

- b. To other researchers who wish to develop English learning materials for students of Culinary Study Programme or other programmes on vocational schools, this research study can be a reference as to what learning materials is like.

CHAPTER II

THEORETICAL REVIEW AND CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

Chapter II presents some theories and the conceptual framework that underline this study. The theoretical reviews cover the issues of English for Specific Purposes, the learning context, task-based instruction, materials development, developing unit of materials; materials design model, unit components, materials evaluation, and English in Culinary Department. The conceptual framework presents the concept in developing the English learning materials.

A. Theoretical Review

1. English for Specific Purposes

In contrast to learners learning English for general purposes for whom mastery of the language for its own sake or in order to pass a general examination is the primary goal, the ESP learners is usually studying English in order to carry out a particular role. Therefore the theories of English for Specific Purposes are needed in English teaching and learning in the Vocational School.

Hutchinson & Waters (1987: 19) state that ESP is an approach to language teaching in which all decisions as to content and method are based on the learner's reason for learning. It means that ESP is not a particular kind of language or methodology, nor does it consist of a particular type of teaching material. However it is an approach to language learning which is based on learner need.

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ESP approach to language teaching began as a response to a number of practical concerns as follows (Richards, 2001: 28):

- the need to prepare growing numbers of non-English background students for study at American and British universities from the 1950s.
- the need to prepare materials to teach students who had already mastered general English, but now needed English for use in employment, such as non-English background doctors, nurses, engineers, and scientists.
- the need for materials for people needing English for business purposes.

- the need to teach immigrants the language needed to deal with job situations.

ESP is different from General English. Hutchinson & Waters (1987: 53) state that what distinguishes ESP from General English is not the existence of a need as such but rather an awareness of the need. When learners and teachers know why the learners need English, that awareness will have an influence on what will be acceptable as reasonable content in language course. In contrast to students learning English for general purposes for whom mastery of the language for its own sake or in order to pass a general examination is the primary goal, the ESP student is usually studying English to carry out a particular role, such as that of foreign student in an English-medium university, flight attendant, mechanic, or doctor (Richards, 2001: 28). He also explains that in ESP, learner's needs are often described in terms of performance that is in terms of what the learner will be able to do with the language at the end of a course of the study. Whereas in a general English course the goal is usually an overall mastery of the language that can be tested on a global language test, the goal of an ESP course is to prepare the learners to carry out a specific task or set of tasks.

Hutchinson and Waters (1987: 16) distinguish ESP course by the general nature of the learners' specialism. They then identify three large categories of ESP as: EST (English for Science and Technology), EBE (English for Business and Economics), and ESS (English for the Social Sciences). Each of these categories are then divided into two smaller categories, they are EAP (English for Academic Purposes) and EOP (English for Occupational Purposes). In English for Occupational Purposes, the language learnt for immediate use in a study environment will be used later when the student takes up a job. Further, English

for Culinary Department of the Vocational School in this study belongs to English for Occupational Purposes.

Hutchinson and Waters (1987: 16) also make a basic distinction between target needs and learning needs. Target needs is what the learner needs to do in the target situation while learning needs is what the learner needs to do in order to learn.

2. The Learning Context

The learning context consists of the descriptions of standard of content of English, the English teaching and learning process, and the assessment for Vocational Secondary School.

a. Standard of Content of English for Vocational Secondary School

The Law of National Education System (No.20/2003) provides legal framework about the curriculum implemented in Indonesia. The implementation of the law of National Education System is elaborated on some laws, such The Government Regulation (No.19/2005) as to National Education Standard. This law gives the directions of eight national education standards, namely Standard of Content, Standard of Process, Competency Standard, Standards of Educators and Education Personnel, Facilities and Infrastructure Standards, Management Standards, Financial Standards, and Standards of Educational Assessment. Standard of Content is developed based on The Government Regulation (No.19/2005) by *Badan Standar Nasional Pendidikan* (BSNP). The Standard of Content itself is then covered in The Government Regulation (No.22/2006).

There are three subject classifications in the vocational school as mentioned in Standard of Content, i.e. normative, adaptive, and productive

subjects. The normative subjects are *Pendidikan Agama, Pendidikan Kewarganegaraan, Bahasa Indonesia, Pendidikan Jasmani Olahraga dan Kesehatan*, and *Seni Budaya*. The adaptive subjects include *Bahasa Inggris, Matematika, IPA, IPS, Komputer, and Kewirausahaan*.

