

L1.B-13

CURRICULUM MATERIAL DEVELOPMENT

*C
O
M
P
I
L
E
D*

NENNI TRIANA SINAGA M.Pd



**PROGRAM STUDI PENDIDIKAN BAHASA INGGRIS
FAKULTAS KEGURUAN DAN ILMU PENDIDIKAN
UNIVERSITAS HKBP NOMMENSEN
MEDAN**

PREFACE

English academic is one of important language skill that have to improve learning English process. The compilation of Curriculum Material Development is designed to provide students practice. It is based on the premise that English academic in an interactive process in which readers used information from the text and their own background knowledge in order to build active communication.

This course book was prepared for students who need to improve their ability in English academic, make them more aware of the factors that affect English academics, all of which will, eventually, lead them to the right way of English academic.

Most of teaching material in this book is designed to bring humorous into the lesson. When students find something humorous, their learning become more enjoyable and their motivation increase. More and more teacher are seeing the advantages of taking a lexical approach to language. This book are full of useful to students' capability in curriculum analysis.

This book also help students to learn a lot of English curriculum material developments, changing of curriculum, teaching four skill of English, curriculum for teachers, needs analysis for teachers, lesson plan, semester' program, years' program, and analysis effective formats.

We realize that this compilation needs revision. Accordingly, a warm critique from the readers is always welcomed.

The Compiler,



Nenni Triana Sinaga, M.Pd.

TABLE OF CONTENT

PREFACE.....	i
TABLE OF CONTENT.....	ii
I. CHAPTER I.....	1
1.1 Language Curriculum Development: An Overview.....	1
1.2 What Is Curriculum.....	1
1.3 The Changing Concept Of Curriculum.....	3
1.4 What Is Curriculum Development.....	3
1.5 Questions to Consider in Planning and developing curriculum.....	4
1.6 Teaching Method As A Factor Influencing The Development And Designing of A Language curriculum.....	5
1.8 Syllabus design and language Teaching Curriculum Development..	5
1.9 Some Consequences for Being Curricula Developers.....	6
1.10 The Role of School Leaders in Implementing.....	7
1.11 Needs Analysis as An Important Facet Of Curriculum Development.	8
II. CHAPTER II.....	15
2.1 Teaching the Four Language Skills in Primary EFL Classroom.....	15
2.2 Listening.....	16
2.3 Speaking.....	18
2.4 Reading.....	20
2.5 Writing.....	21
CHAPTER III.....	23
3.1 Components of the Curriculum, Role of Teachers'.....	23
3.2 Role of Teachers' In Curriculum Development for Teacher Education	27
CHAPTER IV.....	30
4.1 Theory and Practice of Language Teaching: Significance of Needs Analysis In Teaching.....	30
4.2 Identifying the Needs.....	30
CHAPTER V.....	41
5.1 Needs Analysis: Developing Teacher Training Program For Elementary School Homeroom Teachers.....	43

5.2 Needs Analysis for Various Language Programs	44
5.3 Teachers' Priority in English Ability	47
5.4 Teacher Priority in Teaching Practice.....	49
CHAPTER VI.....	52
6.1 Writing Goals and Objectives.....	52
6.2 The Link between Instructional Objectives and Course Activities and Assessment.....	55
CHAPTER VII.....	57
7.1 The Concept of Syllabus Design and Curriculum Development....	57
7.2 Syllabus Analysis.....	60
7.3 Synthetic Vs Analytic.....	62
7.4 Syllabus Design Factors.....	63
7.5 Critical Review of Five Common Syllabus Types.....	68
CHAPTER VIII.....	80
8.1 Varying Lesson for Varying Formats.....	80
8.2 Difference between the Curriculum 2006 and the Curriculum 2013.	89
CHAPTER IX.....	90
9.1 Program Tahunan, Program Semester, Rencana Minggu Efektif....	90
9.2 Langkah-Langkah Menyusun Program Tahunan dan Semester.....	92
9.3 Contoh Format Analisis Pekan Efektif, ProTa dan ProSeme.....	94
CHAPTER X	96
10.1 Rethinking the Curriculum.....	96
REFERENCES	100

CHAPTER I

LANGUAGE CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT: AN OVERVIEW

CECILIA L. CALUB, PH.D.

Professor, Tarlac State University

Email Address: ceciliacalub@yahoo.com

A. WHAT IS CURRICULUM?

One description of curriculum distinguishes it into **varying levels** according to their distance from learners:

1. The **societal** level curriculum describes what is mandated for study at national level.
2. The **intended or written** curriculum is a normative statement of intent for a course or whole programme that is intended primarily to ensure that the educational goals of the system are being accomplished. It is much more specific with the following being specified: goals to be accomplished; specific objectives, the sequence in which those objectives are to be studied; and the kinds of learning activities.
3. The **planned curriculum** results from teachers' interactions with the written curriculum, their own theories of practice and contextual opportunities and constraints.
4. The **instructional, taught or implemented** curriculum is the one that teachers take in to the classroom to negotiate and construct with learners, working with various dynamic constraints and opportunities.
5. The **received or experiential** curriculum is the one that learners experience and from which they construct their understandings.
6. The **learned or achieved** curriculum describes the portion of the received curriculum that learners actually take up and learn. This is the bottom line curriculum that the students actually learn: the values, skills, perceptions, knowledge, behavior that may cause changes in the life of the student
7. The **recommended** curriculum is that one recommended by scholars and professional organizations. It encompasses the curriculum requirements of policy making groups such as DepEd, CHED, TESDA, DOST, DENR, NEDA identifying skills and concepts they ought to learn.

8. The **supported** curriculum includes resources that support the curriculum textbooks, software, and other media.

9. The **assessed** curriculum is the result of the tests and performance measures: state test, standardized test, district test, teacher-made test.

10. The **hidden** curriculum is the unintended curriculum that defines what the students learn from the physical environment, the policies, and the procedures of the school.

Based on the different levels or domains, **curriculum** may be defined as

- A plan for achieving goals;
- Dealing with the learners' experiences;
- System for dealing with the society, filed of study with its own foundations, theories, principles, and specialists;
- A concise statement or table of the heads of a discourse, the contents of a ;
- Treatise, the subjects of a series of lectures. and
- A subject matter or course content.

B. THE CHANGING CONCEPT OF CURRICULUM

Education is on the frontline of the battle for the Philippine's future competitiveness. With the help of a good curriculum there will be a productive education. The organization of schooling and further education has long been associated with the idea of a curriculum. But what actually is curriculum, and how might it be conceptualized? (Matias 2012)

Curriculum encompasses more than just a simple definition. However it can be **prescriptive, descriptive or both.**

1. **Prescriptive** curriculum provides teachers and learners what ought to happen and they take the form of a plan, an intended program, or an expert opinion about what needs to take place in the course of study (Ellis 2004). The curriculum is all the learning experiences or courses planned and directed by the school to attain its educational goals.

2. **Descriptive** curriculum emphasizes that curriculum be taught not merely in terms of how things ought to be but how things are in real classrooms and in real world. Experiences are considered important in the learning process – learnings that each child selects, accepts, and incorporates into himself to act with, on, upon in subsequent experiences under the guidance of a teacher.

C. CURRICULUM AS PRODUCT

The dominant modes of describing and managing education are today couched in the productive form. Education is most often seen as a technical exercise. Objectives are set, a plan drawn up, then applied, and the outcomes (products) measured.

D. WHAT IS CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT?

1. Curriculum development is an essentially practical activity to improve the quality of language teaching through the use of systematic planning, development, and review practices in all aspects of a language program.
2. The process of curriculum development covers determining learners' needs, developing aims or objectives to address the needs, determining an appropriate syllabus, course structure, teaching methods, and materials, and carrying out an evaluation of the language program that results from these activities.

E. QUESTIONS TO CONSIDER IN PLANNING AND DEVELOPING CURRICULUM

1. What procedures can be used to determine the content of a language program?
2. What are learners' needs?
3. How can learners' needs be determined?
4. What contextual factors need to be considered in planning a language program?
5. What is the nature of aims and objectives in teaching and how can these be developed?
6. What factors are involved in planning the syllabus and the units of organization in a course?
7. How can good teaching be provided in a program?

8. What issues are involved in selecting, adapting, and designing instructional materials?
9. How can one measure the effectiveness of a language program?

F. TEACHING METHOD AS A FACTOR INFLUENCING THE DEVELOPMENT AND DESIGNING OF A LANGUAGE CURRICULUM

The activities of language teaching have often been viewed from a very narrow perspective. This is evident from the fascination with teaching methods that have characterized the history of language teaching until recently.

Teaching methods have often been regarded as the most important factor in determining the success of a language program, and advances in language teaching have sometimes been seen as being dependent on the adoption of the latest method. However, clear perspectives are often missing from the method-based view of teaching. How teaching methods interact with other factors in the teaching-learning process is often not thoroughly studied and considered. Among these factors are:

1. The learners and the teachers and their expectations for the program;
2. Learning and teaching styles they bring to the program;
3. Purposes of the language course/curriculum;
4. Goals the program have, and how these goals can be expressed;
5. Settings where teaching take place;
6. Organizational structure to be designed to support and maintain good teaching;
7. Resources to be used and their roles;
8. The role of textbooks, technology, and other teaching materials; and
9. Measures that will be used to determine the success of the program.

Choice of teaching method cannot be made unless a great deal is known about the context for the language program and the interactions between the different elements involved.

It is this perspective that characterizes a curriculum-based approach to language teaching. Being an effective teacher meant much more than becoming a more skillful and knowledgeable classroom practitioner. Effective teaching is dependent on:

1. Understanding the context for teaching;
2. The needs of teachers and learners;
3. The careful planning of courses and materials; and
4. The monitoring of teaching and learning.

It is important, therefore, to understand teaching as a part of an interrelated set of factors and processes that are often referred to as curriculum development (Richards, 2001)

G. SYLLABUS DESIGN AND LANGUAGE TEACHING CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT

1. The history of curriculum development in LT starts with the notion of syllabus design.
2. Syllabus design is one aspect of curriculum development.
3. Curriculum designing is the process of developing a syllabus.
4. A syllabus is a specification of the content of a course of instruction and lists of what will be taught and tested.

Course syllabus has undergone the evolution as it has followed the changes of approaches and methods underlying it.

1. The basic units of language are vocabulary and grammar
2. Learners everywhere have the same needs
3. Learners' needs are identified exclusively in terms of language needs
4. The process of learning a language is largely determined by the textbook
5. The context of teaching is English as a foreign language

H. SOME CONSEQUENCES FOR BEING CURRICULA DEVELOPERS

Curricula developers formulate, develop, and manage their:

1. Teaching learning process

- a. Aims & Objectives. Specify general aims for the lessons series and specific objectives per lesson unit for each grade level – Reflect on national standards
- b. Learning Outcomes
- c. Assessment *Standard*

2. Content

- a. **Specify themes and topics for the lesson series.** Reflect on conceptual consistency (between themes) and sequencing between grade levels
- b. **Learning activities & teacher role.** Specify what activities are expected from the learner and how these are supported by the teacher
- c. Reflect on balance between whole-class activities (e.g. Introduction/closing of the lesson) and activities in grade groups

3. Materials and resources

- a. **Specify what materials and resources are needed to conduct the lesson.** Find out what is available in schools and how parts of existing textbooks can be used as inspiration and/or background for the lesson materials.
- b. **Grouping.** Specify how pupils are to be grouped during the lessons
- c. **Location.** Specify where pupils will be grouped during the lesson
- d. **Time.** Specify the time available for the different lesson elements. Reflect on time available for whole class instruction, individual (independent) work, individual coaching of students
- e. **Assessment.** Specify how learners' progress will be tested

I. THE ROLE OF SCHOOL LEADERS IN IMPLEMENTING WHAT IS IN THE CURRICULUM

Curriculum development is the process by which education is transmitted or delivered to students by the most effective methods that can be devised. In making the curriculum there should be leaders. The school principals serve as the curriculum leaders in which the major

preparation initiatives rightfully focus attention upon instructional leadership skills. They elevate curriculum leadership skills to a new status and principals need support to assume the mantle of curriculum leadership called for today.

J. FACTORS AFFECTING CURRICULUM TODAY

Several factors affect all curriculum development in meeting the needs of 21st century learners in both organized academic settings and corporation learning center. Blueprinting curriculum development requires selecting learning goals, designing knowledge delivery models while creating assessment methods for individual and group progress.

Factors affecting curriculum development include government norms, which in turn brings other factors into the process. Valid curriculum development requires awareness of the diversity of the target community socially, financially and psychologically.

1. Political

Politics affect curriculum development in numerous ways and how politics influences curriculum design and development starts with funding. Both private and public educational institutions rely on funding for hiring personnel, building and maintaining facilities and equipment. All aspects of curriculum depend on local, state and national political standards. From defining goals, interpreting curricular materials to approving examination systems, politics affects curriculum development.

2. Economic

Curriculum for in-house trainings in corporations focuses on educating employees for promotions that bring better returns in profits. Nations financing education expect an economic return from educated students contributing to the country's economy with global competition abilities in technical fields. Curriculum content influences learner goals and standards for academic achievement with an underlying influence of the nation's economy.

3. Technological

Technology-driven curriculum development is the norm of the 21st century. The computer technology of the 21st century influences curriculum development at every level of learning. Learning centers and classrooms increasingly provide computers as requisite

interaction for studies among students. Technological multimedia use influences educational goals and learning experiences among students. Undergraduate and graduate degrees in computer technology are in increase in popularity.

4. Diversity

Curriculum development is affected by diversity that opens learning opportunities. Social diversity includes religion, culture and social groupings. These affect curriculum development because they can influence the types of topics and methods for teaching information. Developing relevant curriculum takes into account society's expectations, accommodating group traditions and promoting equality.

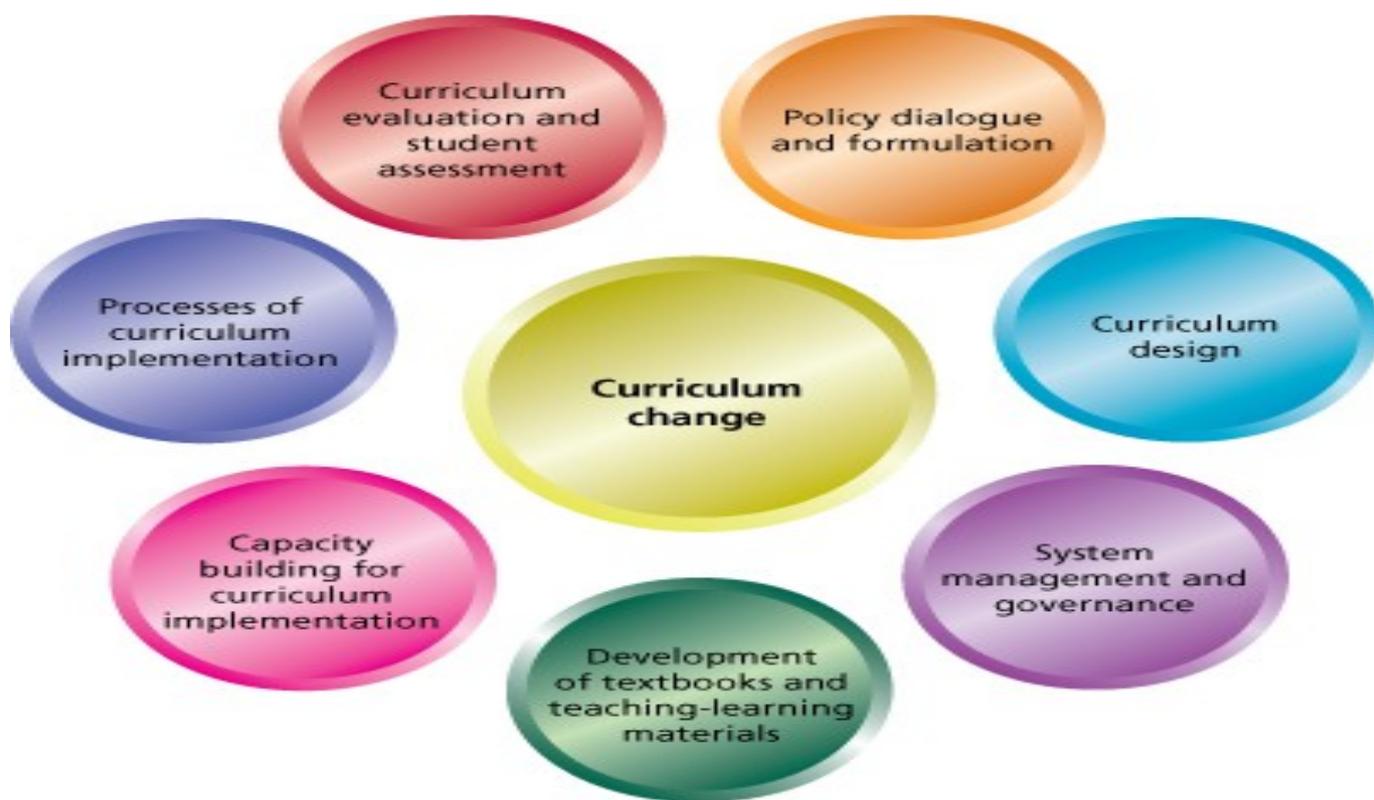
6. Environment

Environment issues affect curriculum development. For instance, world awareness and action toward reversing and ending pollution continues to affect curriculum development. Typical elementary classrooms teach recycling and healthy environmental practices. Higher education in the sciences offers environmentally-focused degrees.

K. THE DIFFERENCE BETWEEN THE CURRICULUM CHANGE AND CURRICULUM INNOVATION

With curriculum innovation, a teacher would be teaching the subject in a new way, perhaps connected with other activities. If one innovative approach hasn't been done before, a simulation of some experience brings in someone who lived in those times--an experience that will transform the knowledge that the students have.

A change or innovation in curriculum will affect the courses/subjects being taught, the resources or materials to be used, the teaching methodology to be applied, the time plan, the subject requirements, even the criteria for rating the learners.



1. Curriculum Change

The curriculum developer places curriculum within the broader framework of quality education and effective educational policy, and defining curriculum change as a dynamic process aimed at ensuring relevance of learning.

2. Policy Dialogue and Formulation

The curriculum developer explores contexts of policy change, firstly by examining possible triggers and rationales for policy change and secondly by providing tools for the analysis of strengths and weaknesses in local contexts and for the identification of the partners involved in, and concerned with, the education system. It then identifies the range of possible stakeholder involvement in policy dialogue and formulation, as well as the possible causes of resistance to policy change.

3. Curriculum Design

The curriculum developer presents a generic structure for curriculum frameworks and examines the relationship between its various constituent elements. It provides an overview of different approaches to the process of defining what learners should know and be able to do at the end of various learning cycles based on the formulation of objectives, skills, competencies and/or standards. Each of these approaches has implications for the structuring of learning

content, time and space allocation at school level, teaching and learning methodologies, and assessment methods.

4. System Management and Governance

The curriculum developer examines the relationship between sound management and governance and successful curriculum development. Consistent with the principle of relevance, it explores the importance of effective management and leadership of curriculum development processes at central, regional and school levels.

This area identifies a number of rationales and modalities for effective management and governance, and considers the need to maintain balance between centralization and decentralization. It explores issues related to the localization of curriculum in specific national and local contexts as a way of ensuring greater responsiveness to local needs and realities. In so doing, it attempts to clarify the different practices associated with decentralization including devolution and decentralization of decision-making power to lower levels, and de-concentration of administrative functions away from the center.

5. Development of Textbooks and Teaching-Learning Materials

This explores current trends in policy and processes of textbook development and presents a variety of models for the curriculum professional to consider. The potential roles of various stakeholders, including the Ministry of Education, in the production and distribution of textbooks are presented and users are invited to consider the schemes that best apply to their contexts. The full range of teaching-learning materials is also explored, and some ideas for the selection and production are given in relation to curriculum needs.

6. Capacity Building for Curriculum Implementation

This area defines capacity building in the context of curriculum change, as a process of developing the knowledge, skills and insight of individuals and groups engaged in curriculum change and empowering them to make informed decisions in such areas as policy

formulation, curriculum design, textbook development and evaluation, piloting and innovation, curriculum evaluation and student assessment through training and the promotion of discourse. Capacity building for curriculum change is examined in the contexts of new teaching and learning approaches and information and communications technology. The module highlights the need for carefully targeted capacity building, the priority areas for empowerment of the targeted stakeholders, and the varied approaches to on-going capacity building in order to sustain the change process.

7. Processes of Curriculum Implementation

This area aims to explore and clarify possible models of curriculum implementation. It examines a range of issues related to implementation, including:

- Planning for the implementation process;
- Analysing funding and resources;
- The process of piloting new curricula;
- The importance of initial and continuing teacher training, and
- The possible roles of regional and school-based leaders in putting new curricula into place.

8. Curriculum Evaluation and Student Assessment

Curriculum evaluation is presented as an important source of curriculum policy change, and of on-going feedback for continuous curriculum adaptation in the process of implementation. Rationales for evaluation are considered and the module then identifies curricula and curriculum components which may be evaluated. Possible approaches to evaluation are explored.

The area focuses on processes and techniques of evaluation: who should evaluate, whose opinions are important, the types of qualitative and quantitative data that can be useful, how to gather data and what to do with data.

