dialogues, if used, center around communicative functions and are not normally memorized.

3. Contextualization is a basic premise.
4. Language learning is learning to communicate.
5. Effective communication is sought.
6. Drilling may occur, but peripherally.
7. Comprehensible pronunciation is sought.
8. Any device that helps the learners is accepted— varying according to their age, interest, etc.
9. Attempts to communicate may be encouraged from the very beginning. 10. Judicious use of native language is accepted where feasible.
11. Translation may be used where students need or benefit from it.
12. Reading and writing can start from the first day, if desired.
13. The target linguistic system will be learned best through the process of struggling to communicate.
14. Communicative competence is the desired goal (i.e., the ability to use the linguistic system effectively and appropriately).
15. Linguistic variation is a central concept in materials and methodology.
16. Sequencing is determined by any consideration of content, function, or meaning that maintains interest.
17. Teachers help learners in any way that motivates them to work with the language.
18. Language is created by the individual, often through trial and error.
19. Fluency and acceptable language is the primary goal: Accuracy is judged not in the abstract but in context.

20. Students are expected to interact with other people, either in the flesh, through pair and group work, or in their writings.
21. The teacher cannot know exactly what language the students will use.
22. Intrinsic motivation will spring from an interest in what is being communicated by the language.

(2001: 156-157)

### **c. Teachers and learners role in Communicative Language Teaching**

What about teachers and learners role in this communicative language teaching? Of course they are the main characters in the classroom. Without them all of the activities in the classroom are nothing at all.

In the contemporary view, teachers' roles have been extended from wisdom provider, instructor and dictator to facilitator, participant, researcher, need analyst, student councillor, group organizer and so forth (Abate, 2014). With teachers' guidance, students in CLT classrooms learn the target language by means of interaction and eventually develop their own language skills. Similarly, students in CLT classroom play the role of meaning negotiators; communicators; discoverers; contributors of knowledge, skills and experiences; and they entertain learning from a pair or peer work than to rely on teachers as special model of language skills (Hu, 2002, as cited by Abate, 2014). Thus, the realization of goals of communicative approach according to Abate (2014) is the function of joint efforts of teachers, students and the classroom environment. Hence, all are expected to play their roles as effectively as possible for effective achievement of learners' communicative competence and proficiency. In case one of the characters failed to act accordingly,

it would not be possible to meet what the approach dreamed for to meet either in short or long term intentions.

## 5. Learning Theory

There are lots of theories of learning. However, concerning the idea of using CLT for this research, the writer chose some theories argued by Richards and Rodgers (2001: 209) as presented below:

- a. People learn a second language most successfully when the information they are acquiring is perceived as interesting, useful and leading to desired goal.
- b. Some content areas are more useful as a basis for language learning than others.
- c. Students learn best when instruction addresses students' needs.
- d. Teaching is built from the previous experience of the learners.

Here it can be assumed that the language learners are able to learn more optimally by using the materials that they need, want and like. In this case, they will be actively involved in the learning process, and they will be excited with what they learn and not easily get bored. Moreover if it is designed from their previous experience and their world..

## 6. Need Analysis

As argued by Otilia (2015), in assessing the learners' specific needs we come across the term "needs analysis which has been different along the decades. At the initial stages of ESP (the 1960s and early 1970), needs analysis consisted in assessing the communicative needs of the learners and the techniques of achieving specific teaching objectives . Nowadays, the tasks of needs analysis is much more complex: it

aims at collecting information about the learners and at defining the target situation and environment of studying ESP.

According to Dudley-Evans and St. John (2009) there are eight components in today's concept of needs analysis which have been grouped into five broad areas including:

- a. target situation analysis and objective needs analysis (e.g. tasks and activities learners will use English for linguistic analysis, discourse analysis, genre analysis, i.e. knowledge of how language and skills are used in the target situations;
- b. subjective needs analysis, i.e. learners' wants, means, subjective needs-factors that affect the way they learn (e.g. previous learning experiences, reasons for attending the course expectations)
- c. present situation analysis for the purpose of identifying learners' current skills and language use means analysis, i.e. information about the environment where the course will run.

(Dudley-Evans, T., and M.J. St John: 2009)

Because ESP courses are based on needs analysis, the learning objectives are more obvious than would be in the case of general ESL courses and it can be assumed that students will be more highly motivated in learning about topics and texts which are related to their study or work areas.

Stern (1992) distinguished four types of ESP teaching objectives: proficiency, knowledge, affective and transfer. *Proficiency objectives* refer to the mastery of the four language skills: reading, writing, listening and speaking. *Knowledge objectives* include the acquisition of linguistic and cultural information. *Linguistic knowledge objectives*

refer to language analysis and awareness of the systematic aspects of language while cultural knowledge objectives refer to the control of socio-cultural rules (mastery of the norms of society, values and orientations and also the ability to recognize culturally significant facts). *Affective objectives* are about the development of positive feelings toward the subject of study. *Transfer objectives* concern the ability to generalize from what has been learned in one situation or another.

Based on the definitions above, it is clear that in ESP, the process of teaching learning is aimed to connect the learners' need of communication to teaching and learning. Hutchinson & Waters (1978) observe that if we know why learners need English, the content of the language can be adjusted accordingly and the teaching process will focus on these needs. In Chamod's view, as cited by Alsamadani (2017), it is identified that, "need analysis can help learners adapt to the new learning system when their teachers recognize their needs of the learning process (2017: 5).

In conclusion, as Otilia (2015) argues, the results of the needs analysis help us as teachers to identify the students' prospective professional needs, the students' needs in terms of language skills and the students' deficiencies in the area of language skills. Only after analyzing the students' needs and determining the objectives of the language course, we can select a materials that meets the needs of the students. Thus, needs analysis is the foundation on which we can develop curriculum content, teaching materials and methods that can lead to increasing the learners' motivation and success.