In the Standard of Content of English, there are three language levels in the Vocational levels, namely novice, elementary, and intermediate level. Table 2.1 presents Standard of Competence and Basic Competence for the Vocational Schools.

Table 1: Standard of Competence and Basic Competence for the Vocational High Schools.

Standard of Competence	Basic Competence
1. Novice Level (tenth grade students)	1. 1 to comprehend the basic expressions used in social interaction for their daily life. 1. 2 to mention things, people, time, days, month and year. 1. 3 to describe things and people. 1. 4 to produce simple conversation using basic language function. 1. 5 to explain events or moments that are happening in the simple way. 1. 6 to understand memo and menu, schedule trip of public transportation, and traffic signs. 1. 7 to comprehend words and strange terms and simple sentences based on the formula. 1. 8 to write simple invitations.
2. Elementary Level (eleventh grade students)	2. 1 to understand daily conversation whether in professional or personal context to non-native speakers. 2. 2 to write simple messages in direct interaction

	<p>or through aids.</p> <p>2. 3 to describe job description and educational background both oral and written.</p> <p>2. 4 to tell about job in the past and job planning in the future.</p> <p>2. 5 to express some feelings.</p> <p>2. 6 to understand simple instructions.</p> <p>2. 7 to make short messages and directions.</p>
3. Intermediate level (twelfth grade students)	<p>3. 1 to understand monologue texts in a certain work situation.</p> <p>3. 2 to understand limited conversation with native speakers.</p> <p>3. 3 to understand business documents.</p> <p>3. 4 to write business letters and simple reports.</p>

b. The English Teaching-Learning Process in Vocational Secondary School

As stated in the Standard of Content, the objective of English lesson in the Vocational Schools are as follows:

- (1) Students are able to master the knowledge and the basic skill of English to support competency achievement in their programme.
- (2) Students are able to apply the ability and English skill to communicate in a written and spoken in the level of intermediate.

The English teaching and learning in the Vocational School is then based on that objective. It means that in the activities, methods or approaches used in the teaching and learning are also based on the objective.

English in Vocational School is an adaptive lesson which aim is to prepare the students the ability to communicate in written and oral English in the context

of communication materials needed for their program. Besides, it gives the students the ability to communicate with people in the daily life as the global demand and also prepare them to develop communication into the higher grade.

c. The assessment

There are many assessments that can be used to assess the students toward the English teaching and learning process. One of them is TOEIC. Test of English for International Communication (TOEIC) is the global standard for assessing English proficiency in business. It is a test of English that concentrates more on English for business purposes. In the teaching and learning, the vocational school students are prepared to face the field of work after graduating from the school. TOEIC is then used to assess the students English proficiency for the twelfth grade students in the final examination. It helps businesses build a more effective workforce and gives job seekers and employees a competitive edge. TOEIC test questions simulate real-life situations that are relevant to the global workplace. Score reports provide accurate, meaningful feedback about a test taker's strengths and weaknesses, along with a description of the English language strengths typical of test takers performing at various score levels. This allows employers to relate test scores to the tasks employees may perform on the job and use the descriptions to inform critical hiring and placement decisions.

3. Task-Based Language Instruction

After graduating from the school, the students of the Vocational School will face the business field related to their study. It means that what they learn in class along the study needs to be related to things they will ultimately need to do

outside of the classroom (the business field). Therefore, task-based language instruction is needed in teaching and learning process.

Nunan (2003:7) explains that in Task Based Language Teaching, language lessons are based on learning experiences that have non-linguistic outcomes, and in which there is a clear connection between the things learners do in class and the things they will ultimately need to do outside of the classroom. In giving tasks, language is used to achieve no language outcomes. For example, the ultimate aim of ordering a meal is not to use correctly formed WH-questions, but to get food and drink on the table.

Nunan (2004:35) summarizes the underlying principles that are drawn on in developing the instructional sequence.

Principle 1: Scaffolding

- Lessons and materials should provide supporting frameworks within which the learning takes place. At the beginning of the learning process, learners should not be expected to produce language that has not been introduced either explicitly or implicitly.