L. NEEDS ANALYSIS AS AN IMPORTANT FACET OF CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT

1. Definition: Needs analysis is a procedure used to collect information about learners' needs. Needs analysis as a distinct necessary phase in planning educational programs emerged in the 1960s as part of the system approach to curriculum development and was part of the prevalent philosophy of educational accountability.

2. What are needs?

The term *needs* is sometimes used to refer to wants, desires, demands, expectation, motivation, lacks, constraints (Brindley, 1984). Needs are often described in terms of linguistic deficiency, that is, as describing the difference between what a learner can presently do in a language and what he or she should be able to do. b[...] Porcher (1997) offers a different perspective: "Need is not a thing that exists and might be encountered ready-made on the street. It is a thing that is constructed, the center of conceptual networks and the product of a number of epistemological choices."

3. The Users of Needs Analysis

Determining the likely audiences is an important first step in planning a needs analysis in order to ensure that the information they need is obtained and that the needs analysis will have the impact it is designed to have. Needs analysis can thus have political dimension. It can be used to support a particular agenda, for example, by giving priority to one group to the exclusion of others within a population or in order to justify a decision that has already been made on economic or other grounds.

4. The Target Population

The target population in a needs analysis refers to the people about whom information will be collected. Typically, in language programs these will be language learners or potential language learners, but others are also often involved depending on whether they can provide information useful in meeting the purposes of the needs analysis. For example, in conducting a needs analysis to determine the focus of an English program in public secondary schools in an EFL context, the target population might include:

- a. Policy makers
- b. Ministry of education officials
- c. Teachers

- d. Students
- e. Academics
- f. Employers
- g. Vocational training specialist
- h. Parents
- i. Influential individuals and pressure groups
- j. Academic specialists
- k. Community agencies

5. Procedures for Conducting Needs Analysis

A variety of procedures can be used in conducting needs analysis and the kind of information obtained is often dependent on the type of procedure selected. Since any one source of information is likely to be incomplete or partial, a triangular approach (i.e., collecting information from two or more sources) is advisable. Many different sources of information should be sought. For example, when a needs analysis of the writing problem encountered by foreign students enrolled in American universities is conducted, information could be obtained from the following sources:

- a. Samples of student writing
- b. Test data on a student performance
- c. Reports by teachers on typical problems students face
- d. Opinions of experts
- e. Information from students via interviews and questionnaires
- f. Analysis of textbooks teaching academic writing
- g. Survey or related literature
- h. Examples of writing programs from other institutions
- i. Examples of writing assignments given to first-year university students

6. Instruments for Gathering Data

- 1. Questionnaires
- 2. Self-Rating
- 3. Interviews
- 4. Meetings
- 5. Observation
- 6. Collecting Learner Languages
- 7. Task Analysis
- 8. Case Studies Analysis Of Available Information

7. Designing the Needs Analysis

- 1. Literature survey
- 2. Analysis of a wide range of survey questionnaires
- 3. Contact with others who had conducted similar surveys
- 4. Interviews with teachers to determine goals
- 5. Identification of participating departments
- 6. Presentation of project proposal to participating departments and identification of liaison person in each department

7. Development of a pilot student and staff questionnaires
8. Review the questionnaires by colleagues
9. Piloting of the questionnaires
10. Selection of staff and student subjects
11. Developing a schedule for collecting data
12. Administration of questionnaires
13. Follow-up interviews with selected participants
14. Tabulation of responses
15. Analysis of responses
16. Writing up of report and recommendations
- 8. Making Use of the Information Obtained**

In the course of carrying out a needs analysis, a large number of potential needs may be identified. However, these needs will have to be prioritized because not all of them may be practical to address in a language program, or perhaps the time frame available in the program is suitable for addressing only a portion of them. And the mere fact that needs have been identified does not automatically imply that change will have to be made in the curriculum. First, the existing curriculum (when there is one) has to be examined to see to what extent the needs that have been identified are the needs are being met.

CHAPTER II

TEACHING THE FOUR LANGUAGE SKILLS IN PRIMARY EFL CLASSROOM: SOME CONSIDERATIONS

A. Introduction

The current English teaching at the secondary level in Indonesia are unsatisfactory (Huda, 1999). Despite the great potential advantages of starting the teaching of English in primary schools, the implementation in Indonesia has emerged some problems. First, the teachers graduated from the English department of the teacher training colleges in Indonesia were generally not provided with specialized training in how to meet the needs of primary school English classes.

In general, these colleges' curriculum does not include particular subjects for teaching English to children. The second reason which is closely related to the first is the fact that the teaching of English to young learners is a new and highly dynamic field. Language educators, researchers, and linguists cannot yet formulate certain applicable ideas or suggestions that Indonesian teachers can adopt. Consequently, the teachers are often in doubt about the what and the how to teach. Thirdly, the status of English in the curriculum of primary schools is still a local content. Therefore, the National Education Ministry does not provide English

syllabus for primary school. The syllabus is supposed to be designed by the regional or provincial curriculum board. As a consequence, the objective of English teaching greatly varies from one region to another (even from one school to another in the same region). Although the government has admittedly determined that the objective of teaching English in primary school is to provide a good basis for communicative competence so that the pupils will later find it easier to study in secondary school, the implementation is not yet trouble-free. In practice, some teachers still adopt the methods commonly used in secondary school, e.g. by teaching grammar to the pupils or by asking them to memorize every single word they listen to or read. The uses of such approaches are inadequate to achieve the objective communicative competence. To learn a language in order to use it as a means of communication, the pupils need to deal with the four language skills listening, speaking, reading and writing and the language system sound structure and vocabulary. By mastering these elements, they are expected to be able to integrate them in communication acts.

Listening to other people use language enhances children's ability to speak. Reading helps students develop skills for communicating through writing. Through reading they have incidental contact with the rules of grammar. Reading also enables students to develop a sense for the structure of the language and grammar and increase their vocabulary. Writing helps in developing phonic knowledge and enhances reading fluency, because young children always associate written language with oral language they have mastered. Thus, the separation of the four language skills in the following sections is only for the sake of easiness for discussion.

B. Listening

Although speaking is the most common form of communication, due to several reasons, listening is the first skill to master in order to be proficient in a language. First, no one can say a word before listening to it. Thus, the teacher must take into account that the level of language input (listening) must be higher than the level of language production (speaking). Smith (1975, pp. 98-99) emphasizes: —... good listeners often speak more exactly and more creatively than poor listeners; they have more words at their command. Second, in a conversation, one can respond accurately only after listening precisely. Our daily interactions prove that poor listening can lead to unnecessary arguments and problems. Third, listening constitutes half of the communication process. Fourth, children get the majority

information through listening. Finally, children spend more than half the time they are in the classrooms by listening (Smith, 1975, p. 65).

Realizing these reasons, we can see how important it is for the learners. Despite its importance, listening to a foreign language sounds is possibly the skill which learners usually find the most difficult. This is quite natural since the sounds they hear, at least in initial stages, are unfamiliar. Thus, to get the message sent through an expression, they always feel under unnecessary pressure to understand every word. Another prominent cause that makes listening to a foreign language sounds difficult for children is the fact that children, whether in or out of the classrooms, are subjected to endless number of sounds. To a higher extent, these sounds do not belong to the foreign language they are learning. As a consequence, the learners cannot concentrate on comprehending the sounds of the foreign language they are learning. It is even worsened by the tendency of presenting listening activities in EFL classes as simply opportunities for students to practice listening to English (Field 1998). The default method used in listening class usually begins with some kinds of pre-teaching of the context of the listening material combined with an introduction to some of the vocabulary included in the text. What comes next is often simply listening to the text, listening again, and finally answering some sort of comprehension questions. What is obvious in this default method, which is referred to by Field (1998) as focusing on product rather than process, is that the learners merely practice to listen but do not learn to discriminate the phonological features of the speech they are hearing. Such procedure is of course not necessarily a bad activity. However, if it is employed as the only way for students to learn listening, we cannot expect the learners learn listening effectively. (Rost, 1990) explains that the teaching of listening needs to be focused on discriminating sounds in words, especially phonemic contrasts, in addition to deducing the meaning of unfamiliar words, predicting content, noting contradictions, inadequate information, ambiguities, and differentiating between fact and opinion. To achieve the aims related to listening, the teacher plays an important role that is defined in the following steps.

1. Make sure the physical conditions are properly set up. All the distractions unrelated materials, noise and movement should be removed. The teacher must also be sure that chairs face the right direction so that the eye strain and uncomfortable sitting conditions are erased.
2. It is important to help pupils prepare for the listening task well before they hear the text itself. First of all the teacher must ensure that the children understand the

language they need to complete the task and are fully aware of exactly what is expected of them. Mendelsohn (1994) asserts that learners should know what they are listening for and why.

3. Select, explain, and demonstrate the use of the phonological features (ellipsis, assimilation, prominence, etc.) used in the text you think important for the students to notice in order to decode the text they are going to listen. Don't forget that the student's degree of comprehension largely depends on their ability to discriminate phonemes, to recognize stress and intonation pattern and to retain what they have heard.

4. Use materials based on a wide range of authentic texts, including both monologues and dialogues.

5. The teacher should speak in animated and interesting manner, so that the pupils have a deep interest in the activity.

6. The teacher should also be sure that her speaking speed does not exceed the pupils' listening speed.

7. The next important step the teacher should do is to encourage pupils to anticipate what they are going to hear. In everyday life, the speaker, the situation, and visual clues all help us to decode oral messages. The teacher can help the pupils by presenting the listening activity within the context of the topic of a teaching unit. (In relation to this, using videos in listening classes is also advantageous). This will help the young learners predict what the answers might be. The teacher can also help them further by asking questions and using the illustrations to encourage pupils to guess the answers even before they hear the text. Ask such question as, —Do you think Joko will agree with Tono? ||; —Will Tina help her younger brother clean his bedroom?

8. During the listening the pupils should be able to focus on understanding the message. So, it is imperative to make certain they are not trying to read or write at the same time. It is also necessary to give a second chance to listen to the text to provide a new opportunity to those who were not able to do the task. Mendelsohn (1994) stresses that learners should be given opportunities to progressively structure their listening by listening to a text several times and by working through increasingly challenging listening tasks.

9. When the pupils have completed the activity, encourage the whole class to answer. Try not to put individual pupils under unnecessary pressure. Rather than validating whether an answer is correct or not, replay the cassette or video and let the pupils listen again for confirmation.

10. If the class gives you a variety of answers, list them all on the board and replay the cassette or video, so that the pupils can listen and choose the correct one. Even if they all appear to have completed the task successfully, always motivate them to listen to the text once more and check their answers for themselves.

The teacher needs to stimulate the pupils to appreciate good listening by praising their achievement. For instance, when someone could answer her questions, it is important for her to say, —Very good. You did such a good job! It proves that you listened very well.

C. Speaking

First of all, as it has been stated in the previous section, in language learning the learners are expected to have higher level of language input (listening) than the level of language production (speaking). Thus, the majority of speaking activities used in the first levels should be designed to enable pupils to participate with a minimal verbal response. However, in the last levels, e.g. grade six, pupils are encouraged to begin to manipulate language and express themselves in a much more personal way. Based on my experience, there are three main types of speaking activities we can suitably use in primary schools. The first type is songs, chants, and poems which are very effective to encourage young learners to mimic the model they hear on the cassette or video. This helps pupils to master the sounds, rhythms, and intonation of the English language through simple reproduction. Steiner (as cited in Jaffke, 2004) emphasizes the importance of using poetic language in the first three classes. Based on the experiences of teachers who have [been] teaching young learners for a long time, he explains that poetic language, based on rhythm and rhyme, is learned far more easily by children than is prose language. Along with songs, poetic language introduces the children to the flow of the new language and familiarizes them with its prosodic elements: emphasis, intonation, pitches, etc. In addition, a great number of songs or poems also contain certain grammatical points. Well selected songs or poems can be integrated into lessons for reinforcing grammar points.

The second type of speaking activities used in primary schools is the games and pair work activities. They are commonly based on a given model; they do encourage young learners to begin to manipulate the language by presenting them with a certain amount of choice, albeit within a fairly controlled situation. In addition, using games is also

advantageous because by doing games and pair work activities, the pupils (though they are totally unaware of this at the time) also develop a rich store of grammatical forms and structures. However, since games and pair work necessitate much energy, they are more suitable to use in the upper classes, i.e. in grade four to six.

The third type of speaking activities used in primary schools is oral report and discussions on books the students have finished reading. Children need to talk to each other about what they're reading and share their ideas and insights with others. In this way, the stories come to life, students gain insight and ideas from others, and language learning is enhanced. Zang (2009, p. 34) shows that integrating speaking and reading skills deepens students' understanding of the reading material, reveals any problem they have understanding a text, and, most importantly, lets them apply the information they have read into authentic speaking practice that improves their fluency. Kauchak & Eggen (1998) asserts that talking and social interaction enhances learning of any kind. To succeed any speaking activity, children need to acknowledge that there is a real reason for asking a question or giving a piece of information.

Therefore, the teacher should make sure the activities she presents to the pupils provide a reason for speaking, whether this is to play a game or to find out real information about friends in the class. When the activity begins, make sure that the pupils are speaking as much English as possible without interfering to correct the mistakes that they will probably make. Try to treat errors casually by praising the utterance and simply repeating it correctly without necessarily highlighting the errors. Finally, always offer praise for effort regardless of the accuracy of the English produced.

D. Reading

Although reading is generally after listening and speaking in the hierarchy of communication abilities to be developed, the teaching of English in Indonesian primary school should make reading one of the first priorities to develop. This is not only because reading enables learners to access information from many written texts but also because reading proficiency contributes to one's self-realization and the development of his personal-social adjustment. And since —reading is a very complicated process involving a variety of factors that interact with one another|| (Kim, 2002), it should be developed in graded and sequential phases. The factors involved in reading include sub-reading skills (such as word

recognition, skimming, scanning, sentence comprehension, getting the topic, etc.) and background knowledge. Brindley (1994) emphasizes the essence of background knowledge factor in reading by saying: Texts are not entirely self-contained; they refer to the world. Texts assume knowledge on the part of the reader. Sometimes the knowledge is factually based and refers to objects, events and people. There are many references in texts which depend not on a grasp of facts but on an understanding of cultural institutions and practices (p. 82). To develop pupils' reading skill in English, the teacher might need to consider the following points.

1. In order to make reading an interesting challenge, not a tedious task, it is important that pupils not labor over every word, whether they are skimming the text for general meaning or scanning it to pick out specific information.
2. When choosing texts consider not only their difficulty level, but also their interest or their humor so that children will want to read for the same reasons they read in their own language: to be entertained or to find out something they do not already know.
3. As with listening activities, it is important to spend time preparing for the task by using the illustrations (a usual feature in reading activities for children), pupils' own knowledge about the subject matter, and key vocabulary to help the pupils to predict the general content of the text. Discuss the subject and ask questions to elicit language and to stimulate the pupils' interest in the text before they begin reading. Also make sure that the pupils understand the essential vocabulary they need to complete the task before they begin to read.
4. While the children are reading the text, move around the class providing support if pupils need it. Where possible, encourage pupils to work out the meaning of vocabulary as they come across it, using the context and the supporting illustrations.
5. If the reading activity is directed for comprehension, pupils should be discouraged to read texts aloud. Reading aloud inhibits most pupils and forces them to concentrate on what they are saying as opposed to what they are reading and the meaning is very often lost. Reading aloud should be employed only as an activity to improve pronunciation, to recognize the relationship of the written symbols and the sounds, to learn a play, or to recite a poem.
6. Last but not least, help the pupils fall in love with books. Reading is an enjoyable act. There are wonderful stories and interesting characters one can meet in books. Through reading, one can experience magic, adventure, success, failure, moral

dilemmas, triumph, comedy, or tragedy. In good books one can also learn about interesting things or travel to many fascinating places.

7. Since a teacher's most important job is to help her students fall in love with books, it is imperative to provide the pupils with a variety of texts which meet their language proficiency and interest. It is a very good idea to provide ten or more minutes of silent uninterrupted reading time in every English class. According to Allington (2006), recent studies show that primary age children spend as little as ten minutes a day engaged in authentic reading experiences. Johnson (2008) claims that limiting opportunities to engage in real reading experiences is one of the surest way to retard children's reading progress and limit their intellectual development (p. 12).

E. Writing

In a first language situation, children rarely write what they do not say or read. Young children listen for sounds as they attempt to use letters to record their ideas on paper (Johnson, 2008: 7). Thus, a writing program in such setting is always preceded by rich, broad and meaningful program in oral expression and sensible and interesting reading activities. In contrast, since writing is less threatening than speaking in that children need not be afraid of mispronouncing an unfamiliar word, in a second or foreign language learning children can have their first experiences of producing written statements in English well before they start speaking in the language. According to Gordon (2007), —Second language literacy experts recommend that literacy instruction should start early in the ESL classroom, before children develop full proficiency in a second language|| (p. 96).

In primary schools, EFL pupils progress from writing isolated words and phrases, to short paragraphs about themselves or about very familiar topics (family, home, hobbies, friends, food, etc.) Since many pupils at this level are not yet capable either linguistically or intellectually of creating a piece of written text from scratch, it is important that time be spent building up the language they will need and providing a model on which they can then base their own efforts. The writing activities should therefore be based on a parallel text and guide the pupils, using simple cues. These writing activities generally appear towards the end of a unit so that pupils have had plenty of exposure to the language and practice of the main structures and vocabulary they need. The writing of primary school pupils, whether done in

class or at home, will invariably contain mistakes. Again, the teacher should try to be sensitive in his/her correction and not necessarily insist on every error being highlighted.

CHAPTER III

COMPONENTS OF THE CURRICULUM, ROLE OF TEACHERS'

A. The Components of the Curriculum

The nature of the elements and the manner in which they are organized may comprise which we call a curriculum design.

Component 1: Curriculum Aims, Goals and Objectives

Aims: Elementary, Secondary, and Tertiary Goals: School Vision and Mission
Objectives: educational objectives Domains: 1. Cognitive – knowledge, comprehension, application, analysis, synthesis, evaluation 2. Affective – receiving, responding, valuing, organization, characterization 3. Psychomotor – perception, set, guided response, mechanism, complex overt response, adaptation, origination.

Component 2: Curriculum Content or Subject Matter

Information to be learned in school, another term for knowledge (a compendium of facts, concepts, generalization, principles, theories.

1. Subject-centred view of curriculum: The Fund of human knowledge represents the repository of accumulated discoveries and inventions of man down the centuries, due to man's exploration of his world,
2. 2. Learner-cantered view of curriculum: Relates knowledge to the individual's personal and social world and how he or she defines reality. Jerome Bruner: "Knowledge is a model we construct to give meaning and structure to regularities in experience" Criteria used in selection of subject matter for the curriculum:

Curriculum Notes

1. Self-sufficiency – "less teaching effort and educational resources, less learner's effort but more results and effective learning outcomes – most economical manner (Scheffler, 1970).
2. Significance – contribute to basic ideas to achieve overall aim of curriculum, develop learning skills.
3. Validity – meaningful to the learner based on maturity, prior experience, educational and social value.
4. Utility – usefulness of the content either for the present or the future.
5. Learnability – within the range of the experience of the learners,
6. Feasibility – can be learned within the time allowed, resources available, expertise of the teacher, nature of learner.

Principles to follow in organizing the learning contents (Palma, 1992)

1. BALANCE: Content curriculum should be fairly distributed in depth and breath of the particular learning area or discipline. This will ensure that the level or area will not be overcrowded or less crowded.
2. ARTICULATION: Each level of subject matter should be smoothly connected to the next, glaring gaps or wasteful overlaps in the subject matter will be avoided.
3. SEQUENCE. This is the logical arrangement of the subject matter. It refers to the deepening and broadening of content as it is taken up in the higher levels.

The horizontal connections are needed in subject areas that are similar so that learning will be related to one another. This is INTEGRATION.

Learning requires a continuing application of the new knowledge, skills, and attitudes or values so that these will be used in daily living. The constant repetition, review and reinforcement of learning is what is referred to as CONTINUITY.

Component 3 – Curriculum Experience

Instructional strategies and methods will link to curriculum experiences, the core and heart of the curriculum. The instructional strategies and methods will put into action the goals and use of the content in order to produce an outcome. Teaching strategies convert the written curriculum to instruction. Among these are time-tested methods, inquiry approaches, constructivist and other emerging strategies that curriculum notes.

Complement new theories in teaching and learning. Educational activities like field trips, conducting experiments, interacting with computer programs and other experiential learning will also form part of the repertoire of teaching. Whatever methods the teacher utilizes to implement the curriculum, there will be some guide for the selection and use, Here are some of them:

1. Teaching methods are means to achieve the end,
2. There is no single best teaching method,
3. Teaching methods should stimulate the learner's desire to develop the cognitive, affective, psychomotor, social and spiritual domain of the individual,
4. In the choice of teaching methods, learning styles of the students should be considered,
5. Every method should lead to the development of the learning outcome in three domains,
6. Flexibility should be a consideration in the use of teaching methods.