## 7. Syllabus Design

Syllabus is known as the list of subjects of a course during a period of time. According to Rabbini (2002), A syllabus is an expression of opinion on the nature of language and learning; it acts as a guide for both teacher and learner by providing some

goals to be attained. The famous definition of Hutchinson and Waters (1987) define syllabus as follows: “At its simplest level a syllabus can be described as a statement of what is to be learnt It reflects of language and linguistic performance”.

Many people say that syllabus is as simple as the table of content of a book. A teacher can make syllabus based on the list written on the table of content. Somehow, syllabus is not that simple. A good syllabus does much more than that. A well-written syllabus could provide a doorway into the pedagogical beliefs of the teacher (or the course writer).

What can ELT course books do to help proper language acquisition? Below is a modified version of a list from Tomlinson (2013):

- a. Providing rich experience with varying genres and text types
- b. Providing pleasing experience through beautiful art and design
- c. Using of multimedia for rich and varied language learning
- d. Helping learners make discoveries for themselves
- e. Helping learners become *autonomous* language learners
- ★ f. Providing extra materials for *extensive listening* and *extensive reading*
- g. Helping learners personalize and localize their language learning

Furthermore, Hutchinson and Water (1987) add that a syllabus should be developed based on some characteristics:

- a. consist of a comprehensive list of
  - content items (words, structures, topics)
  - process items (tasks, methods)
- b. is ordered (easier, more essential item first)
- c. has explicit objectives (usually expressed in introduction)

- d. is a public document
- e. may indicate time schedule
- f. may indicate a preferred methodology or approach
- g. may recommend materials

In designing a qualified syllabus, the list of characteristics above should be considered to be paid attention. By making a good syllabus, a materials developer will be easier in developing all units of the book and after that a teacher will be able to be easier in organizing the class and students also have certainty and well-planned list about what to learn and what to prepare during the lesson.

Syllabus is one of the crucial things to language teaching. The how a teacher and or a materials developer choose a type of syllabus is really significant to the how a learning is conducted. In Krahnke's argument, there are six types of language teaching syllabus, as explained below: :

- a. *A structural (or formal) syllabus*. It is one in which the content of language teaching is a collection of the forms and structures, usually grammatical, of the language being taught. Examples of structure include: nouns, verbs, adjectives, statements, questions, complex sentences, subordinate clauses, past tense, and so on, although formal syllabi may include other aspects of language form such as pronunciation or morphology.
- b. *A notional/functional syllabus*. It is one in which the content of language teaching is a collection of the functions that are performed when language is used, or of the notions that language is used to express. Examples of functions include: informing,

agreeing, apologizing, requesting, promising, and so on. Examples of notions include size, age, color, comparison, time, and so on.

- c. *A situational syllabus*. It is one in which the content of language teaching is a collection of real or imaginary situations in which language occurs or is used. A situation usually involves several participants who are engaged in some activity in a specific setting. The language occurring in the situation involves a number of functions, combined into a plausible segment of discourse. The primary purpose of situational language teaching syllabus is to teach the language that occurs in the situations. Sometimes the situations are purposely relevant to the present or future needs of the language learners, preparing them to use the new language in the kinds of situations that make up the syllabus. Examples of situations include: seeing then dentist, complaining to the landlord, buying a book at the bookstore, meeting a new student, asking directions in a new town, and so on.
- d. *A skill-based syllabus*. It is one in which the content of language teaching is a collection of specific abilities that may play a part in using language. Skills are things that people must be able to do to be competent in a language, relatively independently of the situation or setting in which the language use can occur. While situational syllabi group functions together into specific settings of language use, skill-based syllabi group linguistic competencies (pronunciation, vocabulary, grammar, sociolinguistic, and discourse) together into generalized types of behavior, such as listening to spoken language for the main idea, writing well-formed paragraphs, giving effective oral presentations, taking language tests, reading texts for main ideas or supporting details, and so on. The primary purpose of skill-based instruction is to learn a specific language skill. A possible secondary purpose is to develop more

general competence in the language, learning only incidentally any information that may be available while applying the language skills.

- e. *A task-based syllabus*. It is similar to content-based syllabus in that both the teaching is not organized around linguistic features of the language being learned but according to some other organizing principle. In task-based instruction the content of the teaching is a series of complex and purposeful tasks that the students want or need to perform with the language they are learning. The tasks are defined as activities with a purpose other than language learning, but, as in a content-based syllabus, the performance of the tasks is approached in a way that is intended to develop second/foreign language ability. Language learning is subordinated to task performance, and language teaching occurs only as the need arises during the performance of a given task. Tasks integrate language (and other) skills in specific settings of language use. They differ from situations in that while situational teaching has the goal of teaching the specific language content that occurs in the situation – a predefined product – task-based teaching has the goal of teaching students to draw on resources to complete some piece of work – a process. The language students draw on a variety of language forms, functions, and skills, often in an individual and unpredictable way, in completing the tasks. Tasks that can be used for language learning are, generally, tasks that the learners actually have to perform in any case. Examples are applying for a job, talking with a social worker, getting housing information over the telephone, completing bureaucratic forms, collecting information about preschools to decide which to send a child to, preparing a paper for another course, reading a textbook for another course, and so on.

f. *A content-based syllabus*. It is not really a language teaching syllabus at all. In content-based language teaching, the primary purpose of the instruction is to teach some content or information using the language that the students are also learning. The students are simultaneously language students and students of whatever content is being taught. The subject matter is primary, and language learning occurs incidentally to the content learning. The content teaching is not organized around the language teaching, but vice versa. Content-based language teaching is concerned with information, while task-based language teaching is concerned with communicative and cognitive processes. An example of content-based language teaching is a science class taught in the language that the students need or want to learn, possibly with linguistic adjustments to make the science more comprehensible (Krahnke, 1987)

The text book developed in this research combines task-based syllabus and content-based syllabus. It is based on ESP learning characteristics and it is also expected that by applying those two kinds of syllabus, the purpose of ESP learning will be achieved optimally.