Principle 2: Task dependency

- Within a lesson, one task should grow out of, and build upon, the ones that have gone before.

Principle 3: Recycling

- Recycling language maximizes opportunities for learning and activates the 'organic' learning principle.

Principle 4: Active learning

- Learners learn best by actively using the language they are learning.

Principle 5: Integration

- Learners should be taught in ways that make clear the relationships between linguistic form, communicative function and semantic meaning.

Principle 6: Reproduction to creation

- Learners should be encouraged to move from reproductive to creative language use.

Principle 7: Reflection

- Learners should be given opportunities to reflect on what they have learned and how well they are doing.

a. Task-Based Syllabus Design

The syllabus specifies content and learning outcomes and is a document that can be used as a basis for classroom teaching and the design of teaching materials (Richards & Rodgers, 2001:231). A task based language teaching syllabus specifies the tasks that should be carried out by learners within a program. Nunan (1989, in Richards & Rodgers, 2001:231) suggests that a syllabus might specify two types of tasks: (1) real-world tasks, which are designed to practice or rehearse those tasks that are found to be important in a needs analysis and turn out to be important and useful in the real world, (2) pedagogical tasks, which have a psycholinguistic basis in second language acquisition theory and research but do not necessarily reflect real-world tasks.

Nunan (2004:25) ties tasks together in two ways. In terms of units of work or lessons, he ties tasks together through the principle of 'task chaining'. At a broader syllabus level, Nunan ties tasks together topically/thematically, through the macro functions, micro functions, and grammatical elements they express.

Nunan (2004:30) also explains that a task-based syllabus allows for a great deal of naturalistic recycling. In a task-based syllabus, grammatical and functional items will reappear numerous times in a diverse range of contexts. This would appear to be healthy for second language acquisition because it allows learners to 'restructure' and develop an elaborated understanding of the item in question. It is therefore consistent with an 'organic' view of acquisition in which numerous items are acquired simultaneously.

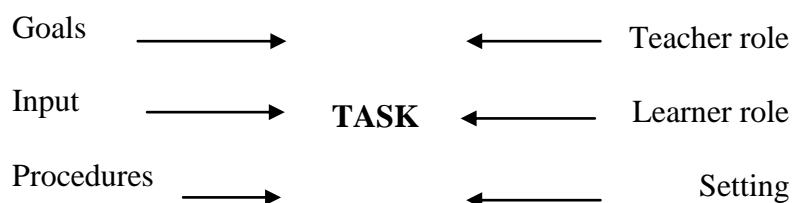
b. Task Components

There are some early conceptualizations of tasks components that are useful. Shavelson and Stem (1981:478, in Nunan 2004:40) suggest that task designers should take into consideration the following elements:

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

Candlin (1987, in Nunan 2004:40) has a similar list of task components. He suggests that tasks should contain input, roles, settings, actions, monitoring, outcomes and feedback. Input refers to the data that are presented for learners to work on. Roles specify the relationship between participants in a task. Setting refers to where the task takes place, either in the class or in an out of class arrangement. Action are the procedures and sub-tasks that to be performed by the learners. Monitoring refers to the supervision of the task in progress. Outcomes are the goals of the task, and feedback refers to the evaluation of the task.

Wright (1987a, in Nunan 2004:41) argues that minimally tasks need two elements, input data and an initiating question. Input data can provided by materials, teachers or learners while an initiating question instructs learners on what to do with the data. Drawing on the conceptualizations of Shavelson and Stem, Candlin, and Wright, Nunan proposes that a minimum specification on a task include goals, input and procedures, and those will be supported by roles and settings.



The components will be briefly described as follows:

1) Goals

Goals refer to the vague, general intentions behind any learning task (Nunan, 2004:41). Goals may relate to a range of general outcomes (communicative, affective, or cognitive) or may directly describe teacher or learner behaviour. They may also refer to the knowledge and skill that the task intends to develop. Goals may not always be explicitly stated, although they can usually be inferred from the task itself. As with other communicative approaches, the goals in Task Based Language Teaching are ideally to be determined by the specific needs of particular learners (Richard&Rodgers 2001:230). Selection of tasks thus according to Long&Crookes (1993,in Richard&Rodgers 2001:230), should be based on a careful analysis of the real-world needs of learners.