Component 4 – Curriculum Evaluation

To be effective, all curricula must have an element of evaluation. Curriculum evaluation refer to the formal determination of the quality, effectiveness or value of the program, process, and product of the curriculum. Several methods of evaluation came up. The most widely used is Stufflebeam's CIPP Model. The process in CIPP model is continuous and very important to curriculum managers. CIPP Model – Context (environment of curriculum), Input (ingredients of curriculum), Process (ways and means of implementing), Product accomplishment of goals - process is continuous. Regardless of the methods and materials evaluation will utilize, a suggested plan of action for the process of curriculum evaluation is introduced. These are the steps:

1. Focus on one particular component of the curriculum. Will it be subject area, the grade level, the course, or the degree program? Specify objectives of evaluation.

2. Collect or gather the information. Information is made up of data needed regarding the object of evaluation.
3. Organize the information. This step will require coding, organizing, storing and retrieving data for interpretation.
4. Analyse information. An appropriate way of analysing will be utilized.
5. Report the information. The report of evaluation should be reported to specific audiences. It can be done formally in conferences with stakeholders, or informally through round table discussion and conversations.
6. Recycle the information for continuous feedback, modifications and adjustments to be made.

B. Role Of Teachers' In Curriculum Development For Teacher Education

Teacher Education provides a platform to student-teachers to acquire the required knowledge, skill and develop positive attitude, values and beliefs. This can be done with the help of the provided curriculum. And the quality of teacher produced in any institution invariably depends on the curriculum offered to them during their training period. After reviewing various researches on the curriculum and significant role of teachers' in framing the curriculum the process of curriculum development was decentralized. The process of curriculum framing and preparation of textbooks be decentralized so as to increase teachers' involvement in these tasks. Decentralization should mean greater autonomy within the state/district.

As curriculum is the best mean of overall development of students. And teacher is mediator between curriculum and students. She/he knows various needs of students, educational institutions, industries, parents (stakeholders). The quality of teacher education is maintained by curriculum of Teacher Education. The curriculum development is dynamic process. The objectives of this paper are 1. To explain the curriculum development process. 2. To explain the role of the teacher as curriculum developer. 3. To communicate the best practices in the context of curriculum development. Firstly, understand the meaning of curriculum. Curriculum plays an important role in the field of teacher education. Curriculum is the planned interaction of pupils with instructional content, materials, resources, and processes for evaluating the attainment of educational objectives. Curriculum is used in several meanings. There are also a number of definitions of the term, curriculum. The word

curriculum is derived from the Latin word 'Carrere' which means 'run' and it signifies a 'run-away' or a course which one runs to reach a goal.

Carl (1995:40) defines curriculum development as "... an umbrella and continuous process in which structure and systematic planning methods figure strongly from design to evaluation." For the purposes of this study, this definition is accepted as it includes all aspects from design, dissemination, and implementation to evaluation. According to Taylor (1966) curriculum means all the learning which is planned or guided by the school, whether it is carried in groups or individually, inside or outside the school. Kerr (1968) says, "Curriculum means all the learning which is planned or guided by the school, whether it is carried on in groups or individually, inside or outside the school". Importance of curriculum in teacher education. A curriculum guides the instructional lessons that teachers use. A curriculum defines what the learner will learn and can possibly guide when the learner learns the information from the lesson. A curriculum offers teachers the ideas and strategies for assessing student progress. A student must meet certain academic requirements in order to go to the next level. Without the guidance of a curriculum, teachers cannot be certain that they have supplied the necessary knowledge or the opportunity for student success at the next level, whether that the levels involve a high school, college or career. Curriculum can help students to achieve some personal control over their learning, to plan their semester, and to manage their time effectively, and describes Active Learning. Students often conceive of learning as the acquisition of correct information, but they may not know what it means to take an active role in the process, beyond rote memorization and recall, students should be given some idea about what they should already know and what skills they should already have before taking course so they can realistically assess their readiness, sets the course in a Broader Context for Learning, describes Available Learning Resources.

Curriculum development is the process of creating planned syllabus, teaching, training, and exhibition modes. It is a term used to refer to the process of instituting and putting in place precise guidelines of instruction for the curriculum. It describes ways in which teaching and different training organizations plan and guide learning which can be in groups or as an individual. Curriculum development is a local, regional, or state/provincial level process that student teachers often have difficulty comprehending (Hansen, Fliesser, Froelich, & McClain, 1992). In their eyes, it is something undertaken by authorities (e.g., regional advisory committee members) with years of experience in the teacher education

system. The expectation of the teacher candidates, often enough, is that they will learn how to teach and thereby become effective at transmitting the knowledge, skills, and attitudes associated with a particular subject or program. Education practitioners with years in the profession know differently. Successful practice in the classroom is inextricably linked to curriculum development-the everyday decisions about both what to teach and how to teach. Curriculum development process Curriculum development is dynamic process it changes according to the need of the society and the stakeholders of the education system. The curriculum development process includes several stages such as planning, preparing, designing, developing, implementing, evaluating, revising, and improving. Traditionally curriculum development has been seen as planning for a sustained process of teaching and learning in a formal institutional setting. Curriculum development is systematic and dynamic process sensitive to time and place in which preparation, development, implementation and evaluation steps are involved. The challenges in curriculum development. There are varieties of challenges facing curriculum development, but in general they are classified into three types, global challenges (external), internal challenges of the education systems, and challenges specific to Region. With regard to the external challenges, curriculum planners should response to eight critical processes: the process of globalization, accelerated pace of scientific and technological progress, radical transformation in the work field, increasing social inequalities, progress of democracy and human rights, multi-culturalism, the feeling of insecurity, and moral decline. In addition, the third type of challenges may be summarized as: universal literacy, shortage of highly skilled human resources, reconciling traditional orientation of education with the aspiration for modernity, privatization of schools, diversification of the economy, the need to invest more in education research.

Role of teacher in curriculum development Teachers know the needs of all stakeholders of teacher education. Teachers can understand the psychology of the learner. Teachers are aware about the teaching methods and teaching strategies. Teachers also play the role as evaluator for the assessment of learning outcomes. So teachers must possess some qualities such as planner, designer, manager, evaluator, researcher, decision maker and administrator. Teachers play the respective role for the each step of curriculum development process.

Curriculum planning involves analysis of philosophy, social forces, needs, goals and Objectives, treatment of knowledge, human development, learning process & instruction, and decision. Curriculum preparation involves systematic data, content, selection, collection, assessment, organization. Design factors includes school (levels, types, Structures), educational technology, systemic vocational, social reconstruction, Curriculum design, analysis of social needs, translating the needs into Course/general/learning/terminal objectives, splitting the objectives into specific objectives, grouping the specific objectives into subjects, deriving the subjects from the above classification, specifying enabling objectives, unitizing each subject matter, specification of required time, and syllabus formulation. Curriculum development phases consist of Instructional development, Materials & media development, Methods of teaching & testing Implementation of the Curriculum involves Instructional scheme of each subject to be completed in the semester, Planning the lessons as per the timetable, Using the transactional strategies, Using the appropriate media, Providing the learning resources, Promoting classroom learning experiences, Progressive testing Curriculum evaluation involves, Intra-curricular evaluation, Teacher evaluation of students, Student evaluation of teachers, Materials evaluation, Verification of methods, Evaluation of tests and examinations, Checking the learning outcomes while on the field, Curriculum review/ improvement/ change/ modification, System revision.

Best practices Minocha, Manisha (1989) undertaken a study entitled “Responses of primary school teachers to an experimental school teachers to an experiment in curriculum reform: a study of the teachers involved in the integrated programme” the findings of this study as follows: teachers were more receptive to the NCERT evaluation scheme and textbooks than to those of the integrated programme, teachers cited many problems that they faced, the problems related to learners parents being the most intense. Yadav, A.J. (1992) undertaken a study entitled “A study of hotel workers in Kolhapur district with a view to preparing a curriculum for their education” the major objective for this study was to develop a need based curriculum for hotel worker and to examine the impact of training programme on hotel worker. The findings were a need based curriculum for hotel worker can be developed. Patnagar, P.S. (2013) undertaken research entitled “M.Ed. Curriculum as a Quality Indicator in teacher education: student’s feedback”.

Jadhav, M.S.(2013) undertaken research entitled “Quality Circles in M.Ed. Curriculum for enhancing Quality of Teacher Education”. In this research quality circles are assumed as

student-teachers complete predetermined task in groups to successfully complete the M.Ed. curriculum. The findings of this study are quality circles work very effectively in implementing M.Ed. curriculum. Present M.Ed. curriculum (prescribed by Shivaji University) is playing very important role in shaping the personality of students also indirectly enhance the quality of Teacher Education. In last year Department of Education, Shivaji University, Kolhapur organized an orientation programme for B.Ed. curriculum for teacher-educators.

Conclusion Curriculum development is intellectual and research activity. It needs the skilful programmers for planning, developing, designing, implementing, evaluation and improving phase. Teachers know the needs of all stakeholders of teacher education. Teachers can understand the psychology of the learner. Teachers are aware about the teaching methods and teaching strategies. Teachers also play the role as evaluator for the assessment of learning outcomes. Teacher can be worked as planner, designer, manager, programmer, implementer, coordinator, decision maker, evaluator, researcher etc. so teachers can play important role in the process of curriculum development for teacher education.

CHAPTER IV THEORY AND PRACTICE OF LANGUAGE TEACHING: SIGNIFICANCE OF NEEDS ANALYSIS IN TEACHING

A. INTRODUCTION

The realisation that the ESP learners should come to know the route to take and their ultimate destination is now almost always clearly recognized. ESP (English for Specific Purposes) specialists now prioritise as well as anticipate students' needs - '*the english situations*' (John and Dudley-Evans, 1991), to undergo constant alteration and adjustment and therefore carefully tailor short ESP courses which entail an intensive, focused and planned teaching, giving the students exactly what they want or need. This article prepares the blueprint of a needs analysis of the employees of an international airline company, AirAsia Airlines, working at the airport check-in counter, and recommends an effective structure of a four week long intensive English language course christened as 'Airfield English' which is developed exclusively for them, who are otherwise Bengali native speakers.

Although the concept of a low-cost airline is rather novel and fast gaining popularity in Bangladesh, for tourists from elsewhere in the world, it is a different story on the whole. As

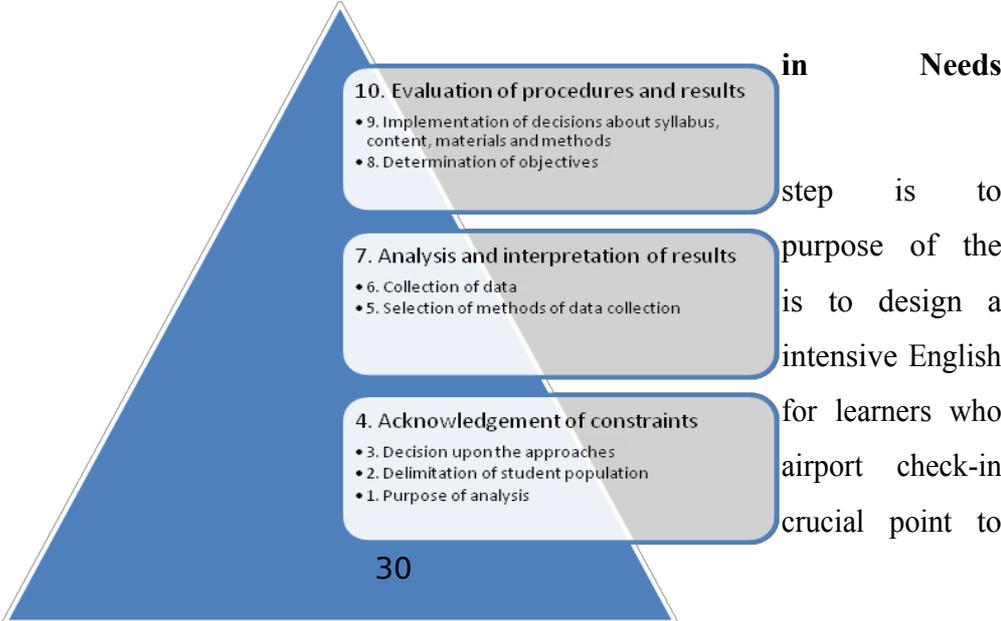
Bangladesh receives more exposure to what she has to offer, the numeral of international tourists is rising day by day. Furthermore while global connections pick up the pace, personnel from various foreign organisations make Bangladesh their home, many of whom make it a point to visit all the popular destinations in Asia. Budget airlines like AirAsia, Jet Airways, Air-India Express, Kingfisher, Ryanair thus have started to explore the thriving prospect in shipping travellers to various destinations of Asia and beyond.

B. IDENTIFYING THE NEEDS

For Dudley-Evans and St. John, needs analysis is the ‘cornerstone’ (1998: 122) of ESP which very precisely guide learners to the pathway of effective learning. Jordan (1997:22) further reinforces the fact and proposes that needs analysis should be the “starting point for devising syllabuses, courses, materials and the kind of teaching and learning that takes place”. As needs analysis in ESP focuses on the skills learners need to study or work effectively in their target environments, prior to it comes the necessity of data collection which comprises of information about the students and their learning needs. At the initial stage, it is imperative to pose some fundamental questions (Richterich, 1983:2) as to why the analysis is being undertaken and whose needs are to be analysed. Equally important is to determine whether the sponsor, the institution or the student would decide what the language needs are. The most important question to consider, however, is to outline how the analysis would be conducted and what various means are going to be used in the process. A pyramidal framework that will guide the needs analysis is illustrated in Figure 1 below:

Figure 1: Steps in Needs Analysis

The first highlight the analysis which four week long language course work at the counter. The next



determine is whether only the students' needs would be analysed or also the institution's needs which are expected to be fulfilled by its employees.

The next step is to determine the approaches to needs analysis- whether it would involve a target situation analysis or a present-situation analysis to verify what the learners actually require. A needs analysis which focuses on students' needs at the end of a language course can be called a target situation analysis (TSA) whereas a present situation analysis (PSA) seeks to establish what strengths and weaknesses the students possess at the start of their language course. At this stage, it is crucial to determine the '*objective*' and '*subjective*' needs (*Richterich, 1980: 32*) without which the process of needs analysis remains incomplete. Objective needs, otherwise known as TSA, are defined as "derivable from different kinds of factual information about learners, their use of language in real- life communication situations as well as their current language proficiency and language difficulties" (*Brindley, 1989:70*). To assess the objective needs of the employees, it is vital to know about their national, cultural, family, educational and professional backgrounds. Assessment of objective needs most importantly involves evaluation of the employees' proficiency in speaking and comprehension of English. Objective information about the employees' academic life, their level of English and their field of study will greatly contribute to the design of the subsequent course.

Furthermore an extensive study of the tasks the employees would have to carry out in English at the airport check-in counter would serve as a basis for designing the language course. As *Berwick (1989:57)* justifies, "The emphasis of target situation analysis is on the nature and effect of target language communications in particular situations... Expert analysis of communication establishes standards against which current performance can be gauged." Before directing the passengers to the immigration counter, the employees' duties would involve issuing passengers their boarding pass having verified their passport with a valid visa after checking their luggage in.

Similarly the students' subjective needs have to be taken into consideration, the idea of which refers to "the cognitive and affective needs of the learner in the learning situation" drawn from the information which originate from various "affective and cognitive factors such as personality, confidence, attitudes, learners' wants and expectations with regard to the learning of English and their individual cognitive style and learning strategies" (*Brindley, 1989:70*). Thus, it is significant to gather practical information about the employees' attitude

towards the target language, their expectations and their level of confidence, the motivation behind taking the ESP course and any preferences as to how they will learn the language.

The question that arises now is who will provide the information for the needs analysis. The sources of information are obviously the employees, the language-teaching institute itself and the 'user-institution' (Richterich and Chancerel, 1980), that is, the concerned company itself along with its employees. Often information about the learners comes from the company, who already have definite expectations about what the employees should be able to do. Hence there is a chance that the learners' actual need or want would take the backseat and the course they are forced to take would eventually become uninteresting to them (Auerbach, 1995). Chambers (1980) raises another issue about the learners being unaware of their needs. Learners with vague knowledge about language may lack the metalanguage to describe their perception of needs (Long, 1996) in a meaningful way. Not only would they make an erroneous decision about their needs but they would also mislead the needs analysts. This is quite crucial when the learners are relatively unfamiliar with the job they are to perform. Akin to what Benesch (2001) holds true, yet it is awkwardly proper to say that needs analysis - as a means of fitting outsiders into the communicative practices of linguistically privileged in-groups, does often force learners to conform to established practices.

The most decisive element of needs analysis that comes next is to choose the method of analysis as the type of information sought during the needs analysis is closely related to the approach to teaching. Out of all the comprehensive methods of needs analysis that Robinson (1991) lists, means like questionnaires, interviews, participatory discussion, recordings or observations of authentic target situations (e.g. greeting passengers, helping them with information about other destinations AirAsia flies to or checking luggage in) and diagnostic tests would be the most effective needs analysis tools for the AirAsian staffs. The employees would be given a questionnaire survey in English which rely totally on the perception of the students about their own needs. The questionnaires would attempt to collect information on the students' proficiency in English and their views and perceptions towards language learning. However, the problem arises with the issue that students cannot always identify their problems in terms of linguistic forms or functions. Thus the employees would also be assessed through an oral interview in Bengali, which would provide an opportunity for personal explanation of questions. An interview can reveal precise information about the employees'

listening and speaking difficulties if any, together with other information about their attitudes, motivation and expectations in taking the intensive language course.

A collection of authentic correspondence, such as audio and video recordings from the workplace will be produced to ascertain the functional form of the skills the employees need and may lack. The employees would be asked specific questions like what they need to do in each skill area that is important for their job or what they think they can do to be successful in the course. Although it is a more time consuming method than the questionnaire, the interview would be more effective and helpful as the employees would engage themselves in a discussion session giving their own perspective about their needs and weaknesses, with room for them to make recommendations as to what should happen in the course. On the other hand, some authorized personnel from the airline company would also be interviewed so as to know what they want their employees to be able to do and how urgent the need is. After all the data have been collected and analysed, the language course would be tailored to the potential learners' special needs. The next stage is to frame the course structure into a form which will pose as a basis for teaching.

Post Needs Analysis I: The Syllabus Design

Reverberating Hutchinson and Waters' idea (1987: 65) that a course is, "an integrated series of teaching- learning experiences" which seeks "to lead the learners to a particular state of knowledge", the next step to follow is to design the syllabus of the course based on the analysis of the needs of the AirAsian personnel. As Yalden (1984:14) terms it, a syllabus is truly "an instrument...[that] can achieve a degree of 'fit' between the needs and aims of the learner and the activities which will take place in the classroom."The syllabus of course acts as a scheme which would coordinate the elements that will be used in planning the language course and present a basis for the subsequent teaching of the course. For a four week long intensive English language course designed especially for employees working at an airport check-in counter, the best framework would be a blend of notional-functional and a structural syllabus. A notional-functional syllabus focuses primarily on the use of the language rather than linguistic form. Finocchiaro and Brumfit (1983:17) aptly points out that a functional-notional syllabus sets realistic tasks and accounts for the teaching of everyday, real-world language in a highly communicative setting. As Richards (2001: 155) further rationalizes, a

functional syllabus provides a convenient framework for the design of teaching materials, particularly in the domains of listening and speaking. Since the particular job requires the AirAsian staffs to deeply engage their listening and speaking skills, the inclination would be more towards a notional-functional syllabus than a structural one that focuses strictly on a systematic, grammatical rule-based mode of learning.

Even though the notional-functional syllabus is often accused of having a phrasebook approach which obstructs a learner's creative system, it is also believed that a dynamic learner first learns the chunks of phrasal expressions as a whole and then re-analyses and re-lexicalises in order to internalize them into his creative faculty. Nevertheless, typically the syllabus for this course will seek to encompass a range of components like structures, lexis, phonological items, skills, topics, tasks and so on. Such a combination would offer the AirAsian employees the potential for almost instant competence by providing them with ready-made communicative packages that teach chunks of phrases besides bits and pieces of basic grammatical and lexical rules.

The main justification of such a selection lies in the fact that the duration of this intensive language course for the employees of AirAsia Airlines would be expanded over a period of only four weeks with four hours tuition per week. The course would closely resemble short evening courses which sell readymade, convenient communicative packages

Course Outline

Course Title: *Airfield English*

Duration: Four Weeks

Schedule: 6:30 pm-8:30pm (Thurs)

9:30 am-11:30 am (Fri)

Aim: *Airfield English* is a course in English language communication skills specially designed for the staffs working at the airport check-in counter of AirAsia Airline. The basic aim of the course is to teach and refine the students' ability to communicate effectively in English. The four-weeks-long intensive course offers a student-centred learning environment and provides a combination of Basic English with professional jargon and work-oriented uses of the language.

Objectives: The course will assist learners -

- to communicate clearly besides structuring and organising their utterances and adapting to different situations
- to develop and expand vocabulary and grammatical accuracy
- to improve their pronunciation, interact and to express themselves in various professional contexts
- to innovate ways to deal with unexpected linguistic situations at work
- to develop listening skills so as to understand the speech of people from different background
- to gain competence in listening to the sounds of language so as to recognize them and mark the appropriate use of stress and intonation.

which generate quick and basic language performance. Since the employees need to effectively communicate with passengers to carry out activities like checking their passport and luggage and issue boarding passes, the teaching would involve breaking down the various functional elements into useful small chunks to fixed phrases.