## 8. English Learning Materials

In Tomlinson's argument (2013) Materials developers might write textbooks, tell stories, bring advertisements into the classroom, express an opinion, provide samples of language use or read a poem aloud. Whatever they do to provide input, they do so ideally in principled ways related to what they know about how languages can be effectively

learnt. So, materials can be anything that can facilitate the teachers and learners to gain the aim of learning optimally.

Regarding materials development, as Tomlinson (2013) continues, there are three questions to be answered:

- What should be provided for the learners
- How it should be provided and
- What can be done with it to promote language learning.

Hutchinson and Waters (1987: 107) states that good materials contain interesting texts, enjoyable activities that engage learners' thinking capacities, give opportunities for learners to use their existing knowledge and skills, and have content which both learners and teachers can cope with. In accordance, Tomlinson (2013) provides some principles of good materials which are presented below:

- a. Materials should achieve impact.
- b. Materials should help learners to feel at ease.
- c. Materials should help learners to develop confidence.
- d. What is being taught should be perceived by learners as relevant and useful.
- e. Materials should require and facilitate learner self-investment.
- f. Learners must be ready to acquire the points being taught.
- g. Materials should expose the learners to language in authentic use.
- h. The learners attention should be drawn to linguistic features of the input.
- i. Materials should provide the learners with opportunities to use the target language to achieve communicative purposes.

- j. Materials should take into account that the positive effects of instruction are usually delayed.
- k. Materials should take into account that learners differ in learning styles.
- l. Materials should take into account that learners differ in affective attitudes.
- m. Materials should permit a silent period at the beginning of instruction.
- n. Materials should maximize learning potential by encouraging intellectual, aesthetic and emotional involvement which stimulates both right and left brain activities.
- o. Materials should not rely too much on controlled practice.
- p. Materials should provide opportunities for outcome feedback
- q. English language teaching materials should be flexible.

From the list of good materials as explained above it can be concluded that good materials require a full creativity which enable learners to enjoy the lesson and get easy to learn it and at the end take the optimum target of knowledge and skill should have contents and activities that can make the learners feel easy and lead them to be independent learners.

## **9. Materials Development**

Tomlinson (2013) gives definition of materials development as “a practical undertaking involving the production, evaluation, adaptation and exploitation of materials intended to facilitate language acquisition and development”. As a matter of fact, he points out that materials development is one of the crucial parts of treatments in applied research.

### a. Procedures of materials development

The steps or procedure of materials development include the design, implementation, and evaluation of language teaching materials. Dick and Carey (1990) suggest ten components of the systems approach model :

- Assess needs to identify goals,
- conduct an instructional analysis,
- identify entry behaviors and characteristics,
- write performance objectives,
- develop criterion-referenced test items,
- develop an instructional strategy,
- develop and/or select instructional materials,
- design and conduct the formative evaluation,
- revise instruction,
- conduct summative evaluation.

To design accurate teaching materials, a developer should consider each component in the procedures. In other words, suitable teaching/learning materials should fulfill each of the other components in the system approach.

### b. The Model of Materials Design

Jolly and Bolitho as cited in Tomlinson (2013: 98) propose a model of materials development as presented in figure 2.1.

**Figure 2.1. Jolly and Bolitho's model of materials development process (2011: 28)**

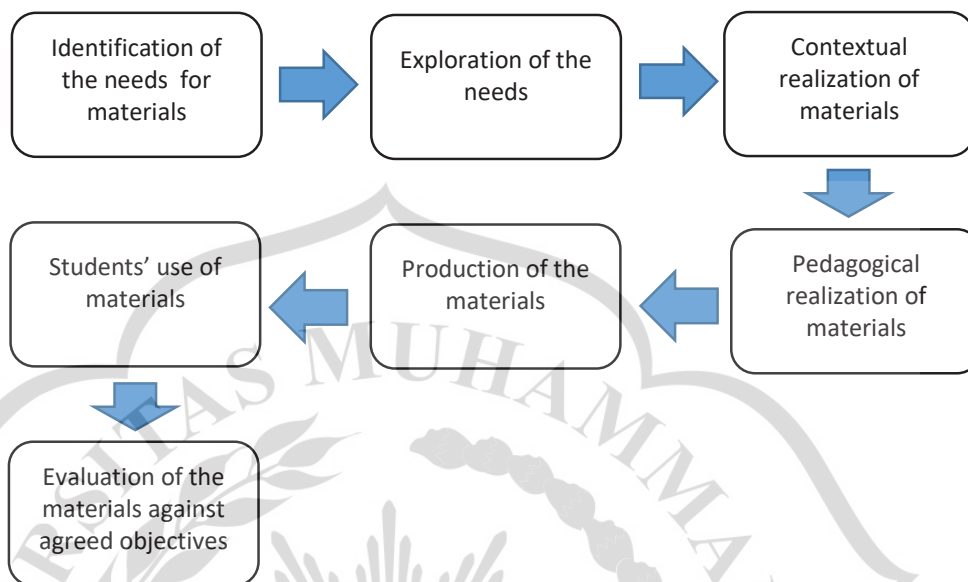


Figure 2.1. shows that there are actually three main important steps in designing a materials. First is the need analysis, second is the production of the materials based on the result of need analysis, and the third is the evaluation of the materials to see whether the objectives of designing materials have been reached or not.

