A. The Curriculum of Vocational High School

1. The School-Based Curriculum in Vocational High School

Curriculum is an element that brings the important roles in teaching and learning process. Brown (2000:171) says that a curriculum is a design for carrying out a particular languages programme. While Feez and Joyce (1998:9) define a curriculum as a general statement of goals and outcomes, learning arrangements, evaluations and documentations related to the management of programme within an educational institution. Therefore, the curriculum of English in Vocational High School is an important aspect to be considered. Although the materials for students of ceramics skill programme should refer to their background study, the framework must follow the general statement of goals and outcomes, learning arrangements, evaluations and documentations of Indonesian curriculum which is regulated by the government.

Curriculum is defined as an optional way which is developed and implemented in each school in Indonesia. The School-based curriculum is developed based on the relevancies in each school under the coordination and supervision of the Ministry of National Education. Each school has different implementation about curriculum as well as the subject matter. English is one of the subjects that should be taught in Vocational high Schools.
2. **English for Vocational High School**


   The ministerial decree No.22, 2006 states that English is an Adaptive subject which aims to give learners the ability to communicate in English in materials communication context needed for their skill programme both in oral or written form. Besides, English gives them the ability to communicate in the daily live as the global demand and gives them the opportunity to develop communication on higher level. The primary goal of English teaching for Vocational High School Students is equipping them with basic knowledge and skills of English to support the students in achieving the skill programme competence and applying their ability and skill of English to communicate both in spoken or written communication in the intermediate level.

   BSNP (2006) mentions that there are three levels of English proficiency in Vocational High School namely novice level, elementary level, and intermediate level. On each level, there is one Standard of Competence
and Basic Competencies to be used in developing the core material and teaching and learning activities.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Standard of Competence</th>
<th>Basic Competence</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| 1. Communicating in English on *Novice Level* | 1.1 Comprehending basic expressions for the daily social interaction  
1.2 Mentioning the name of things, persons, characteristics, time, days, months, and year  
1.3 Describing the name of things, persons, characteristics, time, days, months, and year  
1.4 Producing simple conversation for the basic function  
1.5 Explaining the continuous activity  
1.6 Comprehending simple memo and menu, schedule of public transportation, and traffic signs  
1.7 Comprehending foreign words and terms and also simple words in correct order  
1.8 Writing simple invitation |

| 2. Communicating in English on *Elementary Level* | 2.1 Comprehending simple daily conversation in the professional and individual context with non-native speaker  
2.2 Making short note or simple messages in the direct interaction and using device  
2.3 Specifying jobs and educational background in written and spoken form  
2.4 Talking about past event and future plan  
2.5 Expressing various feelings  
2.6 Comprehending simple instructions  
2.7 Making short messages, directions and list by appropriate dictions, spelling and punctuation |

(continued)
(continued)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Standard of Competence</th>
<th>Basic Competence</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>3. communicating in English on <em>Intermediate level</em></td>
<td>3.1 Comprehending monologue in a certain situation of job</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3.2 Comprehending limited conversation with native speaker</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3.3 Presenting report</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3.4 Comprehending manual instruction</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3.5 Comprehending simple business letter</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3.6 Comprehending technical documents</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3.7 Writing simple business letter and report</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Table 2.1 The Standard of Competence and Basic Competencies*

It means that the primary goal of teaching English for Vocational High School students is to enable them to communicate in English fluently and accurately in the context which is suitable with their skill programme and in daily communication. The goal of teaching English for Vocational High School students is different from the goal of teaching English for High School students. These situations make teaching English in Vocational High School as ESP (English for Specific Purposes).

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

1. **Definition of ESP**

The aim of learning English is to make students able to communicate in English. Communicative usage of English is communication in context. To meet the objective of learning English for Vocational High School students, English for specific purposes is needed. English for specific purposes is
English course for specific group of learners with specific situation and needs. Basturkmen (2010:17) said that ESP concerns in teaching language and communicative skill that specific group of language learners needs or will need to function effectively in their discipline of study, professions or workplaces. In line with Richards and Schmidt (2002:181) English for specific purpose is the role of English in a language course or programme of instruction in which the content and aims of the course are fixed by the specific needs of a particular group of learners. For examples, English for business, English for science, and in this research is English for grade XI students of ceramics craft skill programme. From the above statements, it can be concluded that ESP is an approach to language teaching which aims to meet the needs of a particular learner.