2) Input

Input refers to the data that form the point of departure for the task (Nunan, 1989:53). The data that serve the input of a task can be verbal language either spoken (e.g. lectures) or written (e.g. newspaper extracts), or non-verbal such as objects, pictures and real objects, or the combinations of all of those with which the learners work in the course of completing a task (Nunan, 2004). In task-based language teaching, the input and output processing necessary for language acquisition are provided by the tasks (Richard&Rodgers 2001:228).

3) Procedures

'Procedures' specifies what learners will actually do with the input that forms the point of departure for the learning task. In considering the task framework, the researcher analyzes the task in terms of the extent to which they require learners to rehearse, in class, the sorts of communicative behaviours they might be expected to use in genuine communicative interactions outside the classroom. Classroom activities should parallel the 'real world' as closely as possible. Since language is a tool of communication, methods and materials should concentrate on the message, not the medium (Clark & Silberstein 1977:51, in Nunan 2004:53).

Richard (1985, in Richard & Rodgers 2001:238) gives the example of the way in which task activities are designed into an instructional bloc. The example comes from a language program that contained a core component built around tasks. Need analysis identifies target tasks that the students needed to be able to carry out in English. A set of role-play activities is then developed focusing on situations that students will encounter in the community and transactions they will have to carry out in English. The following format is developed for each role-play task:

- Pretask activities
 1. Learners first take part in a preliminary activity that introduces the topic, the situation, and the script that will subsequently appear in the role-play task.
 2. Learners then read a dialogue on a related topic.
- Task activity

Learners perform a role play. Students work in pairs with a task and cues needed to negotiate the task.
- Posttask activities

Learners then listen to recordings of native speakers performing the same role-play task they have just practiced and compare

differences between the way they expressed particular functions and meanings and the way native speakers performed.

4) Learner roles

Role refers to the part that learners and teachers are expected to play in carrying out learning tasks as well as the social and interpersonal relationships between the participants (Nunan, 2004: 64). Richards and Rodgers (1986, in Nunan 2004:64) devote considerable attention to learner and teacher roles. They point out that a task will reflect assumptions about the contributions that learners can make to the learning process.

Richard and Rodgers (2001:235) identify some primary roles of learners that are implied by task work.

a) Group participant

Many tasks will be done in pairs or small groups. For students more accustomed to whole-class and/or individual work, this may require some adaptation.

b) Monitor

In task-based language teaching, tasks are not employed for their own sake but as a means of facilitating learning. Class activities have to be designed so that students have the opportunity to notice how language is used in communication. Learners themselves need to follow not only to the message in task work, but also to the form in which such message typically come packed.

c) Risk-taker and innovator

Many tasks will require learners to create and interpret message for which they lack full linguistic resources and prior experience. Practice in restating, paraphrasing, using paralinguistic signal will often be needed. The skills of

guessing from linguistic and contextual clues, asking for clarification, and consulting with other learners may also need to be developed.

5) Teacher roles

Harmer (2001:57) classifies some of teachers' roles. He states that the roles of the teacher in a classroom are as a controller, organiser, prompter, resource, tutor and observer.

- Controller : Controllers take the roll, tell students things, organise drill activities, read aloud, and in various other ways exemplify the qualities of a teacher-fronted classroom.
- Organiser : Organising the students to do various activities; involves giving the students information, telling them how they are going to do the activity, putting them in pairs or in groups, and closing things down when it is time to stop.
- Prompter : Adopting some kind of a "prompting" role, for example when students are involved in a role-play activity, they they lose the thread of what is going on, or they are lost of words, the teacher offers words or phrases, suggest that the students say something or suggest what could come next in a paragraph the students is writing.
- Resource : for example the students ask the teacher how to write something or what a word or phrase means, and they want to know information when they are doing an activity; this is where the teacher can be one of the most important resources they have.
- Tutor : when the students are working on longer projects, for example writing or preparation for debate, the teacher working with individual

or small group then act as tutor (combining the role of a prompter and resource)

- Observer : for example, the teacher can give the students useful group and individual feedback when she or he wants to observe what the students do (especially in oral communicative activities)

6) Settings

Setting refers to the classroom arrangements specified or implied in the tasks, and it also requires consideration of whether the task is to be carried out wholly or partly outside the classroom (Nunan, 2004:71). It includes the students' configuration when they do the tasks and where the lesson is conducted. The setting of a task is not always explicitly specified by the task. It is sometimes implicit or may require the teacher to decide.