## 10. Unit Development

### a. The model of Unit Design

Unit design is made to develop materials in such a systematic way. By making it, the classification and categorization of the materials will be much easier. Here, the materials is spread in units based on its certain aspects. Therefore, unit design has to be easy to understand and makes learning effective and meaningful.

Nunan (2004: 31) explains about this model of unit development into six steps, as follows:

i. Scheme building

This step is the introduction. Here, learners are introduced to the topic, the context and the vocabularies and expressions key words.

ii. Controlled practice

In this step, learners are provided with controlled practice in using the vocabulary, structures and functions of the target language.

iii. Authentic listening practice

The next step is listening practice. This aims at exposing learners to a conversation conducted in target language.

iv. Focus on linguistic elements

This step is the step in which learners do exercise based on one or more linguistics elements.

v. Provide freer practice

In this step, the students have freer practice, where they move beyond simple manipulation.

vi. Introduce the pedagogical task

The final step of the instruction sequence is the introduction of the pedagogical task itself - in this case a small group task in which the participants have to study, for example, a set of newspaper advertisements and decide on the most suitable place to rent.

**b. Task grading, sequencing and integrating**

There are lots of variations in the grading of the book as it is found in some text books. For example, it is oftenly arranged based on the grammatical difficulties level.

Some other books are arranged based on the themes and content. According to Nunan (2004: 13) the decision of what come first in a unit depends on the belief of the course book writer or syllabus designer about grading, sequencing and integrating content. However, most of all books tend to grade the book from the most simple discussion to the more complex topic in the next chapters. It means that the easiest and most basic materials oftenly comes at the beginning of the book while the more difficult one comes after it when it is supposed that the learners have understood the more simple idea in the previous chapter. This is in line with second and third principle proposed by Tomlinson (1998) who states that materials should help learners to feel at ease and help learners to develop confidence. When in the beginning the learners are introduced with light materials, they will be more confident in learning the next part and will think that learning language is easy. How does it come to be like that? Some explanations about it is that by learning the easier part first, learners will be easy to comprehend. They are also expected to be more confident in learning it since they start from the easiest part of the book.

### **c. Grading input**

There are some factors to be considered by a materials developer in selecting a text. Nunan (2014: 115) gives argument that the first thing to consider is the complexity of the input. Here, grammatical factors will be important. A text made up of simple sentences is likely to be simpler than one consisting of complex sentences. In addition, the complexity of grammar is affected by factors such as the length of a text, the amount of low-frequency vocabulary, the speed of spoken texts and the number of speakers involved, the explicitness of the information, the discourse structure, and the clarity with which this is signalled. Furthermore, a text with headings and sub-headings which is

supported with photographs, drawings, tables, graphs and so on should be easier to process than one in which there is no contextual support (Nunan, 2004: 115).

Another factor that has an impact on processing difficulty is the type or ‘genre’ of text (Hammond and Derewianka, 2001 in Nunan, 2014 ). Genre theorists argue, for example, that narratives, recounts and descriptive texts will be easier to process than abstract or argumentative texts involving the expression of opinions and attitudes.

#### **d. Learner Factors**

Pearson and Johnson in Nunan (2004: 118) argue that comprehension is a process of building bridges between the known and the unknown. When trying to comprehend language, learners will use their existing knowledge or background knowledge and fit it to the present situation. However, if the existing knowledge does not fit to the existing framework, the learners will try to modify or adapt it.

In addition to background knowledge, Brindley in Nunan (2004: 120) suggests that, learner factors will include confidence, motivation, prior learning experience, learning pace, observed ability in language skills, cultural knowledge / awareness and linguistic knowledge.

#### **e. Task Continuity**

The terms ‘continuity’ refers to the interdependence of tasks, task components and supporting enabling skills within an instructional sequence. When planning instructional sequence, Nunan (2004: 125) proposes the same steps to make activities gradually increase from demanding, moving from comprehension-based procedures to controlled production activities and exercises, and finally to free practice or real communicative interaction. The possible steps of grading, sequencing, and integrating tasks are presented on table 2.1.

**Table 2.1. grading, sequencing, and integrating task steps**

Phases	Steps within phases
A. Processing  (comprehension)	1. Read or study a text – no other response required. 2. Read or listen to a text and give a non-verbal, physical response (e.g. learner raises hand every time key words are heard). 3. Read or listen to a text and give a non-physical, non-verbal response (e.g. check-off a box or grid every time key words are heard). 4. Read or listen to a text and give a verbal response (e.g. write down key words every time they are heard).
B. Productive	5. Listen to cue utterances, or dialogue fragments and repeat them, or repeat a complete version of the cue. 6. Listen to a cue and complete a substitution or transformation drill. 7. Listen to a cue (e.g. a question) and give a meaningful response (i.e. one that is true for the learner)
C. Interactive	8. Role play (e.g. having listened to a conversation in which people talk about their family, students, working from role cards, circulate and find other members of their family). 9. Simulation/discussion (e.g. students in small groups share information about their own families). 10. Problem-solving / information gap (e.g. in an information gap task, students are split into three groups; each group listens to an incomplete description of a family; students recombine and have to complete a family tree, identify which picture from a number of alternatives represents the family, etc.).

## 11. Task Development

For task development, there are some factors to consider in presenting the tasks for developing materials. The components of the tasks are the elements that have to be

presented in the task. These task components are crucial in determining the meaningfulness and attractiveness of the activities.

There are three early conceptualizations of task components as argued by Nunan (2014). These are the articulation of concept of Shavelson and Stern (1981), Candlin (1987) and Wright (1987a) about task-based language teaching within the context of education in general, rather than TESOL in particular. Task designers, they suggest, should take into consideration the following elements:

- Content: the subject matter to be taught.
- Materials: the things that learners can observe/manipulate.
- Activities: the things that learners and teachers will be doing during a lesson.
- Goals: the teachers' general aims for the task (these are much more general and vague than objectives).
- Students: their abilities, needs and interests are important.
- Social community: the class as a whole and its sense of 'groupness'.