**COURSE
PLAN**

The tasks or the activities of the course would be geared to the learners' specific situation. Activities like role-play, turn-taking, prepared monologue or activities like picture elicitation which resemble the real occupational situation where the employees would find themselves engaged in, would teach the various notional and functional elements of the communication. Advise Expressing Necessity a passenger and take care of all the check-in procedures. As seen from the model course outline given below.

Unit 1: Greeting

Unit 2: Vocabulary – Airports

Unit 3: Air travel

Unit 4: Basic Grammar

Unit 5: Giving Advice/Expressing Necessity

Unit 6: Giving Instructions

Unit 7: Pronunciation, Stress and

Intonation Unit 8: Word Partners

(Collocations)

Unit 9: Apologies, excuses and thanks

Unit 10: Requests, invitations and suggestions

Unit 11: Special conventions in English ('cheers', 'good luck', 'bless you', 'godspeed')

Unit 12: Frequency and degree/Modifiers

Level	Pronunciation	Structure	Vocabulary	Fluency	Comprehension (Aural)	Interactions
4 (Excellent)	Pronunciation, stress and intonation, though possibly influenced by the first language or regional variation, almost never interfere with ease of	Both basic and complex grammatical structures and sentence patterns are consistently well controlled.	Vocabulary range and accuracy are sufficient to communicate effectively on a wide variety of familiar and unfamiliar situations. Vocabulary is idiomatic and sensitive	Able to speak at length with a natural, effortless flow. Varies speech flow for stylistic effect, e.g. to emphasize a point. Uses appropriate discourse markers and connectors	Comprehension is consistently accurate in nearly all contexts and includes comprehension of linguistic intricacies.	Interacts with ease in nearly all situations. Is sensitive to verbal and non-verbal cues, and responds to them appropriately.

	understanding.		e to register.		spontaneously.	
3 (Very Good)	Pronunciation, stress and intonation, though influenced by the first language or regional variations, rarely interfere with ease of understanding.	Basic grammatical structures and sentence patterns are consistently well controlled. Complex structures are attempted but with errors which rarely interfere with meaning.	Vocabulary range and accuracy are sufficient to communicate effectively on communication issues. Paraphrases consistently and successfully. Vocabulary is sometimes idiomatic	Able to speak at length with relative ease on familiar situations, but may not vary speech flow as a stylistic device. Can make use of appropriate discourse markers or connectors.	Comprehension is accurate on common issues and generally accurate with unexpected situations apart from some little glitches..	Responses are immediate, appropriate, and informative.

atic.

2 (Good)	Pronunciation, stress and intonation are influenced by the first language or regional variation but only sometimes interfere with ease of understanding.	Basic grammatical structures and sentences patterned are used creatively and usually well controlled. Errors may occur, particularly in unusual or unexpected	Vocabulary range and accuracy are usually sufficient to communicate effectively on common issues. Can often paraphrase successfully when lacking vocabulary in unusual or unexpected circumstances.	Produces stretches of language at an appropriate tempo. Can make limited use of discourse markers or connectors. Fillers are not distracting.	When the speaker is confronted with a linguistic or situational complication or an unexpected turn of events, comprehension may be slower.	Responses are sometimes immediate, appropriate, and informative. Can initiate and maintain exchanges of familiar situations but generally deals inadequately with an unexpected turn of events.
-------------	--	---	---	---	--	---

circumstances.

1 (Average)	Pronunciation, stress and intonation are heavily influenced by the first language or regional variation and usually interfere with ease of understanding.	Shows only limited control of a few simple memorized grammatical structures and sentence patterns.	Limited vocabulary range consisting only of isolated words and memorized phrases.	Can produce very short, isolated, memorized utterances with frequent pausing and use of fillers to search for expressions and to articulate less familiar words.	Comprehension is limited to isolated, memorized phrases when they are carefully and slowly articulated.	Response time is slow, and often inappropriate. Interaction is limited to simple routine exchanges.
----------------	---	--	---	--	---	---

Once the framework of the course has been designed, it would be evaluated every now and then to check on the progress and effectiveness of the course.

Post Needs Analysis II: Choosing what to teach

As it is not possible to teach every aspect of a language skill, course designers have no other option but to be selective. Especially when it comes to the case of ESP teaching, with the constraints of time and money, the language teachers have to select only what the learners need. Hutchinson and Waters (1987) have justifiably claimed that specifying course content is value laden and has revealed our notions of what language is and how language is learned. They further describe ESP course as a journey whose destination is known, but the route is yet to be discovered. Indeed analyzing learning needs is a crucial way to determine the route while at the same time “maintain[ing] its relevance to target needs” (Hutchinson and Waters, 1987:93). As the learners’ needs are given maximum importance, a great deal of motivation works on the part of the learners who see the relevance of

what they are studying, which is specifically tailored to their needs. Furthermore, as the ESP courses are restricted by time, time is effectively utilized with the learners learning just what they aspire to learn. Thus a typical activity could be a role-play which engages two learners into a straight-forward checking-in conversation (see Activity 1 below).

Speaker 1: Good morning. May I have your ticket, please?

Speaker 2: There you go.

Speaker 1: And your passport please... Thank you! Are you a tourist or on business?

Speaker 2: I'm actually a tourist.

Speaker 1: Would you prefer a window or an aisle seat?

Speaker 2: An aisle seat, please. I get suffocated at times for god knows what reason.

Speaker 1: Oh, I'm sorry to hear that. (Pause) Do you have any baggage?

Speaker 2: Yes, this suitcase and this carry-on bag.

Speaker 1: Here's your boarding pass, sir. It would be D15, an aisle seat of course.

Speaker 2: Oh, bless you!

Speaker 1: Pleasure is all mine. Here's the luggage tag. Please keep it safe, you'll need it for baggage reclaim.

Speaker 2: Cheers!

Speaker 1: Now walk through that security archway please. Immigration would be straight up ahead. After that you may wait at the departure lounge in Terminal 12. You'll be boarding in about 45 minutes. Do have a nice flight sir.

Akin to Activity 1, another useful exercise could be devised by asking the learners to write dialogues after giving them certain situational cues as shown in Activity 2 below.

Present a dialogue between you and your partner explaining the check-in process at the airport. In the dialogue include the following:

- ✓ Check - in luggage
- ✓ Check if the flight will leave on time
- ✓ Pass through security
- Put your luggage on the conveyor belt
- Take out your bag of liquid
- Keep your cell phone and laptop in a tray
- Keep your boarding pass in your hand
- Go through the detector
- Get your things

Likewise listening activities to teach the learners airport jargons and vocabulary could very well be designed like the ones shown below (Activity 3 and 4).

Listen to these airport announcements and complete the missing information about each flight.

flight	departure time	gate
1. BA 445	2035	1
2. BA 116		
3.	1325	
4.		12
5. AA136		
6.		3
7.	1645	

Interesting class materials to get the learners familiar with certain lexical items can be developed with the help of a crossword puzzle (see Activity 5 below), a real world

Close your eyes and listen to a song. Try to find out the missing words while you listen.

Airport

So many _____ faces going to so many places Where the _____ is much better

And the food is so much cheaper.

Well I help her with her _____ for her _____ is so heavy

I hear the _____ is ready by the _____ to take my love away.

And I can't believe that she really wants to leave me and it's getting me so,

It's getting me so.

_____ -

_____, you've got a smiling face, you took the one I love so far away

Fly her away - _____ her away - airport.

_____, you've got a smiling face You took my lady to another place Fly her away - fly her away.

description (Activity 6) or even a multiple-choice exercise (Activity 7).



5. Guess the missing words from the given clues.

1. You sit on _____

_____ offers regular services carrying

passengers or goods on a plane _____

- 9. A structure like a door where passengers leave the airport and get on their plane.
- 7. An official document with your name, photograph and other personal details, which you need to pass.
- 10. The airplane's landing gear that you see with you when you take off.
- 6. The airplane's landing gear that you see with you when you take off.

Such functional tasks closely associated to real life situations would indeed assist the AirAsian employees to successfully play with English in actual situations, giving them the opportunity to accomplish their job responsibilities with a great competence.

Conclusion

In analysing needs, ESP curriculum designers identify which skills are especially important for a particular group of ESP learners. And the instruction helps the learners become more aware of the English language use in their academic as well as professional life. Language in ESP is learnt as a means to acquire a ‘greater linguistic efficiency’ (Basturkmen, 2006) so that the learners who resemble ‘empty vessels’ (Freire,1970) succeed to “adapt to the world as it is and to the fragmented

KUSUMOTO, NEEDS ANALYSIS FOR JAPANESE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL
View of reality deposited in them' (Freire, 1970: 54). The blueprint otherwise prepared for the employees of AirAsia might as well be used to trace out the specific needs of employees working in other domestic or international airline companies as well as the national airline Biman, and be an aid in bringing English into play in a place like Bangladesh where English is fast becoming imperative as global connections improve.

46

CHAPTER V

NEEDS ANALYSIS: DEVELOPING A TEACHER TRAINING PROGRAM FOR ELEMENTARY SCHOOL HOMEROOM TEACHERS

A. INTRODUCTION

In response to growing needs for appropriate English communication in English as a Foreign Language (EFL) contexts, many countries, including East Asian countries such as Korea, Taiwan, Hong Kong and Japan, have introduced a number of extensive changes in their English language policies (Butler & Iino, 2004; Butler, 2004, 2007; Carless, 2002, 2003, 2006; Igawa, 2007; Nunan, 2003; Su, 2006). In particular, the lowering of the age of compulsory English instruction has been a major change in English language policies in many Asian countries (Butler, 2004;

Nunan, 2003). In fact, belated in comparison to other Asian countries, the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology (MEXT) in Japan officially announced in March 2008 the decision to lower the age at which English is taught as a compulsory subject. Implementing new language policies in Japan has always resulted from top-down decisions without explicit directions from the government (Butler, 2007). Consequently, it seems that the opinions of the teachers and the schools that are directly influenced by the new policy were not considered. In addition, the lack of adequate and appropriate training is a major problem in Japan as well as in other Asian countries (Nunan, 2003); however, hardly any studies on Japanese elementary school teachers have been conducted. The population of Japanese elementary school teachers in those few studies is mostly from private schools or from urban cities such as Tokyo (Butler, 2004). At private schools, the curriculum is already well established, various materials are available, and teachers are trained to teach English. At public schools in urban cities such as Tokyo, the central government's support and resources are more easily accessible, and there are more pilot schools¹ and hub schools² chosen by MEXT in the Kanto (greater Tokyo metropolitan area) area.

What Is Needs Analysis?

Conducting a needs analysis is an important first step in the development of a curriculum that is being developed from scratch for a completely new program (Brown, 1995). According to Brown (1995), the definition of a needs analysis is “the systematic

1. Pilot schools are encouraged to develop their own English language course, which is different from English activity under the “international understanding” of the “period of Integrated Study” and required to have annual open classes to demonstrate and share their curriculum development.
2. Typically one school per 40 elementary schools throughout Japan is selected as a hub school (or model school) by MEXT. At these schools, English activity is conducted during the “period of Integrated Study”, and they receive financial support to supply materials from government. These hub schools have ATLs in every lesson, and this year (the 2008 fiscal year), they are using trial versions of “English Notebook”, and report to MEXT their usage and suggestions for revision.

Subjective and objective information necessary to define and validate defensible curriculum purposes that satisfy the language learning requirements of students within the context of particular institutions that influence the learning and teaching situation” (p. 36). The outcome of a needs analysis should be a list of goals and objectives for the parties involved, which should “serve as the basis for developing tests, materials, teaching activities, and evaluation strategies, as well as for reevaluating the precision accuracy of the original needs assessment” (Brown, 1995, p. 35). Some studies have confirmed that a needs analysis can best be implemented in curriculum development (Bosher & Smalkowski, 2002; Chaudron, Doughty, Kim, Kong, Lee, J., Lee, Y., Long, Rivers, & Urano, 2005).

Bosher and Smalkowski (2002) conducted a needs analysis and developed a course called “Speaking and Listening in a Health-Care Setting” to assist struggling English as a Second Language (ESL) students attempting to enter health-care programs at a private college in Minneapolis, Minnesota. The lack of academic success for ESL students enrolled in the nursing program at the College of St. Catherine lead to an in-depth needs analysis pinpointing that a communication course needed to be designed to help these students. In their study, the needs analysis consisted of interviews with a director and faculty in the nursing program and students in first year courses; questionnaires asking students about the difficulties they were experiencing in the health-care program; and observations of ESL students at different stages of program in lab and clinical settings. Based on the findings of the needs analysis, the researchers concluded that different forms of communication were the greatest concern (e.g., understanding clients, understanding instructors’ directions, communicating clearly and

effectively, and listening carefully to client information). As a result, the course “Speaking and Listening in a Health-Care Setting” was designed. The course materials and methods were selected based on the findings of the needs analysis. The course had evolved over three years since a pilot course was offered in Spring 1998 in response to an assessment of the effectiveness of the course. Boshier and Smalkowski (2002) reported that the course has been very successful in helping students learn how to communicate effectively in health-care settings.

Similarly, Chaudron et al. (2005) conducted a task-based needs analysis for Korean as a foreign language program at the University of Hawai‘i at Mānoa (UHM). The researchers focused on target needs to develop prototype task-based instruction rather than developing an entire curriculum. According to unstructured interviews with instructional staff and with a random sample of students and to a student questionnaire created based on those interviews, more than 90% of students studying Korean at UHM had already been and/or planned to travel to Korea for various reasons such as academic, occupational, religious, and social purposes. One of the most prominent reasons for learning Korean was better communication when they go to Korea on vacation. Therefore, two target tasks were identified: “following street directions” and “shopping for clothing” based on the needs analysis (p. 233). The researchers further investigated the target tasks by collecting and analyzing target discourse samples gathered in Waikiki, Hawaii, and Seoul, Korea. As a result, Korean Task-Based Language Teaching modules were designed and developed. In their article, Chaudron et al. also described how needs analysis data can be used in task-based materials development as stage one of their project which covers all six components in the design, implementation, and evaluation of a program: needs analysis; syllabus design; materials development; methodology and pedagogy; testing; and evaluation.

Needs Analysis for Various Language Programs

Since needs analysis serves as an important initial step in curriculum design for further development of teaching materials, learning activities, tests, program evaluation strategies, and so forth, there is an impressive amount of research on needs analysis in the language teaching field. Recently, a considerable degree of emphasis has been placed on needs analysis for English for Academic Purposes, English for Business Purposes, and English for Specific Purposes (Bosher & Smalkoski, 2002; Brown et al., 2007; Cowling, 2007; Edwards, 2000; Jasso-Aguilar, 2005).

Cowling (2007) conducted a needs analysis and designed a syllabus for an intensive English language course for the Japanese industrial firm, Mitsubishi Heavy Industry (MHI) in Japan. The company has many plant building and maintenance contracts overseas. Therefore, English was important for engineers who needed to converse with foreign clients and suppliers. The target group of learners was first to third year employees who would be assigned to the field or department in their fourth year. The course was run for three days, three times a year for a period of three years. Thus, all new employees would complete a total of nine three-day intensive courses in their first three years at MHI. A broad objective for the communicative business English course and required topics such as meetings, business telephone skills, and business presentations were set by MHI. Information gathering methods included interviews with staff from the training section of MHI, interviews with language teachers, interviews with target learners (MHI employees), and a structured open-ended questionnaire for students to complete with their senior employees. Based on the results of the needs analysis, Cowling designed two syllabi: the notional-functional syllabus and the content or task-based syllabus. The notional- functional syllabus was employed for the first half of course allowing more structured lessons which is the approach familiar to the learners. Then the content or task-based syllabus was employed for the second half of the course providing learners with the opportunity to practice their English in real situations. Cowling concluded that the needs analysis fulfilled the conditions set by MHI and provided English training for the learners that would be useful for their business workings.

In an unpublished study by a group of students at the University of Hawai‘i at Mānoa (UHM), researchers described the process of developing an eight-week intensive English course from scratch for first-year students from the Faculty of Management Science at the University of Ubon Rajathanee in Thailand in preparation for English medium instruction (Brown, Choi, de los Rios, Ise, Kang, Kim, Ng, & Toku, 2007). They conducted a needs analysis to identify what faculty members thought their students needed to learn, what skills students thought they needed to improve, and what administrative staff thought the program should achieve using various methods of information gathering. Based on the findings of the needs analysis, they developed reading, writing, and speaking and listening courses with the following objectives: comprehend academic reading materials, write essays, understand academic lectures, participate orally in academic activities, and conduct academic presentations. During the summer of 2007, the intensive English courses were implemented, and the courses were modified by another group of UHM students in the summer of 2008 based on further program evaluation and needs analysis conducted after the first year. That year, classes were offered not only to first year students but also to second year students and beyond. The intensive English courses have been successful, and will be offered again next summer.

Moreover, Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL) literature has widely discussed the value and importance of a needs analysis in language program and curriculum development for foreign language programs, such as Korean as a Foreign Language and Japanese as a Foreign Language, in addition to English as a Second Language (ESL) and English as a Foreign Language (EFL) contexts (e.g., Chaudron et al., 2005; Iwai, Kondo, Lim, Ray, Shimizu, & Brown, 1999). However, needs analysis studies on teacher training have rarely been reported in the literature? (Forthcoming) studied student-teachers' needs for the teacher induction practices in a U.S. university English language program. She reported the findings of the needs analysis to the administrators of the English language program, and the administrators implemented a number of teacher induction program changes for its improvement based on the findings. She argued that it is important to identify teachers' needs in order for the teacher induction program to help teachers to get ready for their teaching tasks. As the studies reviewed in this section suggested, needs analysis is an important first step for developing and improving language programs, and such a step should be taken to investigate teachers' needs for English education at elementary school level in Indonesia.

Teachers' Perception in English Ability

6	I believe that I need these proficiency skills to teach English:	<i>N</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Slightly Agree	Agree
A	Language proficiency to be able to speak with foreigners in daily life	256	3.02	0.82	3.5	22.3	43.0	31.3
B	Knowledge of simple classroom English expression is enough	255	2.76	0.76	3.9	32.4	47.3	16.0
c	Native-like pronunciation	256	2.18	0.77	17.6	51.2	26.6	4.7
d	If I can communicate with foreigners, the	255	2.53	0.81	9.0	41.0	37.9	11.7

e	English proficiency is not so important	25	1.8	0.7	36.7	45.3	13.	3.5
		3	3	8			3	

Abilities. When the teachers were asked to identify how they perceive their English language proficiency, only 14 (5.5%) out of 256 teachers reported that they think they have sufficient ability to teach English at the elementary school level as can be seen in Table 4. 77 teachers (30.1%) answered that they do not think their English ability is sufficient but responded that they have no problems conducting lessons. 123 (48.0%) indicated they are not confident enough with their English, and they are anxious about teaching English. 40 (15.6%) have no confidence in their English ability at all and feel pressure to teach English. Two respondents did not answer and left the question blank. Thus the questionnaire responses revealed that more than half (63.6%) of homeroom teachers are not confident with their English, and they would rather not teach English. In an open-ended question, many teachers commented “*English experts, not homeroom teachers, should teach English.*” I believe that this is a very natural and honest feeling because homeroom teachers are not trained to teach English. As a

result, the majority of teachers play English games and sing English songs as main activities (96.9% and 88.3%, respectively), which do not require much English speaking as opposed to reading English picture books, for their lessons as presented in Table 5. Reading English picture books and *kamishibai* (picture-story show) is the lowest in rank of conducted activity but the highest in rank that teachers want to try in their class.

Table 5: Teachers’ Priority in English Ability

5	To teach English, I would like to improve the following skills	N	M	SD	Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Slightly Agree	Agree
a	Pronunciation	25	3.3	0.7	2.0	10.5	38.	48.4
		4	4	4			3	
b	Speaking skills	25	3.5	0.6	1.6	3.9	32.	62.5
		6	5	5			0	
c	Listening skills	25	3.5	0.6	1.2	5.9	30.	62.9

KUSUMOTO - NEEDS ANALYSIS FOR JAPANESE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL							1	54
d	Reading skills	25	2.7	0.7	3.5	33.6	42.	18.8
		1	8	8			2	
e	Writing skills	25	2.5	0.7	5.1	44.5	36.	11.7
		1	6	6			7	
f	Communication skills for more natural communication with the ALT	25	3.5	0.6	1.6	2.7	34.	59.8
		2	5	3			4	

Question 5 in Table 5 was designed to itemize the teachers' needs for English teaching practices in addition to needs for improving their English language abilities. As can be seen many teachers want to know games, songs, and useful lesson plans, with high means of 3.52, 3.41, and 3.52, respectively. It seems that teachers want to know practical teaching activities and lesson plans that they can adopt in their classrooms. This can be interpreted to mean that many teachers are spending a lot of time and are struggling with planning and preparing for their classes, therefore, they want to know lessons that do not require a lot of preparation time. This corresponds with what teachers said in the open-ended question. As presented in Table 8, the most frequently noted challenge is to ensure *preparation time*, including meeting with an ALT. The second most frequently noted difficulty is *material*. Some teachers said there is not enough material available, and some said they do not know how to use the material even if it is available. Thus, many teachers chose *agree* and *slightly agree* on items about how to use and how to choose materials (item 7o and 7p and 75.4% and 77.4%, respectively). However, they gave lower priority to knowing how to develop their materials with the relatively low mean under 2.48. The results also indicate that teachers are most concerned about young learners' development. 94.5% of teachers chose *agree* and *slightly agree* on item 7e: *English activities suitable for the developmental stages of children*, and 92.2% chose *agree* and *slightly agree* on item 5m: *English language pedagogy that suits young learners*. They also gave a higher priority to learning about how to develop lesson plans and curriculum on items 7g, 7h, and 7i with relatively high means and narrow standard deviation ($M= 3.23$, $SD=0.71$; $M=3.18$, $SD=0.69$; and $M=3.15$, $SD= 0.72$, respectively). This suggests that teachers are concerned about their current teaching practices, related to how most schools and teachers adopt and use lesson plans released by the pilot schools. They feel they should stop simply using other schools' curriculum and need to start adapting or developing curriculum to suit their own students' needs and abilities. I think this is a very positive attitude. Teachers'

Voices are not taken into account in decisions related to language policy, and teachers cannot easily do anything about the government's decision. Thus, it is necessary for the teachers to have a positive attitude toward the changes in order for the new policy to be successfully implemented.