4. Materials Development

a. The nature of materials

Tomlinson (2008:6) lists some of the things which he thinks some ELT materials are currently doing which are likely to promote language acquisition and development:

- Some of them are providing a rich experience of different genres and text types.
- Some of them are providing an aesthetically positive experience through the use of attractive illustration, design and illustration.
- Some of them are making use of multimedia resources to provide a rich and varied experience of language learning.
- Some of them are helping the learners to make some discoveries for themselves.
- Some of them are helping the learners to become independent learners of the language.
- Some of them are providing supplementary materials which provide the learners with experience of extensive listening and/or extensive reading.
- Some of them are helping the learners to personalize and localize their language learning experience.

Tomlinson (2008:4) also states that materials for learners at all levels must provide exposure to authentic use of English through spoken and written texts with the potential to engage the learners cognitively and affectively. It means that if they do not provide such texts and they don't stimulate the learners to think and feel whilst experiencing them there is very little chance of the materials facilitating any durable language acquisition at all.

He then explain that not only should materials provide a rich exposure to language in authentic use but that they should also include activities which help learners to notice for themselves salient features of the texts. Kolb (1984, in Tomlinson 2008:5) states that ideally the materials should follow the principles of the experiential approach in which apprehension is followed by comprehension, and therefore the analytical noticing activities should follow engaging experiential activities in which the emphasis is on personal response to the meaning of the text.

Tomlinson (2008:8) also lists some of the things which many ELT materials are currently doing which are likely to inhibit language acquisition and development.

- They are underestimating learners both in terms of language level and cognitive ability.
- In particular they are treating linguistically low level learners as intellectually low level learners.
- They are impoverishing the learning experience in a misguided attempt to make learning easier by simplifying their presentation of language.
- They are creating an illusion of language learning by using a Presentation/Practice/Production approach which simplifies language use and results in shallow processing.
- They are also creating an illusion of language learning by ensuring that most activities are easily accomplished as a result of involving little more than memorization, repetition of a script or simple substitution or transformation.
- They are confusing language learning and skills development by trying to teach language features during listening and reading activities.
- They are preventing learners from achieving affective engagement by presenting them with bland, safe, harmonious texts (Wajnryb 1996, in Tomlinson 2008: 5) and requiring them to participate in activities which don't stimulate them to think and feel.
- They are providing learners with far too much de-contextualized experience of language exemplification and not nearly enough experience of language in fully contextualized use.
- They are focusing on activities which require efferent listening or reading for detailed and literal comprehension and are providing very little opportunity for the sort of aesthetic listening and reading which stimulates the total engagement so useful for promoting both enjoyment of the language and acquisition of it (Rosenblatt 1978, in Tomlinson 2008 : 5).
- They are failing to help the learners to make full ties of the language experience available to them outside the classroom.
- They are focusing on uni-dimensional processing of language through activities requiring only the decoding and/or encoding of language rather than on multi-dimensional representation of language through activities involving the use of the full resources of the brain (Arnold 1999; Masuhara 2007; Tomlinson 2000c, 2001b , in Tomlinson 2008:5)

b. The role of Instructional Materials

Instructional materials play an important role in task based language instruction because it is depend on a sufficient supply of appropriate classroom tasks, some of which may require considerable time, ingenuity, and resources to develop (Richards & Rodgers, 2001:236). Materials that can be exploited for instruction in task based language teaching are limited only by the imagination of the task designer. Many contemporary language teaching texts cite a “task focus” or “task-based activities” among their credentials, though most of the tasks that appear in such books are familiar classroom activities for teachers who employ collaborative learning, Communicative Language Teaching, or small-group activities.

c. Considerations for Developing Materials

Graves (2000:156) describes a list of considerations for developing materials. Here are some of the considerations:

Learners

1. Make relevant to their experience and background
2. Make relevant to their target needs (outside the class)
3. Make relevant to their affective needs

Learning

4. Engage in discovery, problem solving, analysis
5. Develop specific skills and strategies

Language

6. Target relevant aspects (grammar, functions, vocabulary, etc)
7. Integrate four skills of speaking, listening, reading and writing
8. Use /understand authentic texts.