( Nunan, 2004)

The second conceptualization as explained by Nunan (2004) comes from Candlin (1987), whose work was specifically referenced against language pedagogy, suggests that tasks should contain input, roles, settings, actions, monitoring, outcomes and feedback. Input refers to the data presented for learners to work on. Roles specify the relationship between participants in a task. Setting refers to where the task takes place – either in the class or in an out-of-class arrangement. Actions are the procedures and sub-tasks to be performed by the learners. Monitoring refers to the supervision of

the task in progress. Outcomes are the goals of the task, and feedback refers to the evaluation of the task.

The third conceptualization excerpted by Nunan (2004) from Wright who is also concerned with tasks in language teaching. He argues that, minimally, tasks need to contain only two elements. These are input data, which may be provided by materials, teachers or learners, and an initiating question, which instructs learners on what to do with the data.

Therefore, based on those three conceptualizations, Nunan (2004: 41) explores his concept about task components. Those components are shown in the figure 2.2.

**Figure 2.2. Task component**



#### **a. Goals**

Nunan (2004: 41) states that goals is a crucial item of task since it gives guidance both for the task made and the curriculum as a whole. It is also functioned as the objectives of what learners expect from the course. Further he categorizes goals into four types: communicative (exchange information, ideas, opinion, etc), sociocultural (understanding everyday pattern like formal and informal), learning-how-to-learn (learning how to set in real life), and language and cultural awareness (understanding the systematic nature of language and the way it works).

Suitable goals for non English department university students may cover those four types of goal mentioned above. Communicative goal is needed because the students will face the real situation in communication in their career later. They

have to be able to know and do conversation like asking questions, giving and taking informations, expressing their arguments, etc. In designing tasks, a developer also has to give cultural view of the target language. This is in line with the reality that after students graduate from school, some of them will work abroad.

### **b. Input**

Input means all of the data that can be found from the book, in which learners deal with, concerning the materials and tasks given in the book. This kind of input can be created by teachers or adapted and taken from any other sources like coursebook or internet. Inputs can be anything. As Nunan (2004) emphasizes, Data can be provided by teachers or adapted and taken from course books. Input can be in the form of articles from newspapers, magazines and journals, radio and television scripts and documentaries, comic books for entertainment, publicity brochures and posters, short stories, poems and plays, shopping lists, business cards, postcards, picture stories, street map and many other things including such simple things like recipe, extract from a play, weather forecast.

The curiosity now comes to the question whether the input has to be authentic or not. In Nunan's words, 'Authenticity' in this context refers to the use of spoken and written materials that has been produced for purposes of communication not for purposes of language teaching. Then he continues that in his mind it is not a matter of whether or not authentic materials should be used, but what combination of authentic, simulated and specially written materials provide learners with optimal learning opportunities ( 2004: 49).

### **c. Procedures**

The next component of the task is what is called procedures. Nunan (2004) defines 'Procedures' as the component that specifies what learners will actually do with the input that forms the point of departure for the learning task. Moreover, analyzing procedures should be based on the focus or skills required to achieve the goal. (Nunan, 2004).

As argued by Nunan (2004), there are two issues concerning procedures. First is authenticity, which is also connected to the previous part that is input data. The authenticity issue involves much more than simply selecting texts from outside the arena of language teaching, and that the processes brought to bear by learners on the data should also be authentic. This is also that while it is possible to use authentic texts in non authentic ways (for example, turning a newspaper article into a cloze passage), since this severely limits the potential of the materials as resources for language learning.

Another way of analyzing procedures in Nunan's argument is in terms of their focus or goal. One widely cited way of characterizing procedural goals is whether they are basically concerned with skill getting or skill using. In skill getting, learners master phonological, lexical and grammatical forms through memorization and manipulation. In skill using, they apply these skills in communicative interaction. (Nunan, 2004).

### **d. Teacher role and Learner role**

Nunan (2004) argues that 'Role' refers to the part that learners and teachers are expected to play in carrying out learning tasks as well as the social and

interpersonal relationships between the participants. Here, the reference comes from Richards and Rodgers (1999) who devote considerable attention to learner and teacher roles. They point out that a method (and, in our case, a task) will reflect assumptions about the contributions that learners can make to the learning process.

Table 2.2. is based on the analysis carried out by Richards and Rodgers (1999):

**Table 2.2. Teacher and learner's role**

<b>Approach</b>	<b>Roles</b>
Oral Situational	learner listens to teacher and repeats; no control over content or methods
Audiolingual	learner has little control; reacts to teacher direction; passive, reactive role
Total Physical Response	Communicative learner has an active, negotiative role; should contribute as well as receive learner is a listener and performer; little influence over content and none over methodology
The Silent Way	learners learn through systematic analysis; must become independent and autonomous
Community Language	learners are members of a social group or Learning community; move from dependence to autonomy as learning progresses
The Natural Approach	learners play an active role and have a relatively high degree of control over content language production
Suggestopedia	learners are passive, have little control over content or methods

As explained more by Nunan (2004), the list above includes:

- the learner is a passive recipient of outside stimuli.
- the learner is an interactor and negotiator who is capable of giving as well as taking.
- the learner is a listener and performer who has little control over the content of learning.
- the learner is involved in a process of personal growth.
- the learner is involved in a social activity, and the social and interpersonal roles of the learner cannot be divorced from psychological learning processes
- the learner must take responsibility for his or her own learning, developing autonomy and skills in learning-how-to-learn.

There is evidence to suggest that ‘good’ language learners share certain characteristics. The list in table 2.3. is given by Nunan (2004) adapted from Rubin and Thomson (1982), shows that the ‘good’ language learner is critical, reflective and autonomous.