On the other hand, teachers gave a lower priority to learning about teaching theories with a low mean of 2.33 on item 7j: *introduction to second language acquisition theory*. In addition, perhaps surprisingly, some teachers did not agree that knowing the cultures of other countries is important, and the mean of item 7l: *methodology of cross-cultural understanding* is only 2.69. English activities are included in the international understanding pillar of the "period of Integrated Study" with the aim of promoting intercultural awareness. I believe that cross-cultural understanding is an important aspect of international understanding. Even though the mean of item 7d: *culture of foreign countries* is relatively high ($M=3.51$, $SD=0.63$) and teachers think knowing the cultures of other countries is important, if they do not know how to teach cross-cultural understanding, it will not meet the goals of the English activities. It may imply that the teachers' understanding of the purposes of English education at the elementary school level varies individually. It cannot be generalized with this small sample, but it corresponds with what teachers said in the open-ended questions and when interview during the Spring 2008 study.

Table 6

Teacher Priority in Teaching Practice

6	To teach English more effectively, I would like to know/learn the following better:	<i>N</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	Disagree	Slightly	Slightly	Agree
						Disagree	Agree	
A	Useful games	256	3.5	0.62	1.2	3.5	37.	58.2
			2				1	
B	Easy English songs	255	3.4	0.67	1.2	6.6	42.	49.6
			1				2	
C	Useful lesson plans	256	3.5	0.65	1.2	5.1	34.	59.4
			2				4	
D	Culture of foreign countries	254	3.0	0.63	0.8	16.0	62.	20.3
			3				1	
E	English activities suitable for the	255	3.5	0.63	1.2	3.9	37.	57.0

KUSUMOTO – NEEDS ANALYSIS FOR JAPANESE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL

5 56

	developmental stages of children							
F	Websites for useful teaching materials	254	3.1	0.81	2.7	18.0	38.	40.2
			7				3	
G	How to make an one-hour lesson plan	255	3.2	0.71	2.0	10.2	50.	37.1
			3				4	
H	How to link units and lessons across classes	254	3.1	0.69	2.3	9.8	55.	32.0
			8				1	
I	How to develop a one-year curriculum	255	3.1	0.72	2.3	12.5	53.	31.6
			5				1	
J	Introduction to second language acquisition theory	254	2.3	0.79	13.3	46.9	32.	6.6
			3				4	
k	Various English language pedagogy	254	2.9	0.80	4.3	24.2	47.	23.0
			0				7	
l	Methodology of cross-cultural understanding	256	2.6	0.72	3.1	37.1	47.	12.1
			9				7	
m	English language pedagogy that suits young learners	256	3.3	0.64	0.4	7.4	45.	46.9
			9				3	
n	How to conduct team teaching with the ALT effectively	255	3.2	0.67	1.2	9.8	52.	36.3
			4				3	
o	Useful teaching materials & tools (i.e., picture books & videos) and how to use them	255	2.9	0.73	1.6	22.7	51.	24.2
			8				2	
p	How to choose materials	255	2.9	0.71	2.0	20.3	55.	22.3
			8				1	
q	How to develop materials	255	2.4	0.78	9.0	43.0	38.	9.0
			8				7	
r	The meaning and the purpose of English education at elementary schools	248	2.6	0.79	7.4	34.8	42.	12.1
			1				6	

Problems. Table 6 summarizes the teachers' difficulties in preparing English activities and Table 6 summarizes the difficulties in conducting lessons. The most frequently reported difficulties in preparing were related to material and time issues. Since there is no textbook and no clear guideline for the English activity, homeroom teachers need to make the decision about what to teach. Teachers need to find and utilize teaching materials to aid their lessons. However, many teachers reported that unlike pilot schools and hub schools where they receive budgeting for English activity from government, there are not enough materials. Homeroom teachers have to make their materials such as picture cards and posters at their expense. One teacher wrote:

We have an "English Room" at the school where I previously worked. So, when we have an English activity, we go to that room. And in the room, there is a big world map, pictures, signs, and flags of other countries on the wall. There is also a magnet board map to teach directions, plastic fruits and vegetables for grocery shopping role playing, and CDs of useful English songs. But here, at my new school, there are only two sets of picture cards and one music box (chants CD). I have to share them with 15 other teachers, but sometimes I can't use them because we have an English class during the same period. I don't know what I can teach without the visual aids and tools.

Without knowing what and how much to teach clearly and without adequate teaching materials, homeroom teachers are facing various difficulties in the classrooms. To my surprise, many teachers were concerned about their pronunciation, and some of them think that they need to conduct lessons in English only. It may be no exaggeration to say that none of the English teachers at junior and senior high schools are able to conduct English-only lessons. Thus it is almost impossible for elementary homeroom teachers to conduct English only lessons. It seems that there is misunderstanding or misinterpretation of what MEXT says about "communicative language teaching." Many teachers think that it means "English only" or lots of native-like oral input and one wrote, "*I feel sorry for my students that I can't provide them with proper input, because of my poor English proficiency and pronunciation.*"

CHAPTER VI

WRITING GOALS AND OBJECTIVES

*“If you’re not sure where you are going,
you’re liable to end up some place else.” ~ Robert Mager, 1997*

A course goal may be defined as a broad statement of intent or desired accomplishment.

Instructional goals and objectives are the heart of instruction. When well written, goals and objectives will help identify course content, structure the lecture and guide the selection of meaningful and relevant activities and assessments. In addition, stating clear instructional goals and objectives help students understand what they should learn and exactly what to do to achieve them.

Course Goals

A course goal may be defined as a broad statement of intent or desired accomplishment. Goals do not specify exactly each step, component, or ways to accomplish the task but they help pave the way to writing good instructional objectives. Typical course goals include a number of subordinate skills which are further identified and clarified as instructional objectives.

For example, an English 101 goal might be to *prepare students for English 103*. The goal *prepare students* specifies the big picture or general direction or purpose of the course. Course goals often do not specify student outcomes or how they will be assessed. If you are having difficulty defining a course goal, brainstorm reasons your course exists and why students should enroll in it. Your ideas can then generate course-related goals. Course goals often originate in the course description and should be written *before* developing instructional objectives.

Course Goal Examples:

Marketing course: Students will learn about personal and professional development, interpersonal skills, verbal and written presentation skills, understanding sales and buying processes, and developing and maintaining customer satisfaction.

Physical Geography course: Students will understand the processes involved in the interactions, spatial variations, and interrelationships between hydrology, vegetation, landforms, and soils and humankind.

Theatre/Dance course: Students will investigate period style from pre-Egyptian through the Renaissance as it relates to theatrical production. Exploration of period clothing, manners, décor, and architecture with projects form dramatic literature.

General Goal Examples:

- Students will know how to communicate in oral and written formats
- Students will understand the effect of global warming.
- Students’ perspective on civil rights will improve
- Students will identify key elements and models used in education
- Students will learn basic math skills

- Students will understand the laws of gravity

Table 1. Comparison of goals and objectives.

Instructional Objectives

The course goal you can then develop your instructional objectives. Instructional objectives are different from goals in that objectives are narrow, discrete, measurable, and observable, whereas goals provide intentions of student performance whereas goals provide students with a global statement of intent. Objectives are measurable and observable, goals are not (see Table1). Well-stated objectives clearly tell the student what they have to do, under what conditions the performance takes place, by following a specified degree or standard of acceptable performance. In other words, when properly written, your

Objectives
are not.
r

learners will know exactly what you expect them to do and you will be able to recognize when they have accomplished the task! Generally, each section/week/unit will have several objectives (Penn State University, 2007).

A common instructional objective model, developed by Heinich as cited by Smaldino, Lowther, and Russell (2008) is used by educators from a wide range of disciplines and follows the acronym.

ABCD: A=Audience, B=Behavior, C=Condition, D=Degree. Table 2 summarizes these characteristics. This guide will follow the ABCD model as a good starting point when learning how to derive well-stated instructional objectives.

Table 2. Characteristics of the ABCD model of instructional objectives. Source: Smaldino, Lowther and Russell (2008), citing Heinich. *It is good practice to write an instructional objective for each behavior you wish to measure...avoid using fuzzy phrases such as “to understand,” “to appreciate,” “to internalize,” and “to know” which are not measurable or observable.*

It is good practice to write an instructional objective for each behavior you wish to measure. By using the model as illustrated in Table 1, you will easily be able to fill in the characteristics to the right of each letter. This practice will allow you to break down more complex objectives (ones with more than one behavior), into smaller, more discrete objectives.

Behavioral Verbs

Key to writing instructional objectives is to use an action verb when describing the behavior you intend the students to perform. Action verbs such as *calculate, read, identify, match, explain, translate,* and *prepare* all can be used to further describe the behavior. On the other hand, words such as *understand, appreciate, internalize,* and *value* are not appropriate when writing instructional objectives because they are not measurable or observable. Use these words in your course goals but not when writing instructional objectives. See *Verbs to Use in Creating Educational Objectives* (Based on Bloom's Taxonomy), at the end of this section.

Overt behavior: If the behavior is covert or not typically visible when observed, such as the word *discriminate*, include an indicator behavior to clarify to the student what she or he has to be able to do to meet your expectations (as a written instructional objective). For example, if you want your learners to be able to discriminate between good and bad apples, add the indicator behavior "sort" to the objective: *Be able to discriminate (sort) the good apples from the bad apples.*

What some instructors tend to forget is to write instructional objectives from the students' perspective. Mager (1997) contends that when you write.

The Link between Instructional Objectives and Course Activities and Assessment.

After you have written your course goals and instructional objectives, it is time to design course activities and assessments which will tell you if learning has occurred. Matching objectives and activities and assessments will also check to see if you are teaching what you have intended. These strategies and activities should motivate students to gain knowledge and skills useful for success in your course, future courses and real world applications. Table 3 illustrates objective behaviors with related student activities and assessments.

Level of Learning For Knowledge	Student Activities and Assessments
<i>Define</i> (facts, tables, vocabulary lists)	Activity: Self-check quizzes, trivia games, word games Assessment: Vocabulary test, matching item quiz
<i>Solve or calculate</i> (concepts)	Activity: Have students show examples/non-examples, student-generated flowcharts Assessment: Equations, word problems with given set of data
<i>Set-up, manipulate, operate, build, demonstrate</i> (rules and principles)	Activity: Suggests psychomotor (hands-on) assessments, design projects and prototypes, simulations Assessment: Checklists, videotape the session
<i>Describe or explain</i> (problem-solving)	Activity: Case study, small group critical thinking, teamwork, pair share Assessment: Essays, research papers, discussion questions
<i>Present</i> (synthesis, create)	Activity: Develop a portfolio, design a project Assessment: Speech, projected presentation

Table 3. Matching cognitive domain levels of learning (Bloom's Levels) with related student activities and assessments. Source: Adapted from Penn State University (2007).

Summary Examples of Instructional Goals, Objectives and Related Assessments

1. Instructional Goal: Know the conditions of free Blacks during antebellum south.

Instructional Objective: In at least 2 paragraphs, students will describe the conditions of free Blacks in pre-Civil War America, including 3 of 5 major points that were discussed in class.

Assessment: A traditional essay could be used.

2. Instructional Goal: Students will know how to analyze blood counts.

Instructional Objective: Given a sample of blood and two glass slides, students will

demonstrate the prescribed method of obtaining a blood smear for microscopic analysis.

Assessment: Assessment could be done by instructor observation of student demonstration in a lab. A criterion checklist of critical steps can be used to provide objective scoring.

3

Instructional Goal: Students will interpret

classic literature.

Instructional Objective: During the final exam period, students will be able to compare/contrast Shakespeare's "Merchant of Venice" and Marlowe's "Jaw of Malta" in terms of plot, character, and social-political themes.

Assessment: A traditional essay could be used with a criterion-checklist of key similarities and differences in these two plays

CHAPTER VII

THE CONCEPT OF SYLLABUS DESIGN AND CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT

A. THE PURPOSE OF THE SYLLABUS

What is the purpose of a syllabus of the L2 classroom? Robinson (2011, p. 294) describes syllabus design as the compilation of decisions regarding units and their sequence of performance. At the lowest level, the syllabus may simply be a reminder or a list of things to do for the busy teacher who has little classroom planning time. However, 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).

In some cases, the chosen course book automatically becomes “the syllabus”, but is that ready-made syllabus the best that you can do? -Certainly not. But what can ELT course books do to help proper language acquisition? Below is a modified version of a list from Tomlinson (2008, p. 6).

- Provide rich experience with varying genres and text types
- Provide pleasing experience through beautiful art and design
- Use of multimedia for rich and varied language learning

- Help learners make discoveries for themselves
- Help learners become *autonomous* language learners
- Providing extra materials for *extensive listening* and *extensive reading*
- Help learners personalize and localize their language learning

Keep this list of points handy so that you can re-examine them easily, as you read this chapter.

Let us move on to a discussion on Syllabus vs Curriculum. Is there a difference? Richards (2001, p. 2) distinguishes a difference in scope in the UK- the curriculum is the bigger picture. As “the bigger picture”, the curriculum can incorporate three steps: (1) course planning, (2) materials/methods, and (3) course evaluation (Nunan, 1988, pp. 4–5). Historically, because grammar-centric teaching has been so popular, syllabus design was simply the order of the grammar points that would be taught within the framework of the curriculum. However, in the United States, Syllabus and Curriculum often mean the same thing. This chapter will treat Syllabus and Curriculum separately.

So, what is the purpose of the syllabus? Hutchinson and Waters (1987, pp. 83–84) say:

- to break language down into manageable units and provide

a practical basis for textbooks and instructional blocks

- to thus provide teachers and learners with moral support
- to reassure students and/or sponsors that a course has been well planned: its
 - cosmetic role
 - to give both students and teachers an idea of where the course is going
 - to act as an implicit statement of the views held by the course designers
 - regarding language and language learning—telling students not only what they
 - are to learn but why
 - to guide the selection of materials, texts and exercises
 - to ensure an element of uniformity across a school or educational system
 - to assess how successful a student has been during a course by providing a
 - basis for testing

Now, what should the syllabus (and/or materials) being used achieve? One point Tomlinson (2011) brings up is impact. However, “impact” in Brazil may not be “impact” in Austria. So, how can useful impact be achieved? Tomlinson provides a useful list that can help benchmark assessment of syllabus and material design (2011, p. 8).

- Novelty
- Variety
- Attractive presentation
- Appealing content
- Achievable challenge

B. SYLLABUS ANALYSIS

Richards and Rodgers (2001, pp. 20–34) discuss their *tiered framework* for evaluating methodologies. The three tiers are Approach (the underlying theories), Design (selection of content), and Procedure (specifics of the activities). This has become a somewhat standard tiering framework for TEFL/TESL courses. It is a method that forces teachers to consider the development and the connectedness across the three tiers. An adaptation of Richards and Rogers' framework (Figure 1) may help teachers and writers to: (1) sharpen their awareness of theory and (2) force them to examine how theory relates to the design of courses, the procedures within the classroom, and how it ultimately affects theory by either strengthening it or editing it.

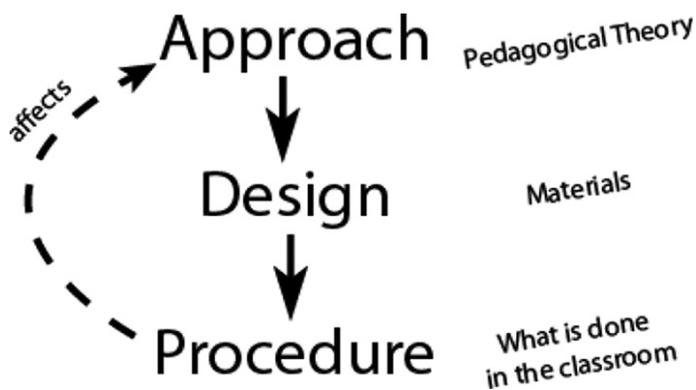
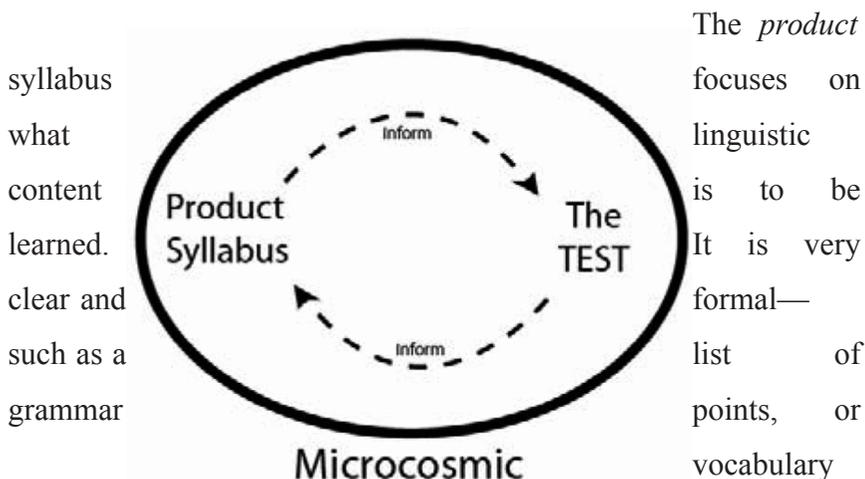


Figure 1. The dynamic effects of the approach-design-procedure framework

C. PRODUCT VS PROCESS?



syllabus
what
content
learned.
clear and
such as a
grammar

The *product*
focuses on
linguistic
is to be
It is very
formal—
list of
points, or
vocabulary

words. This is suited for standardized tests (such as TOEIC) where everything is clearly prescribed and transparent. The product syllabus and the standardized test have a reciprocal relationship; they tend to inform each other and can create their own *microcosm* (Figure 2). This can be dangerous. Since they can (and do) exist within their own universe, they can exist without real-world applicability. This is not to say that they are not without merit, but the potential of them turning into an *existence for their own sake* is also very real. This type of syllabus can also be called a content-based syllabus, or in extreme cases, “teaching for the test.”

Figure 2. The potential microcosmic nature of the product syllabus and test cycle

The opposing type of syllabus is the *process* syllabus. It does not work off a list of words or bullet points, but a set of *learning processes*. In short, it defines the skills that are to be acquired—but not the content. According to Nunan (1988, p. 40), the product syllabus and the process syllabus are therefore incompatible. As defined, the *process syllabus* creates open-ended learning situations for building real-world skills. The *content syllabus* puts sharp focus on very particular content, often ignoring the development of the real-world skills necessary to use the content (White, 1988). This argument is logical, but remember that it is fully possible to fit both approaches into your lesson plans, because this dual approach is certainly beneficial, I encourage you to do so!

D. SYNTHETIC VS ANALYTIC?

The *synthetic syllabus* assumes that the teaching of small bits of the language will eventually create a whole structural framework for which the language will live. It assumes that language is like a set of building blocks that can be layered down for a foundation and then built into meaningful structures. Such a syllabus obviously matches grammar-based pedagogy.

What about the *analytic syllabus*? In short, it seeks to (1) identify needs and then (2) satisfy them with the appropriate language usage. Robinson (2011, p. 306) assures that due to cognitive research and various other factors, “the shift from synthetic to analytic approaches ... can be expected to continue.” Wilkins’ describes the analytic syllabus as: (1) a list of purposes for the L2 learning and (2) the means to meet those purposes. It is a more social, real-world, and student-centered. Grammar instruction comes when called for.

Which is more appropriate for the L2 classroom, synthetic or analytical? Ellis responds (2012, pp. 342–343): There is now plenty of evidence to show that both approaches can contribute to learning... it will have to be filtered through the teacher’s personal

69

69

69

69

69

69

69

understanding of the instructional context, and this, to a large extent, will depend on experience. So, according to me, although analytical syllabi are now popular, it seems that, to some extent, some parts of a synthetic syllabus should be adapted into teachers' and course writers' syllabus.

E. LINEAR VS CYCLICAL?

Is language learning more like a delivery truck, or is it more organic than that? The *linear syllabus* assumes the former. Similar to the above mentioned *product syllabus*, the *linear syllabus* attempts to add new blocks of information to a collecting mass. The more blocks added, the more learning. The problem is, language learning is not linear (Dörnyei, 2008, p. 41). We are not computers. We cannot keep feeding our brains with new linguistic information and expect it all be retrievable on demand.