Social context

9. Provide intercultural focus
10. Develop critical social awareness

Activity/task types

11. Aim for authentic tasks
12. Vary roles and groupings
13. Vary activities and purposes

Materials

14. Authentic (texts, realia)
15. Varied (print, visuals, audio, etc)

5. Developing Unit of Materials

a. Task grading and sequencing

Grading has been described in the following way:

“The arrangement of the content of a language course or textbook so that it is presented in a helpful way. Gradation would affect the order in which words, word meanings, tenses, structures, topics, functions, skills, etc. are presented. Gradation may be based on the complexity of an item, its frequency in written or spoken English, or its importance for the learner.” (Richards, Platt and Weber 1986:125, in Nunan 2004:113)

Nunan (2004:114) considers the factors in task grading and sequencing in relation to the key components of input, the learner and procedures.

The terms ‘continuity’, ‘dependency’ and ‘chaining’ all refer to the same thing: the interdependence of tasks, task components and supporting enabling skills within an instructional sequence (Nunan, 2004:125). It then needs developing instructional sequences around tasks. Therefore, it creates a linked

sequence of enabling exercises and activities that will prepare learners to carry out the task. Table 2.2 summarizes six-step procedure to create a linked pedagogical sequence for introducing tasks as proposed by Nunan (2004:31-35).

Table 2: A Pedagogical Sequence for Introducing Tasks

Step 1	Example
Create a number of schema- building tasks that introduce initial vocabulary, language and context for the task.	Look at newspaper advertisements for renting accommodation. Identify key words (some written as abbreviations), and match people with accommodation.
Step 2	Example
Give learners controlled practice in the target language vocabulary, structures and functions.	Listen to a model conversation between two people discussing accommodation options and practise the conversation. Practise again using the same conversation model but information from the advertisements in step 1. In the final practise, try to move away from following the conversation model word for word.
Step 3	Example
Give learners authentic listening practice	Listen to several native speakers inquiring about accommodation and match the conversations with newspaper ads.
Step 4	Example
Focus learners on linguistic elements, e.g. grammar and vocabulary.	Listen again to conversations and note intonation contours. Use cue words to write complete questions and answers involving comparatives and superlatives (cheaper, closer, most spacious, etc.).
Step 5	Example
Provide freer practice.	Pair work: information gap role play. Student A plays the part of a potential tenant. Make a note

	of needs and then call rental agent. Student B plays the part of a rental agent. Use ads to offer partner suitable accommodation.
Step 6	Example
Pedagogical task	Group work discussion and decision making task. Look at a set of advertisements and decide on the most suitable place to rent.

Nunan describes the steps as follows:

Step 1: Schema building

The first step is to develop a number of schema-building exercises that will serve to introduce the topic, set the context for the task, and introduce some of the key vocabulary and expressions that the students will need in order to complete the task.

Step 2: Controlled practice

The next step is to provide students with controlled practice in using the target language vocabulary, structures and functions. Oneway of doing this would be to present learners with a brief conversation between two people discussing accommodation options relating to one of the advertisements that they studied in step 1. The lesson might be indistinguishable from a more traditional audio lingual or situational lesson. The difference is, however, that the learners have been introduced to the language within a communicative context. In the final part of the step, they are also beginning to develop a degree of communicative flexibility.

Step 3: Authentic listening practice

The next step involves learners in intensive listening practice. The listening texts could involve a number of native speakers inquiring about accommodation

options, and the task for the learner would be to match the conversations with the advertisements from step 1. This step would expose them to authentic or simulated conversation, which could incorporate but extend the language from the model conversation in step 2.

Step 4: Focus on linguistic elements

The students now get to take part in a sequence of exercises in which the focus is on one or more linguistic elements. They might listen again to the conversations from step 3 and note the intonation contours for different question types. They could then use cue words to write questions and answers involving comparatives and superlatives: ‘The two-bedroom apartment is cheaper than the three-bedroom apartment’, ‘Which house is closer to public transport?’, ‘This flat is the most spacious’, etc.