**Table 2.3. Good language learners**

<b>Good language learners</b>	<b>Implications for teachers</b>
finding their own way	Helping learners to discover ways of learning that work best for them, for example how they best learn vocabulary items.
organizing information	Developing ways for learners to organize about language what they have learned, through making notes and charts, grouping items and displaying them for easy reference
are creative	Encouraging learners to experiment with different ways of creating and using language, for example with new ways

	of using words, playing with different arrangements of sounds and structures, inventing imaginative texts and playing language games
making their own	Facilitating active learning by getting opportunities students to interact with fellow learners and with you, asking questions, listening regularly to the language, reading different kinds of texts and practising writing
learning to live with	Requiring learners to work things out for uncertainty themselves using resources such as dictionaries
using mnemonics	Helping learners find quick ways of recalling what they have learned, for example through rhymes, word associations, word classes, particular contexts of occurrence, experiences and personal memories
making errors work	Teaching learners to live with errors and help them learn from their errors.
using their linguistic	Where appropriate, helping learners make knowledge comparisons with what they know about language from their mother tongue as well as building on what they have already learned in the new language.
letting the context help them	Helping learners realize the relationships that exist between words, sounds and structures, developing their capacity to guess and infer meaning from the surrounding context and from their background knowledge.
learning to make intelligent	Developing learners' capacity to work out guesses meanings and to guess on the basis of probabilities of occurrence
learning formalized routines	Encouraging learners to memorize routines, whole phrases and idioms
learning production	Helping learners not to be so concerned

	techniques with accuracy that they do not develop the capacity to be fluent.
using different styles	Developing learners' ability to speech and writing differentiate between styles of speech and writing, both productively and receptively.

### e. Settings

Setting informs the learners where they should do the task. It can be in the classroom or outside. Further setting determines in what circumstance the task should be carried out like individually, in pairs, in groups, or in whole class. Nunan (2004) says that at the beginning of the units, students had better do the task individually. It aims to recall their present knowledge about the topics. After that, they can discuss with others in pairs or groups in order to change information they have already known. For listening activities, students can do the task individually while for speaking activities the tasks can be completed in pairs if they have to practice dialog. For research and presentation, the tasks can be completed in small group. The tasks which can be completed in whole class are activities like drama. For reading and writing, most of tasks are completed individually and in pairs.

## 12. Materials Evaluation

Evaluating the designed materials is one of important duty that has to be conducted by a materials designer. As Valle (2010: 148) states, Measuring the potential teaching/learning value of authentic texts, coursebooks and other types of materials is one of the ESP practitioner's duties. She continues that unlike language teaching at primary or secondary school levels, where administrations, departments

or staff choose particular coursebooks for a whole institution, materials evaluation is particularly frequent in ESP at tertiary level. This is simply due to the fact that, as a general rule, no single course book is followed from beginning to end but, rather, extracts (units, exercises or tasks) from a number of published materials are brought together and, if necessary, supplemented with in-house activities. The reasons for evaluation, however, are common to language teachers in general because there is a need to examine the implications that certain materials may have for a particular course and to come to grounded opinions about the appropriateness of the methodology and content of the materials for a particular context (2010: 148).

Ellis (2013: 38) proposes some steps of task evaluation. Those steps are presented in figure 2.3 :

**Figure 2.3. Steps of task evaluation by Ellis (2003)**

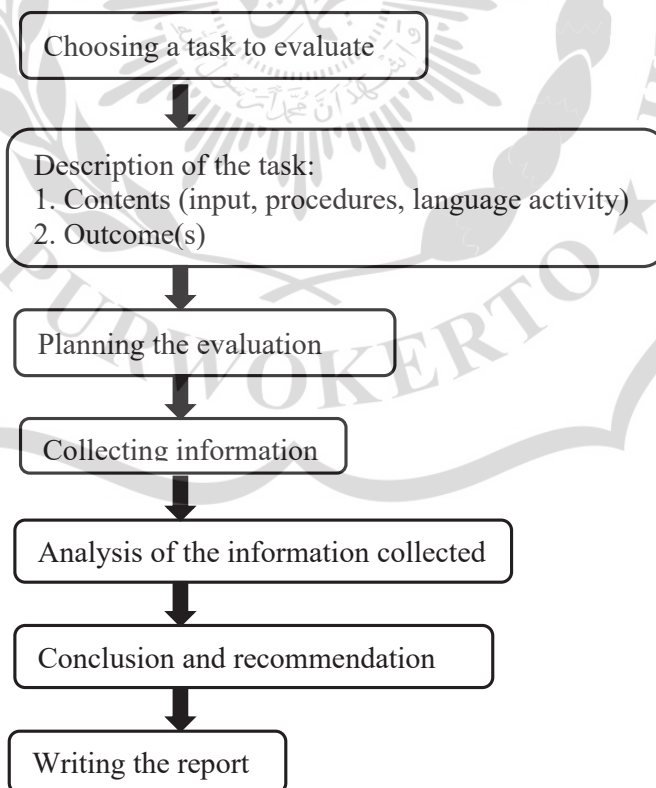


Figure 2.3. shows seven steps in task evaluation, as Ellis (2013) explains below:

a. Choosing a task to evaluate

Teachers might have a number of reasons for selecting a task to evaluate. They may want to try out a new kind of task and be interested in discovering how effective this innovation is in their classrooms. On other occasions they may wish to choose a very familiar task to discover if it really works as well as they think it does. Or they may want to experiment with a task they have used before by making some change to the input, conditions, or procedures of a familiar task and decide to evaluate how this affects the outcomes of the task. For example, they may want to find out what effect giving learners the chance to plan prior to performing a task has on task outcomes.

b. Description of the task

A clear and explicit description of the task is a necessary preliminary to planning a micro-evaluation. As suggested above, a task can be described in terms of its objective(s), the input it provides, conditions, procedures, and the intended outcomes of the task.

c. Planning the evaluation

Planning a program evaluation involves working out answers to a number of questions concerning the purpose of the evaluation, audience, evaluator, content, method, and timing. The planning of the evaluation needs to be undertaken concurrently with the planning of the lesson. Only in this way can teachers be sure they will collect the necessary information to carry out the evaluation.