Beside, Dudley-Evans and St John (1998:3) state that the definition of ESP can be seen through two characteristics:

**a. Absolute characteristics**

1). ESP is designed to meet specific needs of the learner.

2). ESP makes use of the underlying methodology and activities of the disciplines it serves.

3). ESP is centred on the language (grammar, lexis, and register), skills, discourse and genres that are appropriate to activities.
b. Variable characteristics

1). ESP may be related or designed for specific disciplines.

2). ESP may use, in specific teaching situations, a different methodology from that of general English.

3). ESP is likely to be designed for adult learners, either at a tertiary level institution or in a professional work situation; it could be used for learners at secondary school level.

4). ESP is generally designed for intermediate or advanced learners, and

5). Most ESP courses assume basic knowledge of the language system, but it can be used with beginners.

In contrast to students learning English for general purposes, learning the language in order to pass a general examination is the primary goal, the goal of ESP students is usually studying English in order to carry out a particular role. (Richards, 2001:28). In brief, ESP is the combination of subject matter and English language teaching, in order to make students able to apply what they learn in their English classes to their main field of study. ESP is an approach concentrate more on language in context than on teaching grammar and language structures. It integrates English into a subject matter area important to the learners. In other words, ESP is enabling students to use English that they learn in a meaningful context.

It is not easy to achieve the goals of teaching English for specific purposes, because the goals of ESP are different from general English. To achieve the goals of ESP, it should be considered to the definition of ESP and
the characteristic of ESP. ESP is teaching English for specific group of learners with specific needs of English. As the characteristic of ESP, ESP is designed to meet the needs of the learners in specific teaching activities with different methodology from general English. Beside the definition and characteristics of ESP, teacher role and learner role in ESP are important aspects to be considered.

2. The Role of ESP Teacher

ESP teaching is different from General English teaching. In relation to the ESP teaching, ESP teachers have different roles from General English teachers. Dudley-Evans and St John (1998:13-16) proposed five key roles of ESP teacher.

a). The ESP teacher as teacher

The main focus as teacher is helping students to learn. It means that the teacher is not in the position of being the “primary knower” of the carrier content of the materials. In this situation ESP teacher has the opportunity to draw on students’ knowledge of the content in order to generate genuine communication in the classroom.

b). The ESP teacher as a researcher

Before designing course or writing materials, ESP teachers should conduct a research named needs analysis. They also need to observe the situation in which students use the identified skills and analyze the discourse of the texts that students use.
c). The ESP teacher as a course designer and a materials provider

ESP teachers often have to plan the course they teach and provide materials for it. It is rarely possible to use published materials or textbooks. The role of ESP teachers as providers of material thus involves choosing suitable published materials, adapting materials when published materials are not suitable or even writing materials.

d). The ESP teacher as a collaborator

ESP teacher collaborates with subject experts as team-teaching in order to get more understanding on subject matter.

e). ESP teacher as an evaluator

The ESP teacher is often involved in various types of evaluation, including the testing of students and the evaluation of courses and teaching materials. Evaluation course design and teaching materials should be done while the course is being taught, at the end of the course and after the course has finished. The ESP teacher also needs to be able to device achievement test to assess how much learners have gained from a course.

3. **Vocational High School Students as ESP Learners**

Vocational High School students are learners of ESP for they have to apply the English knowledge and basic skills needed for their skill programme’s competence achievement in their learning and real-world context. The language used, hence, is not the general one for it conveys the specific terms and context in a specific programme, in this case, ceramics skill programme.
English in Vocational High School is an adaptive course which aims at equipping learners the English communication skills in materials context needed for their skill programme both in oral or written communication. For that reason, English cannot be taught as a general course. Teaching English for Vocational High School students should be based on the learners’ skill programmes. On the contrary, English in Vocational High School is taught as the general one which covers the general context. It means that the learners are not yet equipped with the English communication skills needed for their programme.