Step 5: Provide free practice

Students have been involved in ‘reproductive’ language work; in other words, they have been working within the constraints of language models provided by the teacher and the materials. At this point, it is time for the students to engage in freer practice, where they move beyond simple manipulation.

Step 6: Introduce the pedagogical task

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

b. Psycholinguistic Processing Approach

Nunan (2004:125) states that psycholinguistic processing approach sequences tasks according to the cognitive and performance demands made upon the learners. He clasifies the steps in a possible instructional sequence that require learners to undertake activities which become increasingly demanding, moving from comprehension-based procedures to controlled production activities and exercises and finally to one requiring authentic communicative interactive. Table 3 presents the steps sequence of the approach.

Table 3: Ten-Step Sequence of “Psycholinguistic processing” Approach (Nunan:2004)

Phases	Steps whithin phase
A.Processing (comprehension)	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Read or study a text – no other response required. 2. Read or listen to a text and give a non-verbal, physical response (e.g. learner raises hand every time key words are heard). 3. Read or listen to a text and give a non-physical, non-verbal response (e.g. check-off a box or grid every time key words are heard). 4. Read or listen to a text and give a verbal response (e.g. write down key words every time they are heard).
B. Productive	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 5. Listen to cue utterances or dialogue fragments and repeat them, or repeat a complete version of the cue. 6. Listen to a cue and complete a substitution or transformation drill. 7. Listen to a cue (e.g. a question) and give a meaningful response (i.e. one that is true for the learner).
C. Interactive	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 8. Role play (e.g. having listened to a conversation in which people talk about their family, students, working from role cards, circulate and find other members of their family).

	<p>9. Simulation/discussion (e.g. students in small groups share information about their own families).</p> <p>10. Problem-solving / information gap (e.g. in an information gap task, students are split into three groups; each group listens to an incomplete description of a family; students recombine and have to complete a family tree, identify which picture from a number of alternatives represents the family, etc.).</p>
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In this ten-step sequence, the demands on the learner gradually increase, both within each phase, and from one phase to the next. The sequence provides yet another illustration of task-chaining or continuity, in that skills acquired and practised in one step are extended in succeeding steps.

6. Unit Design

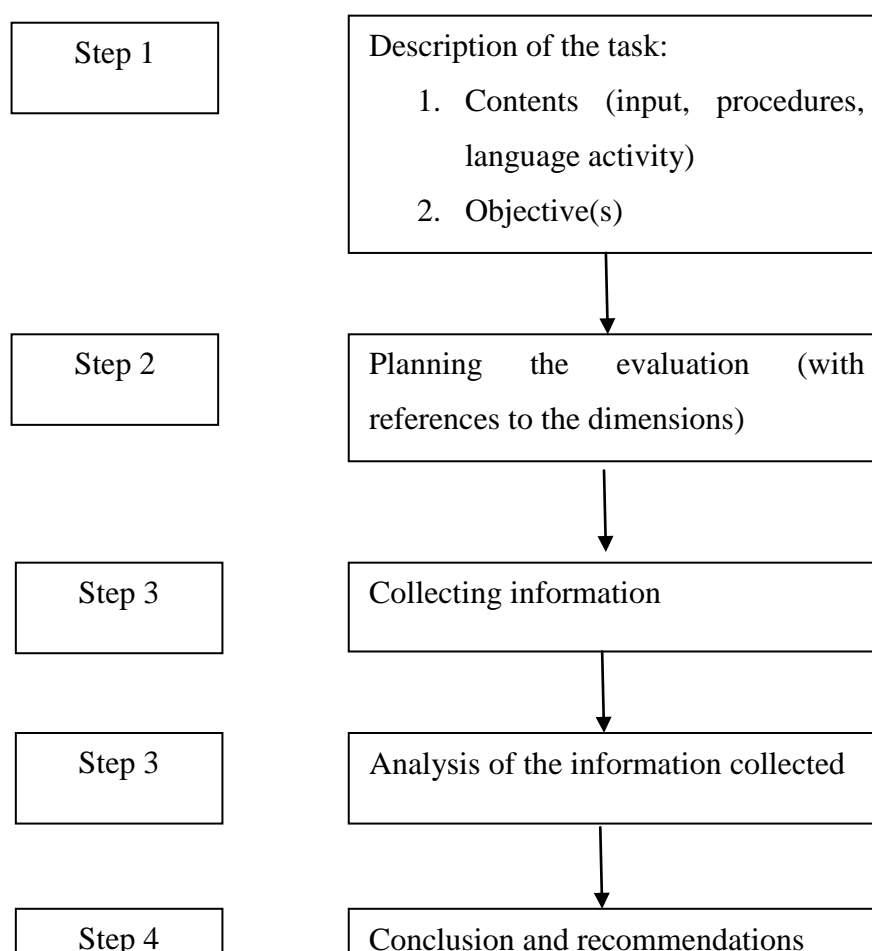
Stevens (1977 in Richards, 2001:33) points out that the content of ESP courses are determined by the restriction of 'basic skills' which are required by the learner's purposes; the selection of vocabulary, patterns of grammar, functions of language which are required by the learner's purposes; the inclusion of themes and topics which are required by the learner's purposes; and communicative needs which are required by the learner's purposes.