#### d. Collecting information

The information needed to evaluate a task can be collected before, during, or after the teaching of the task. It may be useful for the evaluator to draw up a record sheet showing the various stages of the lesson, what types of data were collected, and when they were collected in relation to the stages of the lesson. This sheet can be organized into columns with the left-hand column showing the various stages of the lesson and the right-hand column indicating how and when information for the evaluation is to be collected.

#### e. Analysing of the information collected

Two ways of analysing the data are possible. One involves quantification of the information, which can then be presented in the form of tables. The other is qualitative. Here the evaluator prepares a narrative description of the information, perhaps illustrated by quotations or protocols. In part, the method chosen will depend on the types of information which have been collected. Thus, test scores lend themselves to a quantitative analysis, while journal data is perhaps best handled qualitatively.

#### f. Reaching conclusion and recommendation

It is useful to distinguish 'conclusions' and 'recommendations'. Conclusions are general statements about what has been discovered about the task from the analyses that have been performed. recommendations are the evaluator's ideas regarding future actions. The conclusions need to be framed in relation to the purposes of the evaluation. Thus, in an objectives model evaluation, the conclusions need to state to what extent the objectives of the task have been met, while in a

development model evaluation the conclusions need to indicate in what ways the task has worked or not worked, and how it can be improved.

g. Writing the report

Strictly speaking, it is not necessary to write a report of an evaluation unless the evaluator intends to share the conclusions and recommendations with others. However, by writing a report the teacher-evaluator is obliged to make explicit the procedures that have been followed in the evaluation and, thereby, is more likely to understand the strengths and limitations of the evaluation.

As for Indonesian context, the materials evaluation is conducted by experts, referred to *Badan Standar Nasional Pendidikan* (BSNP). There are four aspects of evaluation as listed below:

- a. The appropriateness of content.
- b. The appropriateness of presentation.
- c. The appropriateness of language.
- d. The appropriateness of lay out.

## B. Relevant Studies

1. [Poedjiastuti, D and Oliver, R. 2017](#). English Learning Needs of ESP Learners: Exploring Stakeholder Perceptions at an Indonesian University. *TEFLIN Journal*, Volume 28, Number 1, January 2017.

The first study comes from Poedjiastuti and Oliver (2017) who conducted research about the pedagogical challenges of English for Specific Purposes (ESP) teaching at the university of Muhammadiyah Malang Indonesia. For this research,

they undertook classroom observation and interview to explore the multiple realities of the three groups of stakeholders at this institution – the management, ESP teachers, and students. The findings showed four aspects which ought to be crucially applied in ESP classrooms but are relatively absent. Those were communication focus, learner-centred, collaborative teaching and practical and authentic materials. This research investigated deeply on the evaluation of ESP classroom implementation in Indonesia. Part of those also became the problems that was faced by the writer and the reasons why the writer decided to conduct this R and D research on the developing materials of ESP.

2. Saragih, 2014. Designing ESP Materials for Nursing Students Based On Needs Analysis. *International Journal of Linguistics*, Vol. 6, No. 4. 2014.

This research is about designing teaching materials for nurses based on need analysis. Need Analysis in this research is categorized as *Target situation Analysis*, *Present Situation Analysis*, *Deficiency Analysis*, *Strategy Analysis*, *Constraint Analysis*, *Pedagogic Need Analysis*, and *Subjective Need Analysis*. The study uses quantitative and qualitative methods. The findings describe the real needs of students of ESP for nurses, the lecturers' view points on the practice of ESP instructions, and descriptions of ESP for nurses used in English speaking countries. The results are significant for designers of ESP of various fields for they reflect the real needs of nursing students. It is suggested that Nursing English textbooks should be based on the Need Analysis by ESP designers. This research has similarity in the way of the need analysis that was conducted to find out the need in order to design a specific textbook for them. However, the research is limited to the need analysis without being continued to the design of the textbook.

3. Lesiak-Bielawska. 2014. English for Instrumentalists: Designing and Evaluating an ESP Course. *English for Specific Purposes World*, Issue 43, Vol. 15, 2014.

This research discusses the findings of research work related to designing and evaluating a blended learning course for prospective instrumentalists. Its objective was to describe significant phases that the course designer went through, as well as present the impact of the applied learning formula on teaching English for Specific Purposes (ESP), and more specifically on English for Specific Academic Purposes (ESAP). Thus referring to the literature of the subject and various procedures undertaken when creating the course ‘English for Instrumentalists’, the article first focuses on the phase of needs analysis and the resultant decision to employ a blended learning approach when running the course. Following that, it discusses the design phase proper and the outcomes of course evaluation. Both quantitative and qualitative methods of data collection were employed to assess the efficacy of the course. The results obtained point to the effectiveness of the course, both in terms of its objective evaluation and learners’ perceptions of it. This research in the article also has similarities in the way of the need analysis being conducted. However, the product is the employment of a blended learning approach, not the materials of textbook.