Research tells that that language acquisition is much more of an organic, natural process (Skehan, 1996, pp. 18–19). So, we need a recycling, or *cyclical syllabus*. Furthermore, motivation to learn language is also not linear either. It's *dynamic* (Dörnyei, 2011, p. 11).

So, although the better choice is obvious, this *Linear vs Cyclical* discussion is still very relevant because many mainstream course books (and therefore syllabi) still use a *linear* design! Good teachers know that recycling is important, so adding a recycling design into the syllabus may be deemed unnecessary— but should we really assume this? Can we realistically expect all teachers to know about *and* actually implement the necessary recycling without constant prompting from the course book? There is no consensus on this yet, but my feeling is that at least some cyclical features should be incorporated into any syllabus.

70

70

70

70

70

70

70

F. SYLLABUS DESIGN FACTORS

What factors influence the design of a syllabus? Below is a general list adapted from Tagg and Woodward (2011).

- A. Common practice/trends
- B. Theories of Second Language Acquisition/pedagogy
- C. Wider educational context
- D. Course Objectives
- E. Learner backgrounds

Of these, mainstream course books would connect most directly with A, B and C. Less mainstream course books may focus on D. However, this leaves E alone—left for the teacher to deal with and/or *up to chance*. But, how many teachers and syllabus writers know specific details about their students *before* designing their syllabi?

From a student's point of view, is it fair to leave one of the most important factors on this list up to chance? What can be done about this? Below (Figure 3) I have provided my own assessment sheet of important design factors for consideration during syllabus design. I believe this assessment sheet can be useful during the pre- design stages of syllabus and materials writing, and also as an in-use and post-use assessment plan. It can be applied per chapter for single chapter assessment—then all chapters assessments can be strung together to form the basis of a comprehensive syllabus assessment. Or, it can be used more simplistically by applying just once, for the entire syllabus.

In syllabus design, once the general design begins to take shape, how are the smaller instructional blocks to be designed? An instructional block should be self- contained, yet contribute to the larger goals of the syllabus (Richards, 2001).

The typical syllabus has chapters that would be self-contained and individually assessable. Within each chapter, there may be several subsections that breakdown the learning into smaller chunks. Richards (2001, p. 166) furthers: the *coherence*

71

71

71

71

71

71

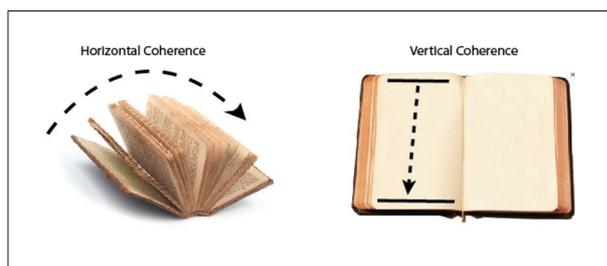
71

Materials Design Factor Assessment Sheet	
Rich experiences	1 2 3 4 5
Varying genres	1 2 3 4 5
Aesthetically pleasing	1 2 3 4 5
Rich multimedia	1 2 3 4 5
Learner discovery	1 2 3 4 5
Autonomic learning	1 2 3 4 5
Extensive listening	1 2 3 4 5
Extensive reading	1 2 3 4 5
Personalized content	1 2 3 4 5
Localized content	1 2 3 4 5

Figure 3. The materials design factor assessment sheet.

of each chapter should be both horizontal and vertical, meaning that there should be front-to-back coherence throughout the chapter, and top-to-bottom coherence on each page (Figure 4).

Figure 4. Richards' horizontal and vertical coherence models



Richards pushes for 'closure' on each page. Several mainstream course books adhere to this maxim. However, there are still course books, such as *readers*, where long passages break these design rules.

G. CRITICAL REVIEW OF FIVE COMMON SYLLABUS TYPES

This section will take a look at five common syllabus designs: grammatical, notional-functional, lexical, task-based, and content-based. We will briefly look into their histories

72

72

72

72

72

72

72

and significance, then, critically analyze their design and potential.

Grammatical Syllabus

The grammatical syllabus has long been a standard in language teaching. The historical roots of the grammatical syllabus are known to have come from the study of Latin. What is the grammar-translation method? It is a method of translating text from L2 to L1 and deducing grammatical features (top-down), conducted in the L1. It is very straight-forward and needs little (or no) L2 communicative competence from the teacher. Simply put, the grammar-translation method (GTM) is the basis of the *grammatical syllabus*—GTM is derived from the teaching of Latin. This “explains why this method was not concerned with developing productive L2 competence in the learners” (Dörnyei, 2009, p. 273). According to Dörnyei, GTM is a simplistic and pragmatic method that is regrettably not “conducive to developing productive language skills.”(ibid.)—the *grammatical syllabus* is an extension of this methodology. Let’s now take a closer look.

Criticisms: The grammatical syllabus.

Skehan (1996) discusses how chosen structures presented by a teacher do not automatically lead to language acquisition. Ellis (1997) agrees by saying that teaching may have very little effect on *when* and *how* learners *may* or *may not* learn a structure because of each student learns differently. Widdowson (1988) argues that because grammar teaching separates learning from real-life contexts, the true meaning is often lost. This questions the purpose of teaching and learning. Lightbown and Spada (1999) question the effectiveness of the grammar-based syllabi, stating that focus on *accuracy* does not directly connect to high *proficiency*.

However, some teachers continued to argue that the grammatical syllabus is useful. During this battle, interestingly, a halfway point did emerge (Dörnyei, 2009). There are

73

73

73

73

73

73

73

several versions with confusingly similar name structures, but I shall simply discuss them collectively as a focus on form (FoF) here.

Although a *strict* grammatical syllabus was proven to be inadequate for most purposes, the full dropping of grammar teaching was equally inadequate (Doughty & Williams, 1998; Dörnyei, 2009; Whong, 2011). The term FoF cleverly hid the word grammar, while having learners focus on sub-sentence grammatical issues. Sometimes these issues were based on real-time needs, sometimes they were based on pre-emptive or proactive decisions by the teacher (or course writer).

Advantages: The grammatical syllabus.

Are there advantages to the grammar-based syllabus? It is easy to follow and easy to assess. Such a syllabus can be very transparent, so by going through the steps, there may be a strong feeling of achievement. Progress can be easy to measure.

In short, such a syllabus is easy to manage because of its pragmatic approach. It is also probably familiar to most teachers from their own L1 learning, so it would be relatively easy to implement for novice teachers. Moreover, while it may not make every learner proficient, inevitably, some students will and do have a strong aptitude with this methodology and therefore some of them will build a natural preference for this methodology. These, for lack of a better term, “lucky” grammar-based learners do excel within this framework.

Advantage or disadvantage? According to Dörnyei (2009, p. 273), the Grammar-Translation method (and/or the grammatical syllabus) may still be favorable because it:

- requires little set up time
- requires minimal teacher L2 competence and fluency
- is safe for the teacher

74

74

74

74

74

74

74

- is easy to assess (with multiple choice tests, for example)
- is easy to explicitly focus on (discreet) points
- can be mostly taught in the L1
- requires no higher-level (meta-cognitive) thinking/assessment

Synthesis: The grammatical syllabus.

In this subsection, we examined the *grammatical syllabus*. Although it has advantages as being transparent and pragmatic, there are several criticisms of this type of syllabus design. Perhaps the most important is that although it sets out to be a no-nonsense, pragmatic syllabus, its nevertheless *synthetic* and moreover, does not often enough result in higher proficiency than other design types. It takes learners “through the motions”, and may make learners feel like they are studying hard and learning, which *may* or *may not* raise their motivation, but by the end of the day it would seem that much of that work goes to waste.

I find that the biggest faults in the grammatical syllabus lie within the inherent assumptions that go with it:

- L2 learners need to explicitly learn grammar
- L2 grammar teaching leads to grammatical L2 usage
- L2 grammar has logical rules that are definable, teachable, and learnable
- all L2 learners can learn L2 grammar at the same pace
- (from teachers) “I learned it this way, why can’t you?”

These inherent assumptions that may have been nurtured by the long-term historical adherence to grammatical syllabus design, are assumptions that I would define as old school. They are traditional assumptions that have no significant neuroscientific basis. Ironically, they can still be found in classrooms that have decided to stop using a grammatical syllabus. This is presumably because these old school assumptions have been

75

75

75

75

75

75

75

carried over to other forms of L2 teaching.

Notional-Functional Syllabus

The *notional-functional* (NF) syllabus developed in Europe as a reaction toward the *grammatical syllabus*, although it ultimately, and ironically, gathered many of the same criticisms. What is the NF syllabus? Wilkins' (1976, p. 18) in a definitive statement says, (I)t takes the desired communicative capacity as the starting point. In drawing up a notional syllabus, instead of asking how speakers of the language express themselves or when and where they use the language, we ask what it is they communicate through language. We are then able to organize language t e a c h i n g in terms of the content rather than the form of the language. For this reason the resulting syllabus is called the notional syllabus.

The 1970s showed a shift toward a more communicative approach with more of a focus on context and therefore the social aspects of language usage. Keypoints from Wilkins (1976) are that (1) the NF syllabus is a communicative syllabus, (2) it raises motivation because it is communicative, and (3) it covers "all kinds of language functions" (ibid, p. 19). Let us focus on Wilkins' first point. Is the NF syllabus really a communicative syllabus? Widdowson argues that there is no such thing as a communicative syllabus (1990, p. 130); this categorically disqualifies NF. What is the NF syllabus then? Let us examine the words separately.

White (1988, p. 75) describes notions as categories that *describe the intentions of the language usage*. Nunan (1988, p. 35) describes them as *conceptual meanings via language usage* such as objects or relationships. Examples would be: time, ownership, direction, frequency, and cause (Nunan, 1988, p. 35). The functions are then the communicative *purposes* of the language in use. Examples would be: approving, persuading, suggesting, and identifying (Nunan, 1988, p. 35). This type of syllabus is a logical step up from the

76

76

76

76

76

76

76

grammatical syllabus, yet it does not bury grammar. It simply shifts the priority to more meaningful usage (to notions and functions), with the importance of grammar teaching basically remaining intact. In this way, it embodied natural language usage more realistically (Whong, 2011).

Although at first glance the NF syllabus may appear to be a *process-based syllabus*, upon closer examination, it is still a “to-do list”—telling us what is to be learnt, but with no defining teaching guidelines to go with it.

For the above reasons, the NF syllabus should not be assumed to be a *process-based syllabus*. Additionally, it is also a *synthetic syllabus* by design. It puts forth a list of to-dos, making it look like it is based on true learner needs (Stern, 1992), but ultimately the NF syllabus moves on regardless of the learners’ real-world needs.

Criticisms: The notional-functional syllabus. What are the criticisms of the NF syllabus? As touched on earlier, the NF syllabus is similar to the grammatical syllabus in many ways, so they share many of the same criticisms. Widdowson (1979) argues that although the shift from a list of grammar points to a list of NF points still produces a list—and such lists are not automatically compatible with real learning. Brumfit (1981) identifies difficulties in defining these ‘notions’ and goes on to explain the difficulty in applying the learning to real social contexts, seriously attacking the NF design. Nunan (1988, p. 37) agrees by saying that breaking language into small pieces misrepresents the nature of communication. In sort, the NF syllabus is as *synthetic*—and therefore, problematic:

Because of the inherent dependency for a needs analysis, it can be argued that the NF syllabus can only be as good as the quality of the needs analysis. So, the inadequacies of any needs analysis trickle down to the NF selections. This brings up other problems as criteria for assessment and sequencing: Which NF list items should come first and why?

77

77

77

77

77

77

77

How can we decide which functions are more complex? More appropriate?

Also, the outcomes of NF teaching are not foreseeable because they are not controlled by the syllabus, therefore making comprehensive design and assessment of the outcomes problematic. Furthermore, the lack of protocols may be one reason for its current lack of popularity, especially compared to the grammatical syllabus with its clear focus on accuracy, making assessment not only easy, but, transparent. In this way, although the NF and grammatical syllabi have several similarities, differences such as a lack of focus on accuracy make it more difficult to implement.

Advantages: The notional-functional syllabus. What are the advantages of the NF syllabus? Conceived as an improvement over the *grammatical syllabus*, there are several advantages to it. It can implement more realistic learning tasks based on real-world communication. It provides a means for contextual understanding and realization before performance because it grasps onto cultural needs (Finocchiaro & Brumfit, 1983, p. 17). But perhaps most importantly, the lack of assessment protocols discussed as a disadvantage on the previous page allows for more flexible teaching, such as cyclical pedagogic practice, and naturally allows for the addition of socio- cultural components. Regardless of the actual learning outcomes, it can also be motivational for the students because the syllabus, or the to-do list, is transparent; students may gain a healthy feeling of completion after each item is crossed off the list.

Synthesis: The notional-functional syllabus. Although the NF syllabus was designed to be a step up from the *grammatical syllabus*, in reality it is (a) very similar in many ways and (b) actually a step down when it comes to assessment policies. On the plus side, it is more humanistic—it allows for the additions of socio- cultural aspects and the realization of

78

78

78

78

78

78

78

contextual influences. At the end of the day however, it is still *synthetic* and *product-based*; it is not scientific nor is it logical from a biological perspective.

Lexical Syllabus

What is the *lexical syllabus*? It is a syllabus with a keen focus on lexis. Why is it called lexis and not vocabulary? The more common word is of course vocabulary, and it is often taught separately from grammar. However, when a “word” is treated as having generative functionality (as in, having its own unique grammatical functionalities and idiosyncrasies), then it is upgraded to the term lexis (Tagg & Woodward, 2011). It can also be used for *chunks* or formulaic language, where sets of words are used as a singular utterance – often with a singular meaning. It is important to note that while on paper and within traditional grammar, individual words seem to be their own entity with their own purpose, the lexical concept of formulaic language is that small phrases can act together as a single unit and are not registered as individual words within our minds. Corpus-based research is often used help generate the *lexical syllabus*—by looking at real-life collocations. This blurs the premise of the traditional grammar vs vocabulary dichotomy and forces us to think and re-think the psycholinguistic and pedagogical implications set forth by these notions.

Generative Lexicon theory (Pustejovsky, 1998; Pustjovsky et al., 2012), although perhaps not famous in the mainstream is slowly becoming its own sub-field of study. Pustejovsky theorizes that lexicon functions generatively by:

- providing words for characterizing lexical information
- developing a framework for manipulating distinctions in word descriptions
- formalizing a set of mechanisms for specialized composition that function in context, especially in novel situations

The third part is the distinctive part. Far too many theories of language simply ignore the

79

79

79

79

79

79

79

fact that we can combine words uniquely and use words and grammar in novel ways based on context, without instruction. We have the capacity to create formulaic utterances “from the air”, simply based on the context we happen to be in. Generative lexicon theory embraces the fact that we can produce specialized compositions in novel situations, in a non-dictionary-like way. It is an important step forward in understanding language learning and pedagogy.

So what is a lexical syllabus? The *lexical syllabus* moves away from straight grammar teaching and focuses on real-world word/phrase usage, frequency, and their unique generative powers. Therefore, instead of moving from simple grammatical forms and gradually building up to complex forms, the lexical syllabus focuses on the unique generative properties *per word or phrase* (collocations) with the keys being found with the *usage* and *frequency*. In essence, each word/phrase is treated as having its own generative *word map*— different usage patterns are studied per word/phrase, making the learners experts at identifying the word and its varied usages efficiently. Below (Figure 5) is a map of the usage of HAVE.

The lexical syllabus does not (cannot) offer an underlying theory of language acquisition (Richards & Rodgers, 2001). However, the lexical syllabus does assume that the rote memorization of the grammatical rules of a language is *not* as effective as repeated exposure to naturally occurring usage. Therefore, it agrees with the *cyclical syllabus*.

80

80

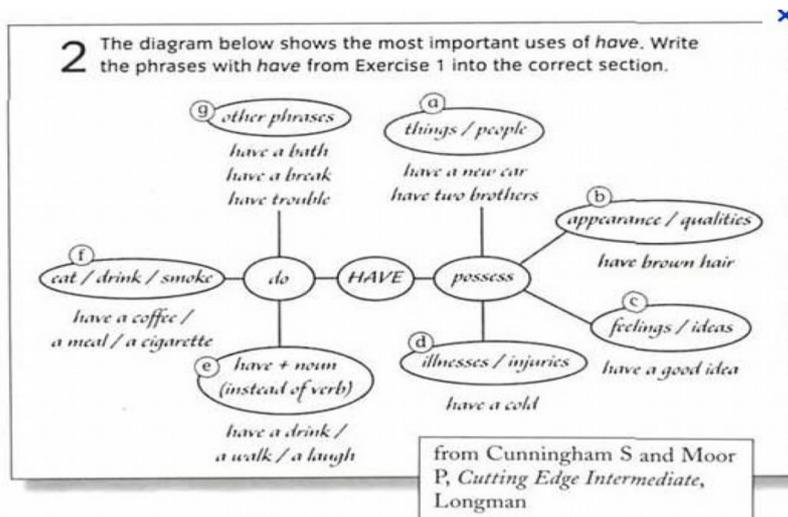
80

80

80

80

80

Figure 5. A map of *HAVE* usage, taken

from a course book lexical activity

The underlying pedagogical theory was, by viewing words/phrases as *lexical items*, the learners would be able to have a better chance of recognizing and using the words and phrases correctly in real word contexts because of the cyclically interconnected coverage generated from the connection of meaning and usage of each lexical item. On the other hand, in the real world, a strict focus on grammar learning via a *grammar syllabus* would call for real-time spontaneity, creative thinking, an excellent memory, and the ability to take personal risks for the sake of communication. This is too much to deal with for the average learner, especially under pressure to communicate. With the real world demands put on potential grammar-based learners as users being so intense, the *lexical syllabus*, with the way it primes learners on all typical usages per word, then providing them with the capacity to generate context appropriate phrases, seems to be a much more elegant pedagogy. This was a smart step away from straight grammar teaching that brought to light a very new way of looking at language teaching and linguistics. However, there are criticisms.

Criticisms: The lexical syllabus. Pesky questions that arise with a corpus-derived syllabus

81

81

81

81

81

81

81

such as: Which corpus should we choose and how should we use it? Should a beginner course use a corpus created from children's books or from adult's? Either answer (or a mixture of both), could be justifiable but the choice would significantly alter the content of the syllabus; usage and frequency vary greatly per corpus. How can we make that choice?

Also, from the Willis' perspective, there is the inevitable heavy reliance of usage analysis on the learners' side. So, without comprehensive and cohesive analysis, the learners may gain little from the lessons. As Willis and Willis define it, the lexical syllabus has students be the researchers, while the teacher is only the facilitator, who may not know better than the learners in some cases (the results from the analysis may be just as illuminating to the teacher as it is to the learners). Lewis contradicts this by shifting the focus onto the importance of teacher talk and the teacher's output. Richards and Rodgers (2001, p. 136) discuss how a nice blend could be more favorable.

Identified problems/question with the lexical syllabus that have yet to be worked out:

- No standard or unifying foundational theory of language acquisition
- Focuses on single words or collocations too much; what about longer phrases?
- (3) Should the highest frequency lexical items (such as: the, and, but, and a) be taught first, or not? [Logical arguments can be made for both paths]
- (4) Willis' implementation works in tandem with task-based pedagogy. So, is the syllabus a task-based syllabus, or a lexical syllabus?

The lexical syllabus has yet to gain mainstream popularity, although it remains highly innovative theoretically. Collaborative efforts with the *task-based syllabus*, seem much more promising. Along those collaborative lines, Segalowitz and Gattbonton, who have done extensive work in psycholinguistic issues, provide ACCESS methodology (2005) a form of *Communicative Language Teaching*, with innovative cyclical activities for the

82

82

82

82

82

82

82

automatization of formulaic language. Regarding the lexical syllabus, the immerging patterns seems to be that lexical theory can be used for innovative purposes in other syllabi types, but currently, the *lexical syllabus* alone seems to be insufficient.

Advantages: The lexical syllabus. The lexical syllabus is a novel approach to language teaching, based on research. It is therefore more scientific than other designs. Perhaps the biggest advantage of the lexical syllabus from the pragmatic point of view is the lack of guesswork; the syllabus is *not* based on writers' assumptions. With the focus on lexical items and usage that is based on real-world usage, the learning content tends to be more natural and may even foster deeper processing (Schmitt & McCarthy, 1997, p. 3). But even more importantly, the introduction of the *generative lexical concept* was ground breaking. Doing away with the grammar vs vocabulary dichotomy, and viewing word/phrases as having their own generative grammatical qualities based on context was a significant step forward.

Synthesis: The lexical syllabus. Perhaps the lexical syllabus should be summed up as "having great potential as a theory, but not developed enough to be a syllabus." It is a major theoretical syllabus type that is not globally popular, although there are currently some corpora-based course books commercially available; the flagship of such course books would have to be the Touchstone series (McCarthy et al., 2005) from Cambridge University Press. However, without a unifying theory underlying the teaching, the lexical syllabus remains shallow from the researcher's perspective, and it suffers from this. It is therefore often combined with other syllabus types, such as the *task-based syllabus*, discussed in the next subsection.