Materials consist of a number of units. One unit consists of a group lesson which is planned around a single instructional focus and provides a structured sequence of tasks and activities that lead toward a learning outcome. One unit also normally has a number of tasks and activities.

7. Materials Evaluation

To know whether the materials design meet the learners' needs, or in other words, are suitable for them, an evaluation is needed in the end of the design. The following steps are used to ensure that the evaluation is systemic and principled (Thomlinsons, 1998:227-231).

Figure 2: **The Steps in Conducting an Evaluation of a Task**



8. English for Culinary Study Programme Students of SMK

a. The position of English in Culinary Study Programme

According to the curriculum structure in the Vocational School of Culinary Study Programme, English belongs to adaptive subjects, together with *Matematika, IPA, IPS, Komputer, and Kewirausahaan*. The allocation time of the subjects is adapted to the needs of the skill program and can be done in other alternative times.

The goal in teaching English in this department as stated in chapter 1, is to provide the abilities for students in written and oral English communication that are needed for their skills. While the data that serve the input of a task in Culinary Department can be verbal language either spoken (e.g. lectures) or written (e.g. newspaper extracts), or non-verbal such as objects, pictures and real objects, or the combinations of all of those that are related to culinary.

b. The objective of English in Culinary Study Programme of SMK

Based on Standard of Content, the objective of English teaching in the vocational schools is to practice the students' skills to communicate with others at the intermediate level. It also enables the students to master knowledge and basic skills in supporting students' skill competences.

B. Conceptual Framework

Designing materials must be based on some related literatures and the learners' needs. The nature of learning materials, the method that is used in the English teaching, the consideration in designing the materials and the elements that will be applied into the designed materials are some aspects that influence the designing of a set of materials.

Learning material is the kind of materials used by teachers or instructors in helping them do the teaching and learning process in the class. The learning materials can be in the form of written (i.e handout, book, student worksheet, module, brochure and leaflet) , audio (i.e radio, cassette, audio compact disc) , visual (i.e picture and model) , audio – visual (i.e video, film, video compact disc) and multimedia (i.e interactive compact disc, computer based, internet).

After graduating from the school, the students of the Vocational School will face the business field related to their study. It means that what they learn in class will be related to things they will ultimately need to do outside of the classroom (the business field). Therefore, Task-based Language Instruction (TBLI) is the method that is needed in the teaching and learning process. In Task Based Language Teaching, language lessons are based on learning experiences that have non-linguistic outcomes, and in which there is a clear connection between the things learners do in class and the things they will ultimately need to do outside of the classroom. He summarizes that the underlying principles that were drawn on in developing the instructional sequence are scaffolding, task dependency, recycling, active learning, integration, reproduction to creation, and reflection.

In designing a set of English learning materials, the researcher used the principles of task task grading and sequencing proposed by Nunan. They are schema-building, controlled practice, authentic listening practice, focusing on linguistic elements, provide free practice and introduce pedagogical task. In designing materials, the researcher also considered the six component of the tasks, i.e. goals, input, procedures, teacher role, learner role, and setting.

This study is conducted to: 1) find out the needs of the eleventh grade students of Culinary Study Programme, 2) develop the effective learning materials for the eleventh grade students of Culinary Study Programme in the first semester.