4. Danaye Tous, Maryam, Haghghi, Sara. 2014. Evaluation of ESP textbooks: Evidence from ESP textbook of computer engineering major. *International Journal of Research Studies in Language Learning*. April, Volume 3 Number 2, 55-68

The purpose of this study was to evaluate ESP textbook on “*English for the students of computer engineering*” taught at Payame Noor University in Astane (Guilan province, Iran). It was a mixed method research. The research instrument consisted

of a researcher-made questionnaire which was designed on the basis of eight checklist references. Sample of this study consisted of 49 junior students majoring in computer engineering, who were selected through convenience sampling method. The textbook was evaluated in terms of six criteria of aims and approaches, design and organization, skills and strategies, topics, practical considerations and illustrations, language content and exercises. Data was collected through a five-point Likert scale questionnaire consisting of 22 items. Descriptive statistics including percentage, mean, and standard deviation were calculated for each item. Findings indicated that despite having pedagogical values, the textbook was not very good according to design and organization, language content and exercises, skills and strategies, practical considerations and illustrations. Finally, the pedagogical implication of findings for teaching grammatical items, listening materials, recycling and revision, writing activities and illustrations would be discussed. The research discussed in this article is also about the ESP conducted for computer engineering, but focuses on the evaluation of the textbook being used by them.

5. Chovancova, B. 2014. Needs Analysis and ESP Course Design: Self-Perception of Language Needs Among Pre-Service Students. *Studies in Logic, Grammar and Rhetoric* 38 (51) 2014.

In the context of recent social changes in Central Europe, the article outlines the need for a change in the traditional syllabi for legal English classes. It deals with needs analysis as one of the most important sources of inspiration in syllabus design. First, needs analysis is situated within the methodology of English for Specific Purposes. Then, the rationale for a needs analysis survey among pre-service

students in current legal English courses is presented and, finally, the findings are interpreted with respect to the actual target situations that students are likely to encounter after graduation. The article concludes by pointing out that although pre-service students may have vague ideas about the use of English in their future jobs, course instructors should consider their needs and wants because they are crucial for increasing the students' motivation. Instructors and course designers should, however, obtain information from professionals and former graduates as well because that will enable them to address the actual target situations most effectively. This research discussed in the article focuses on the need analysis survey among pre-service students in current legal English courses, but just finishes there without continuing it to the design of the product.

6. Dardig, M.H. Using the Communicative Language Teaching Approach (CLT) in Teaching English for Specific Purposes (ESP). *The Journal on American Science*. 2015.Vol. 11 (3)

Recently, ESP teaching and learning in Sudanese higher education has undergone unexpected development particularly after the implementation of Arabization in 1991. Many ESP departments in the tertiary level started to rely on their ESP instructors to select or design ESP course materials for the various academic disciplines. However, most of these ESP instructors do not adhere to the students' needs and interests as well as they mainly focus on structural patterns and lexis. Therefore, this study attempts to suggest the CLT approach as an alternative to replace the traditional structural method when designing ESP course materials. The CLT approach can best meet the students' needs, interests and motivation as CLT offers perfect pedagogical combination of communicative skills and implicit

structural patterns. The research discussed in the article has similarities in the way that it talks about the use of CLT for the class of ESP. However, the focus is more to the implementation in the classroom.

### C. Conceptual framework

University students of non-English department, including students of economic majoring program, are expected to have competence in certain field. Ideally, they use English materials that contain economic and business themes and vocabularies to support the goal. Unfortunately, the materials taught was selected without any study of what materials actually was needed by students. The lecturers of English just took some textbooks found in bookstore, and so far, as being explained by students and the lecturer, it did not quite satisfy the students or even the lecturer herself. As the consequence, the materials was not quite appropriate to the students and at the end it was not as effective as it was expected to be.

Therefore, in accordance to the problem stated above, this research aimed to provide suitable materials for university students of economic study programs that can support both their learning processes now and their careers later on. The design of the materials will follow some supporting theories.

Because the field learnt is economics, English for economic program is categorized as English for specific purposes (ESP). Hutchinson and Waters (1989 :16) define ESP as an approach to language teaching with aims to meet students' need in the target situation in which all decisions as to content and method are based on the learner's need. To get information about the need, a need analysis was conducted by giving students questionnaires. The result of the analysis was used as the base of creating course grid. The

course grid was adjusted with Core Competence and Basic Competence under the umbrella of Curriculum KTNI. Then it was used to design the materials.

The contents of the materials followed the Content-Based Instruction mixed to Task-based Instruction, since the principle of this instruction was teaching and designing materials are organized around content or information (Richards and Rodgers, 2001) and at the same time focused on the use of authentic language and on asking students to do meaningful tasks using the target language. The materials in this research were organized around the content of economics by providing appropriate task and vocabulary related to business and economic field. The process of materials development used the model proposed by Jolly and Bolitho as cited in Tomlinson (2013: 98) with some adaption according to the Indonesian context and the need of the research. The materials then were broken down into four units developed by following Nunan's model through consideration of good materials criteria proposed by Tomlinson(2013)

After the units had been developed, the tasks were developed as the parts of unit. The six components of tasks proposed by Nunan (2004) were applied such as goal, input, procedures, teacher role, learner role, and setting.

The next process of materials development was materials evaluation by an evaluator. The evaluator in this study was a lecturer of English Education Department who has background in materials development. The evaluation followed the standard of materials evaluation proposed by *Badan Standar Nasional dan Pendidikan* (BSNP). The result of this evaluation was used as the base of developing the second draft of the materials.

At last, the materials that have been developed then tested to the classroom. Students would be given the materials in one or two meetings and then they would be tested using formative test. The result of this test is used as the base of conclusion whether

this materials were good enough to be applied in the classroom. At the same time, students would be also given a questionnaire on their opinion about the materials developed, based on Lewis and Hill (1993) as cited by Vivic (2011), consisting the usefulness of materials, the relevance to the students and their needs, how it stimulated their curiosity, whether it is fun to do and whether the students found the tasks and activities worth doing.