83

83

83

83

83

83

83

Task-Based Syllabus

What is a *task-based* (TB) syllabus? In theory, it is a type of syllabus that is learning-centered (not to be confused with learner-centered). It therefore should be a procedural syllabus based on teacher-selected tasks that are assumed to promote the language acquisition process, while downplaying the learning of pre-selected linguistic content (Tagg & Woodward, 2011). Skehan's view (1998, p. 260) is that the students should be given freedom within the framework of the tasks for real communicative engagement in the tasks. Skehan's view can also be read as being learner-centered, making it a hybrid learning and learner syllabus. More importantly, in contrast to other types of syllabi discussed earlier (that have little or no pedagogical protocols), the TB syllabus, grounded in task-based methodology, is a syllabus that is inseparable from the methodology. In other words, it is a syllabus that is based on a clear methodology and a clear theory. That said, defining what a "task" actually is has not been easy—this has caused some controversy. Moreover, Dörnyei (2009) discusses how TB is little more than a repackaged form of *Communicative Language Teaching* (or perhaps *notional-functional*), with the most significant difference being that it may incorporate a bit more focus on form. It may be controversial to say this, but since TB is so grounded in methodology, it could/ should probably primarily be viewed as a *methodology* instead of a syllabus type. In that way it could be blended into other syllabi, strengthening its own mission while enhancing the "host" syllabi (such as with the lexical-TB culmination discussed in the previous section).

What is a task? Anything related to learning can be construed as a task, but such a wide-ranging definition is not very helpful. Van den Branden (2006) concurs. He proposes that it should be an activity that has a communicative goal to be met via meaningful usage of language, rather than, but not exclusive of a focus on form. In other words, it can be just about any communicative classroom activity that does not have a keen focus on

84

84

84

84

84

84

84

grammatical accuracy. Not everyone agrees.

Below are a few typical definitions:

Nunan: A piece of classroom work which involves learners in comprehending, manipulating, producing, or interacting in the target language while their attention is principally focused on form (1989, p. 10). Van den Branden: An activity in which a person engages in order to attain an objective, and which necessitates the use of language (2006, p. 4). Edwards and Willis:

- The principal focus of a task is on the negotiation of meaning rather than language form
- Learners are aware of the goal or purpose of the task, which may include creating a list or a map, of solving a problem
- The outcome of the task is to be shared with other students
- Listening, reading, writing and/or speaking may be involved
- Language focused study is incorporated into a TBL lesson, but not generally until after the task is completed, so that learners remain focused on the communicative purpose of the task (2005, p. 3).

Skehan (1998, p. 95) takes it further and emphasizes the need to make the task copy real-world usage with the goal being the solution of a real-world problem. This seems to be the natural and logical extension of this methodology. However, Van den Branden (2006, p. 6) argues the validity in real-world problem solving within the classroom—how realistic can an artificial environment be?

Perhaps the more global question is, compared to the TB syllabus, how realistic are the other types of syllabi and their textbooks? J. Willis (1996a, p. 68) calls them “impoverished and restricted.” They only render caricatures or over-simplified versions of usage. Deeper significances and socio-cultural nuances are typically stripped away

from the material because they are presented in neat packages. D. Willis (1996, p. 51) agrees, “we know that language is a complex system which cannot be ‘presented’ to learners in a series of neat packages.”

But is the TB syllabus the answer? J. Willis (1996a, p. 88), realized the need to expand; learners needed real-time interaction outside of the classroom for exposure to semi-prefabricated chunks of usage, which could lead to top-down discourse analysis. In this way we can see how Willis and Willis bring corpus analysis and TB learning together. If *linear* learning is a fallacy and naturally *cyclical* learning (relying on each learner’s internal analytical processing that is not directly controlled by the teacher) is closer to reality (as discussed by Dörnyei, 2009), then the TB syllabus should have more potential for elegant language learning and teaching.

Results from TB learning are not linear and therefore may not be immediate (Skehan, 1996, pp. 18–19). For this reason, TB does not directly teach grammar nor does it expect learners to rote-memorize grammar points. Learners are seen as hypothesizers that learn from implicit and explicit guesswork via task work, or a conscious focus on meaning via interaction with an unconscious focus on structures (Skehan, 1996, pp. 18–19).

The TB syllabus is the first introduced here that seriously considers the cognitive processing and development of students. Long and Crookes (1991), and Prabhu (1987) also argue similarly, with a focus on the importance of negotiation of meaning and the reliance of analytical internal processes, while J. Willis (1996b) also stresses the importance of student motivation.

How is the task-based syllabus designed? The typical J. Willis (1996b) style has three parts:

Pre-task: introduction to the topic, the task, special words/phrases

Task cycle: small group work; teacher is monitor; plan and prepare in small groups for a public demonstration of their outcomes. Language focus: not to be grammar-focused, but

86

86

86

86

86

86

86

exploration of language usage for consciousness-raising and reduction of fossilization.

Because the term of ‘task’ is so inherently wide, there have been a number of classifications that have been mandated over the years:

Task Classification: Dichotomies

Nunan (1989): real world tasks vs pedagogical tasks Long (1989): divergent vs convergent Pica, Kanagy, and Falodun (1993): one way vs two way Willis and Willis (2007, pp. 72–78), focusing on cognitive processes list these seven requirements for tasks:

- Listing
- Ordering and sorting
- Visual support
- Matching
- Comparing and contrasting
- Problem solving tasks and puzzles
- Projects and creative tasks
- Sharing personal experiences

No matter what the task, there is a heavy reliance on autonomous discovery along with peer-to-peer affect (inclusive of help and pressure). Although this may seem a bit too idealistic, it does emulate real world interaction, probably more realistically than any of the other syllabi introduced so far. But it should be noted that the other syllabi were basically method-less (lacking in theory), whereas TB is the deliberate meshing of theory, method, and syllabus.

Criticisms: The task-based syllabus. Are there criticisms of the TB syllabus? Samuda and

87

87

87

87

87

87

87

Bygate (2008) find it to be controversial and to be an attractor of vocal critics, as does Dörnyei (2009). Van Avermaet and Gysen (2006, p. 29) identify three problems: (1) specificity, (2) complexity, and (3) extrapolation. Regarding specificity, it is assumed that the teacher/writer bases specifications on some sort of a needs analysis—but is it really possible for the teacher/writer to be able to realize an appropriate set of tasks for every student need? If not, how useful would approximations be? Regarding complexity, how is a task to be graded?

Regarding extrapolation, how much can be expected from the learners? How much should the teacher attempt to induce? If a teacher “gives in” and sums up the learning with explicit grammar instruction at the end, would this negate the previous learning, or add to it? What if the students requested explicit grammatical instruction during the task? Would it be wrong to assist them? These are all important questions that each TB proponent may have different answers to, making the TB syllabus much less transparent and more confusing than it intended to be.

Moreover, Edwards and Willis (2005, pp. 27–28) point out that teachers comfortable with a grammar-based syllabus may actually be hostile toward TB learning because of the lack of control over language usage and linguistic outcomes. Indeed, a *non-native English teacher* may not feel confident enough to *facilitate* TB English language learning without clear answer sheets or rulebooks to rely on. (Without a native or native-like competence, how can they assess the learning output competently? They would not be able to.) This is perhaps the number one reason for the popularity of the *grammatical syllabus* among non-native teachers – you don’t need to have a native-like competence as long as you been provided with an answer sheet or rulebook to assess by.

Advantages: The task-based syllabus. Are there advantages to the TB syllabus? There are several, some on the theoretical level and some on the pragmatic level. For one, it

88

88

88

88

88

88

88

acknowledges the inadequacies of all product syllabi; it takes into account human cognition and cognitive development by being a *process-based* syllabi. It is also *procedural*. It builds and relies on learner autonomy—something very real and important when the student leaves the classroom. Also, students will inevitably be at different levels of competence and motivation in any classroom. By consistently using group work in the beginning: (1) learners of different levels may feel less pressure because of the smaller number of eyes on them at any given moment, (2) learners implicitly and explicitly motivate each other and help negotiate meaning with each other at a group level, and (3) no matter how intuitive a teacher/writer may be, their predictions regarding teaching order cannot replace real-time language usage during a realistic task (Cox, 2005).

Content-Based Syllabus

What is *content-based instruction* (CBI)? Is not all learning “content-based”? According to Brinton, Snow, and Wesche (1989, p. vii), it is the “integration of content learning with language teaching aims. More specifically, it refers to the concurrent study of language and subject matter, with the form and sequence of language presentation dictated by content material.”

What good came of this? Some potent criticisms of standard L2 teaching have been: (1) the separation of “meaningfulness” from the language being taught (Kelly, personal communication, August, 2012) and (2) the “dumbing-down” of the content—the learners are typically treated as cognitively deficient people (Murphy, 2009). But how else can you teach the basics of an L2? If you are teaching an L2, isn’t it inevitable that you end up treating learners as being cognitively deficient? For example, Klein (2001, p. 13768) says, “Linguists and laymen alike tend to consider children’s way to their mother tongue to be the most important type of language acquisition.”

89

89

89

89

89

89

89

CBI does away with this dilemma. With a content-based syllabus, the learners are given a real topic to study that presumably matches their cognitive capabilities, and expects them to make do with the content's learning via their L2. It provides the learners with a cognitive challenge that is realistically motivating in a way that is disconnected from the typical focus on language learning. Although it may sound counterintuitive and/or counterproductive (especially from a grammar-based teaching perspective), this type of learning expects the onset of natural motivation to use the language to accomplish the activity without ever having to focus on the language usage as an integral part of the learning.

In CBI, the L2 usage is not necessarily seen as anything other than what it presents as its innate instrumental value. In short, the L2 is no longer the subject of study; the L2 becomes the means to reach the goal. Brown (2001, pp. 49–50) seems to agree by saying, “Content-based classrooms may yield an increase in intrinsic motivation and empowerment, since students are focused on subject matter that is important to their lives.” Brown continues, “Students are pointed beyond transient extrinsic factors, like grades and tests, to their own competence and autonomy as intelligent individuals capable of actually doing something with their new language.” (p. 50). Larsen-Freeman et al. (2011, p. 144), state that, “CBI can also be an effective way for students to learn language in the language class, using themes that students find of interest. Such themes provide sustained motivation beyond intermediate levels of proficiency and prepare students.” It seems there is a consensus regarding the motivational qualities and the real-world qualities of CBI, at least on a theoretical level.

Criticisms. With such a promising foundation, what could be wrong with CBI? On the theoretical level, it does look promising. However, several drawbacks can be uncovered. For one, finding suitable content may prove to be difficult depending upon the composition

90

90

90

90

90

90

90

of the students' needs. Also, would CBI be appropriate of all age groups?—Probably not. Therefore, because CBI attempts to not “dumb- down” the content, it may not be suitable to young learners and novice learners. The most significant criticism would be that when and if students fall into the flow of CBI in a meaningful way, they can all-too-easily disregard the means (the L2) and “triumphantly” reach their ends with their L1, and be fully satisfied with the outcome. This is due to the fact that the L2 usage, while expected, is secondary to reaching the set goal. Teachers can monitor and police the L2 usage to some extent, but if students are motivated to reach the challenging goal, it may be natural for them to lose their periphery self control (due to mechanisms related to flow, [Csikszentmihalyi, 2008]) and simply complete the task in their L1.

There is a second problem that is not solely a CBI issue, but a serious issue nevertheless – L2 learners should have at least some explicit L2 instruction. Implicit learning alone is not the best way to learn the L2 (Dörnyei, 2009; Lighbown & Spada, 1999). Of course, CBI *can* include explicit L2 learning, but because the basic plan is to make the L2 learning secondary to the non-linguistic learning goal, it is natural to assume that learners within a CBI framework may not be able have enough focus on form.

Advantages. The biggest two advantages of CBI must be: (1) the motivational aspects that coincide with empowerment and meaningful goals and (2) the fact that student are no longer only focused on studying about the L2, but using it as needed, naturally. Furthermore, CBI is easy to implement. In fact, it does not need a specialized course book —any book written in English could serve as the center piece of a CBI course.

Synthesis. In theory, even considering its drawbacks, CBI is full of potential. In fact, it is popular around the globe – clothed with different titles. For example, what is the difference

91

91

91

91

91

91

91

between CBI and English for Specific Purposes (ESP)? Depending upon who you listen do, they either have considerable overlap, or they are identical. Instead of saying that CBI is a synonym of ESP, Whong (2011) goes so far as to say that CBI is a type of ESP. From a theoretical perspective, the ESP framing may have the advantage because it would seem to have more inclination to a *focus on form* than CBI would.

CHAPTER VIII

92

92

92

92

92

92

92

VARYING LESSONS CALL FOR VARYING FORMATS

There are a variety of types of lessons and learning experiences. One lesson plan format cannot possibly fit all types of lessons. Different types of lessons call for different lesson plan formats. Describes below are formats for six distinctly different types of lessons. For these lessons a purpose statement is used instead of a behavioral objective. The purpose statement reflects a cognitive approach to teaching and learning. However, feel free to insert a behavioral objective if that works for you.

Basic Lesson Plan Format

Figure 1 contains the most basic of lesson plan formats. This encapsulates the basic elements of teaching: say a little bit, do a little bit. The important part here is to provide an organized body of knowledge (input) in a way that enables learners to see the structure and sequence.

Figure 1. Basic lesson plan.

Concept Lesson Plan Format

A *concept* is a mental abstraction of a category. The salient elements for teaching here include describing the defining attributes and showing positive and negative examples (see Figure 2). At the end students should be able to distinguish between an example and non- example.

Figure 2. Concept lesson plan.

93

93

93

93

93

93

93

Skills Lesson Plan Format

Teaching a skill is different from teaching a concept or body of knowledge. The skills lesson plan format in Figure 3 is based on the elements of effective skills instruction. The most important part of this lesson is guided practice where scaffolding takes place.

Figure 3. Skills lesson plan.

Writing Lesson Plan Format

The writing lesson plan is based on the 5-step writing process: (a) pre-writing, (b) drafting, (c) revising, (d) editing, and (e) sharing (see Figure 4). It encompasses the first two steps (pre-writing and drafting), and the last (sharing). It is assumed that students put their drafts in a folder and then select the drafts they wish to take to the revising and editing stages.

Figure 4. Writing lesson plan.

SRE Reading Lesson Plan Format

The reading lesson plan is designed to create a scaffolded reading experience (SRE) (see Figure 5). The purpose is to get students to read either narrative or expository text. The

94

94

94

94

94

94

94

pre- reading is where a scaffold is used to enable all students to be able read the text. The post- reading activity gets students to interact with the content found in the story or text.

Figure 5. SRE Reading lesson plan.

Discovery Lesson Plan Format

Discovery learning is not merely enabling students to fish around in order to find something to learn. Discovery learning, when correctly implemented, is planned and direct to teach specific concepts, lessons, or information. Figure 6 includes the format used for this type of lesson.

Figure 6. Reading lesson plan.

Guidelines for Designing Effective English Teaching Materials

Teacher designed materials may range from one-off, single use items to extensive programmes of work where the tasks and activities build on each other to create a coherent progression of skills, concepts and language items. The guidelines that follow may act as a useful framework for teachers as they navigate the range of factors and variables to develop materials for their own teaching situations. The guidelines are offered as just that – guidelines – not rules to be rigidly applied or adhered to. While not all the guidelines will be relevant or applicable in all materials design scenarios, overall they provide for coherent design and materials which enhance the learning experience. Guideline 1: English language teaching materials should be contextualised Firstly, the materials should be contextualised to the

95

95

95

95

95

95

95

curriculum they are intended to address (Nunan, 1988, pp. 1–2). It is essential during the design stages that the objectives of the curriculum, syllabus or scheme within the designer's institution are kept to the fore. This is not to suggest that materials design should be solely determined by a list of course specifications or by large inventories of vocabulary that need to be imparted, but these are certainly among the initial considerations.

Materials should also be contextualised to the experiences, realities and first languages of the learners. An important part of this involves an awareness on the part of the teacher-designer of the “socio-cultural appropriacy” (Jolly & Bolitho, 1998, p. 111) of things such as the designer's own style of presenting material, of arranging groups, and so on. It is essential the materials designer is informed about the culture-specific learning processes of the intended learners, and for many groups this may mean adjusting the intended balance of what teachers may regard as more enjoyable activities and those of a more serious nature. Materials should link explicitly to what the learners already know, to their first languages and cultures, and very importantly, should alert learners to any areas of significant cultural difference.

In addition, materials should be contextualised to topics and themes that provide meaningful, purposeful uses for the target language. Wherever possible, these should be chosen on the basis of their relevance and appropriateness for the intended learners, to ensure personal engagement and to provide motivation for dipping further into the materials. For some ages and stages the topics may well be ‘old faithfuls’, such as money, family and holidays. Part of the mission for the materials designer is “to find new angles on those topics” (Bell & Gower, 1998, p. 123) and having done that, to develop activities which will ensure purposeful production of the target language or skills. When producing materials for one-off use with smaller groups, additional student engagement can be achieved by allowing students to ‘star’ in the passages and texts that have been designed specifically for them. Guideline 2: Materials should stimulate interaction and be generative in terms of language Hall (1995) states that “most people who learn to communicate fluently in a language which is not their

L1 do so by spending a lot of time in situations where they have to use the language for some real communicative purpose” (p. 9). Ideally, language-teaching materials should provide situations that demand the same; situations where learners need to interact with each other regularly in a manner that reflects the type of interactions they will engage in outside of the classroom. Hall outlines three conditions he believes are necessary to stimulate real communication: these are the need to “have something we want to communicate”, “someone to communicate with”, and, perhaps most importantly, “some interest in the outcome of the communication” (p. 9). Nunan (1988) refers to this as the “learning by doing philosophy” (p. 8), and suggests procedures such as information gap and information transfer activities, which can be used to ensure that interaction is necessary. Language learning will be maximally enhanced if materials designers are able to acknowledge the communication challenges inherent in an interactive teaching approach and address the different norms of interaction, such as preferred personal space, for example, directly within their teaching materials.

Effective learning frequently involves learners in explorations of new linguistic terrain, and interaction can often be the medium for providing the ‘stretch’ that is necessary for ongoing language development. Materials designers should ensure their materials allow sufficient scope for their learners to be ‘stretched’ at least some of the time, to build on from what is provided to generate new language, and to progress beyond surface fluency to proficiency and confidence. Guideline 3: English language teaching materials should encourage learners to develop learning skills and strategies. It is impossible for teachers to teach their learners all the language they need to know in the short time that they are in the classroom. In addition to teaching valuable new language skills, it is essential that language teaching materials also teach their target learners how to learn, and that they help them to take advantage of language learning opportunities outside the classroom. Hall (1995) stresses the importance of providing learners with the confidence to persist in their attempts to find solutions when they have initial difficulties in communicating. To this end, strategies such as rewording and using facial expressions and body language effectively can be fine-tuned with

97

97

97

97

97

97

97

well designed materials. In addition, materials can provide valuable opportunities for self-evaluation by providing the necessary metalanguage and incorporating activities which encourage learners to assess their own learning and language development. This can utilise the learners' first language as well as English. Some EFL course books, such as Ellis & Sinclair (1989), also build in exercises for students to explore their own learning styles and strategies. Guideline 4: English language teaching materials should allow for a focus on form as well as function Frequently, the initial motivation for designing materials stems from practitioners' desires to make activities more communicative—often as “an antidote to the profusion of skills-based activities and artificial language use pervasive in the field of ESL instruction” (Demetrian, 1997, p. 5). Sometimes, though, in the desire to steer a wide berth around this more traditional approach, materials are developed which allow absolutely no scope for a focus on language form.

The aim of Guideline 3 is to develop active, independent language learners. To help meet this goal, materials also need to encourage learners to take an analytical approach to the language in front of and around them, and to form and test their own hypotheses about how language works (Nunan, 1988). Well-designed materials can help considerably with this by alerting learners to underlying forms and by providing opportunities for regulated practice in addition to independent and creative expression. Guideline 5: English language teaching materials should offer opportunities for integrated language use Language teaching materials can tend to focus on one particular skill in a somewhat unnatural manner. Some courses have a major focus on productive skills, and in these reading and listening become second-rate skills. With other materials, reading or writing may dominate. Bell & Gower (1998) point out that, “at the very least we listen and speak together, and read and write together” (p. 125). Ideally, materials produced should give learners opportunities to integrate all the language skills in an authentic manner and to become competent at integrating extra-linguistic factors also. Guideline 6: English language teaching materials should be authentic Much space has been devoted in language teaching literature to debating the desirability (and otherwise) of

98

98

98

98

98

98

98

using authentic materials in language teaching classrooms and, indeed, to defining exactly what constitutes genuine versus simulated texts. It is the authors' view that it is imperative for second language learners to be regularly exposed in the classroom to real, unscripted language—to passages that have not been produced specifically for language learning purposes. As Nunan points out, “texts written specifically for the classroom generally distort the language in some way” (1988, p. 6). When the aim for authenticity in terms of the texts presented to learners is discussed, a common tendency is to immediately think of written material such as newspapers and magazines. Materials designers should also aim for authentic spoken and visual texts. Learners need to hear, see and read the way native speakers communicate with each other naturally. Arguably more important than the provision of authentic texts, is authenticity in terms of the tasks which students are required to perform with them. Consideration of the types of real-world tasks specific groups of learners commonly need to perform will allow designers to generate materials where both the texts and the things learners are required to do with them reflect the language and behaviours required of them in the world outside the classroom. Guideline 7: English language teaching materials should link to each other to develop a progression of skills, understandings and language items One potential pitfall for teacher-designed materials mentioned in the first part of this article relates to the organisation within and between individual tasks. There is a very real danger with self-designed and adapted materials that the result can be a hotchpotch of unconnected activities. Clearly stated objectives at the outset of the design process will help ensure that the resultant materials have coherence, and that they clearly progress specific learning goals while also giving opportunities for repetition and reinforcement of earlier learning. Guideline 8: English language teaching materials should be attractive Criteria for evaluating English language teaching materials and course books frequently include reference to the ‘look’ and the ‘feel’ of the product (see, for example, Harmer, 1998; Nunan, 1991). Some aspects of these criteria that are particularly pertinent to materials designers are discussed below. Physical appearance: Initial impressions can be as important in the language classroom as they are in many other

99

99

99

99

99

99

99

aspects of life. Put simply, language-teaching materials should be good to look at! Factors to consider include the density of the text on the page, the type size, and the cohesiveness and consistency of the layout. User-friendliness: Materials should also be attractive in terms of their ‘usability’. Some simple examples: if the activity is a gap-fill exercise, is there enough space for learners to handwrite their responses? If an oral response is required during a tape or video exercise, is the silence long enough to allow for both thinking and responding? Durability: If materials need to be used more than once, or if they are to be used by many different students, consideration needs to be given to how they can be made robust enough to last the required distance. Ability to be reproduced: Language teaching institutions are not renowned for giving their staff unlimited access to colour copying facilities, yet many do-it-yourself materials designers continue to produce eye-catching multi-coloured originals, and suffer frustration and disappointment when what emerges from the photocopier is a class-set of grey blurs. Guideline 9: English language teaching materials should have appropriate instructions. This guideline applies as much to the instructions that are provided for other teachers who may use the materials, as it does for the intended learners. It seems to be stating the obvious to say that instructions should be clear, but, often, excellent materials fail in their “pedagogical realisation” (Jolly & Bolitho, 1998, p. 93) because of a lack of clarity in their instructions. For instructions to be effective, they should be written in language that is appropriate for the target learners, and the use of the correct metalanguage can assist with making instructions more concise and efficient. Guideline 10: English language teaching materials should be flexible. This final guideline is directed primarily at longer series of materials rather than at one-off tasks, but has pertinence to both. Prabhu (cited in Cook, c. 1998) maintains that much of a student’s language learning is “mediated by the materials and course books the teacher uses in terms of both language content and teaching technique” (p. 3). He proposes constructing materials that allow teachers and students to make choices—at least some of the time.

The Difference between SBC and CBC (Based on PP. No. 19/2005)

100

100

100

100

100

100

100

The Essential Different	Curriculum 2004	Curriculum 2006
Name	Competence - Based Curriculum (CBC/KBK)	School-Based Curriculum (SBC/ KTSP)
Management	Try out, modeling and MBS are done by Directorate and <i>BALITBANG</i>	BSNP arranges SI (frame and curriculum structure), and school develop the curriculum based on their condition and needs
Frame and Structure of Curriculum	Content: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Competence standard • Competence based • Indicator • Material 	Content: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Group of subjects • Curriculum structures each grade. • Standard competence and competence based
Administering	Given model (syllabi, learning, and assessment as basis	School develop curriculum and syllabi is based on frame of structure and competence standard under supervisor (district/ town) for SD-SMP and Paket A&B, and under province for SMA, SMK and paket C

101

101

101

101

101

101

101

The Difference between the Curriculum 2006 and the Curriculum 2013

Element	Items of Different	The Curriculum 2006	The Curriculum 2013
Guru	Authority	Close to absolute	Limited
	Competency	Must be high	Should be high. For the lowers are still helped by the existing book.
	Responsibility	heavy	Light
	Time affectivity to do learning activities	Low (too much time for preparation/ planning)	High
Book	Publisher's role	Big	Small
	Material and process variation	High	Low
	Price variation	High	Low
Students	Learning outcomes	Depend on teacher as a whole	Not only depend on teacher as a whole, but also the books provided by the government.
Monitor	Deviation point	Many	Little
	Deviation number	High	Low
	Monitoring	Difficult, close to impossible	Essay
Process of syllabus design	The teachers' role	Close to absolute (only limited by SK-KD)	Develop the syllabus provided by the government
	The government's role	Only on SK-KD	Absolute
	The district government's role	Designing supervisor	Implementation supervisor
Book provision	Publisher	Strong	Weak
	Teacher	Close to absolute	Small, just for enrichment book.
	Government	Small, for proper usage in school	Absolute for text books.
Lesson plan design	The teachers' role	Close to absolute	Small, to develop the existing plan on the text book
	The district government's role	Supervisor of the designing and monitoring	Supervisor of the implementation and monitoring
Element	Items of Different	The Curriculum 2006	The Curriculum 2013

Learning implementation	The teachers' role	Absolute	Close to absolute
	The district government's role	Monitor the appropriateness with the plan (variation)	Monitor the appropriateness with the text books (in control)
Quality guarantee	Government	Difficult, since too many variations	Easy, since direct to same basis

**PROTA/PROGRAM TAHUNAN, PROMES/PROGRAM SEMESTER,
RPE/RENCANA MINGGU EFEKTIF**

1. Pengertian Program Tahunan

Program adalah sederetan kegiatan yang akan dilakukan untuk mencapai suatu tujuan tertentu.^[1] Dalam pengertian program tahunan terdapat beberapa pendapat yang menjelaskan tentang pengertian tersebut.

Program tahunan adalah rencana penetapan alokasi waktu satu tahun v ajaran untuk mencapai tujuan (standar kompetensi dan kompetensi dasar) yang telah ditetapkan. Penetapan alokasi waktu diperlukan agar seluruh kompetensi dasar yang ada dalam kurikulum seluruhnya dapat dicapai oleh siswa.^[2]

Program tahunan merupakan program umum setiap mata pelajaran untuk setiap kelas, yang dikembangkan oleh guru mata pelajaran yang bersangkutan. Program ini perlu dipersiapkan dan dikembangkan oleh guru sebelum tahun ajaran, karena merupakan pedoman bagi pengembangan program-program berikutnya, seperti program semester, program mingguan, dan program harian atau program pembelajaran setiap pokok bahasan, yang dalam KBK dikenal modul.^[3]

Dalam program perencanaan menetapkan alokasi waktu untuk setiap kompetensi dasar yang harus dicapai, disusun dalam program tahunan. Dengan demikian, penyusunan program tahunan pada dasarnya adalah menetapkan jumlah waktu yang tersedia untuk setiap kompetensi dasar.^[4]

2. Pengertian Program Semester

Semester adalah satuan waktu yang digunakan untuk penyelenggaraan program pendidikan. Kegiatan yang dilaksanakan dalam semester itu ialah kegiatan tatap muka, praktikum, keraja lapangan, mid semester, ujian semester dan berbagai kegiatan lainya yang diberi penilaian keberhasilan.^[5]

Dalam program pendidikan semester dipakai satuan waktu terkecil, yaitu satuan semester untuk menyatakan lamanya satu program pendidikan. Masing-masing program semester sifatnya lengkap dan merupakan satu kebulatan dan berdiri sendiri. Pada setiap akhir semester segenap bahan kegiatan program semester yang disajikan harus sudah selesai dilaksanakan dan mahasiswa yang mengambil program tersebut sudah dapat ditentukan lulus atau tidak.

Program semester berisikan garis-garis besar mengenai hal-hal yang hendak dilaksanakan dan dicapai dalam semester tersebut. Program semester ini merupakan penjabaran dari program tahunan.^[6]

Kalau program tahunan disusun untuk menentukan jumlah jam yang diperlukan untuk mencapai kompetensi dasar, maka dalam program semester diarahkan untuk menjawab minggu keberapa atau kapan pembelajaran untuk mencapai kompetensi dasar itu dilakukan.

Pada umumnya program semester ini berisikan tentang bulan, pokok bahasan yang hendak disampaikan, waktu yang direncanakan, dan keterangan-keterangan.

3. Pengertian Analisis pekan efektif

Pekan efektif adalah hitungan hari-hari efektif yang ada pada tahun pelajaran berlangsung. Untuk membantu kemajuan belajar peserta didik, di samping modul perlu dikembangkan program mingguan dan harian. Program ini merupakan penjabaran dari program semester dan program modul. Melalui program ini dapat diketahui tujuan-tujuan yang telah dicapai dan yang perlu diulang, bagi setiap peserta didik. Melalui program ini juga diidentifikasi kemajuan belajar setiap peserta didik, sehingga dapat diketahui peserta didik yang mendapat kesulitan dalam setiap modul yang dikerjakan, dan peserta didik yang memiliki kecepatan belajar di atas rata-rata kelas.

Bagi peserta didik yang cepat bisa diberikan pengayaan, sedang bagi yang lambat dilakukan pengulangan modul untuk mencapai tujuan yang belum dicapai dengan menggunakan waktu cadangan.^[9]

Cara menentukan Pekan efektif

- Menentukan jumlah minggu selama satu tahun.
- Menghitung jumlah minggu tidak efektif selama 1 tahun.
- Menghitung jumlah minggu efektif dengan cara jumlah minggu dalam 1 th dikurang jumlah minggu tidak efektif .
- Menghitung jumlah jam efektif selama satu tahun dengan cara jumlah minggu efektif dikali jumlah jam pelajaran per minggu.

C. Langkah-Langkah Menyusun Program Tahunan Dan Program Semester

Dalam penyusunan program tahunan ada beberapa langkah yang perlu untuk di perhatikan

1. Langkah-langkah Penyusunan Program Tahunan

- a) Menelaah kalender pendidikan, dan ciri khas sekolah/madrasah berdasarkan kebutuhan tingkat satuan pendidikan.
- b) Menandai hari-hari libur, permulaan tahun pelajaran, minggu efektif, belajar, waktu pembelajaran efektif (per minggu). Hari-hari libur meliputi
 1. Jeda tengah semester
 2. Jeda antar semester
 3. Libur akhir tahun pelajar
 4. Hari libur keagamaan
 5. Hari libur umum termasuk hari-hari besar nasional
 6. Hari libur khusus
- c) Menghitung jumlah minggu efektif setiap bulan dan semester dalam satu tahun dan memasukkan dalam format matrik yang tersedia.
- d) Medistribusikan olokasi waktu yang disediakan untuk suatu mata pelajaran, pada setiap KD dan topik bahasannya pada minggu efektif, sesuai ruang lingkup cakupan materi, tingkat kesulitan dan pentingnya materi tersebut, serta mempertimbangkan waktu untuk ulangan serta review materi.

2. Langkah-langkah Penyusunan Program Semester

- a) Memasukkan KD, topik dan sub topik bahasan dalam format Program Semester
- b) Menentukan jumlah jam pada setiap kolom minggu dan jumlah tatap muka per minggu untuk mata pelajaran
- c) Mengalokasikan waktu sesuai kebutuhan bahasan topik dan sub topik pada kolom minggu dan bulan.
- d) Membuat catatan atau keterangan untuk bagian-bagian yang membutuhkan penjelasan

D. Contoh Format Analisis Pekan Efektif, Program Tahunan, dan Program Semester

1. Format Analisis Pekan Efektif

Semester	Bulan	Jumlah Minggu	Minggu efektif	Minggu tdk efektif	Keterangan
I	Juli				
	Agustus				
	September				
	Oktober				
	November				
	Desember				
	Jumlah				
II	Januari				
	Februari				
	Maret				
	April				
	Mei				
	Juni				
	Jumlah				

Medan, 2019

Guru Mata Pelajaran,

(-----)

2. Format Program Tahunan

Satuan Pendidikan :

Mata Pelajaran :

Kelas/Program :

Tahun Pelajaran :

Standar Kompetensi Smster I	Kompetensi Dasar (KD)	Konsep/Sub Konsep (Pokok Bahasan)	Alokasi Waktu	Keterangan
Jumlah				
Standar Kompetensi Smster II	Kompetensi Dasar (KD)	Konsep/Sub Konsep (Pokok Bahasan)	Alokasi Waktu	Keterangan
Jumlah				

Mengetahui

Medan, 2019

Kepala Madrasah

Guru Mata Pelajaran

(.....)

(.....)

LESSON PLAN

Subject : English Language
 Class : 4th Grade of Elementary School
 Time Allocation : 1x40 Minutes
 Topic : Daily Routine (Telling Time)

Language Focus: “What time is it?”

Skills: Listening and Speaking

Objectives: Students are able to ask and reply to “what time is it?”

Materials:

- Teacher handbook
- Hand-out

Media

1. Song: Telling time from <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=xp7LxGMdJoY>
2. Big clock card
3. Wolf game (Appendix 2)
4. Sticking Clock Activity (Appendix 3)

;

Teaching and Learning Steps

Activities	Detail Activities	Time
Opening	1. Teacher greets the students.	12 minutes
	2. Teacher asks captain of the class to lead the pray.	
	3. Teacher checks students’ attendance.	
	4. Teacher checking students’ understanding of the previous lesson	
	5. Teacher tells the students about what students are going to learn.	
	6. Teacher asks “what time is it now?” using big clock card. “What time do the students wake up?”	

	“What time do you go to school?”		
Main Activity	1.	Teacher gives some example about how to tell time in English.	20 minutes
	2.	Teacher sings the time song without the video.	
	3.	Students are asked to repeat what teacher says.	
	4.	Students and teacher sing the song together. (Appendix 1) (use big clock card to help the activity)	
	5.	One of the students is asked to come forward and lead the others to sing the song.	
	6.	Wolf game (outdoor follow-up) (Appendix 2)	
	7.	Students sing <i>what time is it?</i> song again.	
	8.	Students do the <i>sticking clock</i> activity.	
Closing	1.	Students and teacher review what have been learnt by singing <i>what time is it?</i> song.	8 minutes
	2.	Students are informed about what to do on the next week.	
	3.	Teacher asks captain of the class to lead the pray.	
	4.	Teacher greets the students by saying <i>good bye, see you next week.</i>	

CHAPTER X

RETHINKING THE CURRICULUM

Many discussions regarding the qualitative improvement in education have taken place. A number of recommendations have been given to revamp the educational system. One of the factors that are often discussed in conferences and seminars is the ‘curriculum’. There seems to be an agreement that the curriculum is an important tool of educational change. The usual criticism on the curriculum in Indonesia, however, is that they are outdated, fixed, irrelevant and outdated. This criticism comes from practicing teachers, researchers and policymakers. Before commenting on the nature and validity of the criticism, it is important to unpack the term the ‘curriculum’ and challenge some of the assumptions underlying the conservative and contemporary view of it.

The literal meaning of the curriculum is a race course or a race track. Like a race course, the curriculum, in educational setting, determines the scope of the track for the educational process. Thus the curriculum includes a set of topics and activities to be covered in a certain period of time. The race course metaphor, with the passage of time, was turned into a straightjacket, as the curriculum was viewed as a cold and frigid document that is much talked about but is never seen by many teachers and usually gathers dust sitting on a shelf. Teachers in schools are usually concerned with textbooks they have to teach and are not necessarily motivated to have a look at the curriculum. They, however, complain that the curriculum is thrust upon them by some external agency. Consequently, they consider themselves helpless and start believing that there is little space for freedom.

This conservative view of the curriculum considers it a fixed phenomenon and oversimplifies this complex notion. This naive and misleading view attracts governments in the developing countries which means every new government embarks upon the process of redesigning the curriculum. Usually in such exercises, the execution part of the curriculum is ignored. As a result, paperwork for the new curricula is done in a hurried manner. But what about the execution? The teachers who are supposed to execute the ‘new’ curriculum continue to work within the old paradigm and are not in a position to help students attain the intended objectives of the newly-designed curriculum.

To arrest the vibrant nature of the curriculum, we need to redefine the term. Connelly and Clandinin refer to four commonplaces of the curriculum, including the teacher, teaching materials, students and the school milieu. A curriculum is thus an interaction between all these four aspects. This notion of the curriculum is not fixed, confined or inert. It shows the vibrant and living nature of the curriculum that happens every day. It also encompasses the explicit and

implicit nature of the curriculum where the teacher is not just a helpless creature but occupies the central position in the arena.

To explain this let me refer to the term, the ‘hidden curriculum’. This is not the stated curriculum but becomes part of the curriculum indirectly – the attitudes or values that are inculcated in students not as a result of direct teaching and planning by the teachers but as an outcome of the way the activities are planned, organised, and implemented. For instance if the stated curriculum mentions punctuality and the teacher teaches the significance and advantages of punctuality from textbooks and lectures but comes to class late, students will learn that coming late is something normal and there is nothing wrong with it. This is a simple example of the hidden curriculum which is usually more powerful than the stated curriculum.

Let us now look at the curriculum from a different perspective to understand that it should not be taken as a straightjacket as the teacher can play an important role to enrich and empower the given curriculum. It is important to trace the stages of curriculum realisation. The first stage is the ‘intended curriculum’ which is visualised by the policymakers and handed down to the teachers for consumption in the classroom. A large part of the intended curriculum is manifested in textbooks and other reading materials specially written for this purpose. The books and reading materials are then read by the teachers before being taught to students.

The way teachers comprehend the curriculum may be considered the ‘comprehended curriculum’. Similarly the way teachers exploit textbooks/reading materials can be termed as ‘taught curriculum’. Finally what is learned by students at the end of the day through an implicit or explicit way can be called the ‘learnt curriculum’. The assessment system focuses on certain aspects of a given curriculum and approaches it from a different perspective. The parts of the given curriculum emphasised by the assessment system constitute materials. It is important to note that the intended curriculum may be modified through changes made during different stages of manifested, comprehended, taught, learnt, and assessed curriculum. This view of looking at the curriculum underlines the important role of the teacher who is not just a passive recipient, but an important stakeholder who can act as a useful catalyst in generating an interaction between the school milieu, students and teaching materials.

If we are serious about bringing educational change through the curriculum, it is vital that we “unfreeze” the conservative view of the curriculum as a cold and mysterious document which is sitting in the shelf of a policymaker or gathering dust in the cupboard of the head teacher.

Curriculum, on the contrary, is much more than that. It is a living and vibrant phenomenon in which students, teachers, teaching materials and the school culture are important components.

REFERENCES

- Auerbach, E.R. (1995). The politics of the ESL classroom: Issues of power in pedagogical choices. In R. Tollefson (Ed.), *Power and Inequality in Language Education* (pp. 9-33). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Basturkmen, H. (2006). *Ideas and Options in English for Specific Purposes*. Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum. pp.15-29
- Benesch, S. (2001). *Critical English for Academic Purposes: Theory, Politics and Practice*. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Inc. Publishers.
- Berwick, R. (1989). *Needs Assessment in Language Programming: From Theory to Practice*. In R.K. Johnson (ed.), *The Second Language Curriculum*. New York: Cambridge University Press.
- Brindley, G.P. (1989). 'The role of needs analysis in adult ESL programme design'. In R. K. Johnson (ed.) *The Second Language Curriculum*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press. pp 63-78.
- Chambers, F. (1980). A re-evaluation of needs analysis in ESP. *English for Specific Purposes Journal*, 1 (1), 25- 33.
- Dudley-Evans, T. and St. John, M.J. (1998). *Developments in English for Specific Purposes: A Multidisciplinary Approach*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Finocchiaro, M. and Brumfit, C.J. (1983). *The Functional-Notional Approach: From Theory to Practice*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Freire, P. (1970). *Pedagogy of the oppressed*. New York: Continuum.
- Hutchinson, T. and Waters, A. (1987). *English for Specific Purposes: A Learning-centred Approach*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Johns, A.M. and Dudley-Evans, T. (1991). English for Specific Purposes: International in Scope, Specific in Purpose. *TESOL Quarterly*, 25 (2): 297-314.
- Jordan, R. R. (1997). *English for Academic Purposes: A Guide and Resource Book for Teachers*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Long, M.H. (1996). The role of the linguistic environment in second language acquisition. In W.C. Richie & T.K. Bhatia (Eds.), *Handbook of Second Language Acquisition* (pp. 413-468). San Diego: Academic Press.

- Redman, S. (1999) *English Vocabulary In Use*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Richterich, R. and Chancerel, J.L. (1980). *Identifying the Needs of Adults Learning a Foreign Language*. Oxford: Pergamon Press.
- Richterich,R. (Ed.) (1983). *Introduction to Case Studies in Identifying Language Needs*. Oxford: Pergamon (Council of Europe).
- Richards, J.C. (1992). *Listen Carefully*. Oxford, Oxford University Press. pp. 58-60. Robinson, P.J. (1991). *A Practitioners' Guide*. New York: Prentice Hall.
- Yalden, J. (1984). *Syllabus design in general education*. In C. J. Brumfit (Ed.) *General English Syllabus Design*. New York: Pergamon.
- References Best J.W. & Kahn, J.V.(2003) *Research in educational* (9th ed.), new Delhi prentice hall.
- Bella O. Mariñas, B.O. & Ditapat, M.P. Philippines Curriculum development.
- Matias, S.K. (2012). "New curriculum development today in the Philippines."Posted on August 7,2012 and Retrieved on August 18, 2017 @ <http://suzette.krillematias.blogspot.com/>.
- Richards, J. (2001). *Curriculum development in language teaching*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.