The aim of learning English in the Grade X of Vocational High School is to communicate in English at Novice Level (BSNP 2006). At Novice Level, they have to master the basic skill used in the communication and apply them in their learning context. They have the terms used in their learning context and apply them in the real-world context. The recent English teaching in the Vocational High School does not lead to the application.

In short, an ESP teacher should be able to help students to learn, to conduct research to find the needs of the learners, to develop materials that meets the student’s needs, to work together with expert to get more understanding and evaluate the whole aspects in the teaching and learning process. Characteristics, goals, and aspects are the terms that can support the success of teaching English for specific purposes. One more important term in ESP that plays crucial role in it is needs analysis.
C. Needs Analysis

An important principle of ESP approach is the purposes of the learners in learning the language. An ESP approach starts with an analysis of the learner’s needs. Needs analysis is a systematic way of gathering information about learner’s needs, interpreting the information and then making course decision based on the interpretation in order to meet the needs. As Richards and Schmidt (2002: 352) state, a needs analysis is the process of determining the needs for which learners require a language and make priority scale of need. The process is normally required before a syllabus can be developed for language teaching.

The needs analysis is defined as the analysis of students’ needs of English in order to designed effective learning materials which are suitable for them. The effective learning materials, then, help the students to use the language in the vocational workplace. Basturkmen (2010:19) said needs analysis in ESP refers to a course process in which the language and skill that the learners will use in the vocational workplace are identified by considering the existing knowledge of the learners, their perception of their needs and the teaching context. The information gathered from the needs analysis is used in determining and refining the content and method of the ESP course. In ESP, learner’s needs are described in terms of what the learner will be able to do with the language at the end of the study. (Richards, 2001:33). Hutchinson and Waters (1987: 55-63) classify the needs into the target needs and the learning needs. They will be discussed below.
1. Target needs

The target needs refer to what the learners need to do in the target situation. The target needs include necessities, lacks and wants.

a. Necessities

Necessities refer to what the learners have to know in order to function effectively in the target situation (Hutchinson and Waters, 1987: 55). This is a matter of observing what situation the learners will need to function in.

b. Lacks

According to Hutchinson and Waters (1987: 55-56), the learners’ lack is the gap between the target proficiency and the existing proficiency of the learners. It means that, what the learners know already should be recognized to decide which of the necessities the learners’ lack. It is illustrated as a gap between the ideal situation or target situation with the real conditions.

c. Wants

The learners may have a clear idea of the necessities of the target situation and their lacks. They also have a view to what they want or they need. The learners’ motivation is important in the learning process, so learners’ perceived wants cannot be ignored (Hutchinson and Waters, 1987: 57). Wants related to learners’ desires. They are realized that they need English to support their career.
2. **Learning needs**

Learning needs refer to what the learners need to do in order to learn. According to Hutchinson and Waters (1987: 60-62), learning needs indicates the route: how the learners are going to get from their starting point (lacks) to the destination (necessities). To have useful analysis of learners needs, the needs, potential and constraints of the route must be considered. In addition, the learners must choose their route according to the conditions of the learning situations, their knowledge, skills and strategies, and their motivation.

Dudley-Evans and St John (1998:125) offer a ‘current concept of needs analysis:

a. Professional information about the learners: The tasks and activities learners are/will using English for – *target situation analysis* and *objective needs*.

b. Personal information about the learners: Factors which may affect the way they learn such as previous learning experiences, cultural information, reasons for attending the course and expectations of it, attitude to English – *wants, means and subjective needs*.

c. English language information about the learners: What their current skills and language use are – *present situation analysis* – which allows us to assess (d).

d. The learners’ lacks: The gap between (c) and (a) – *lacks*.

e. Language learning information: Effective ways of learning the skills and language in (d) – *learning needs*.
f. Professional communication information about (a): Knowledge of how language and skills are used in the target situation – *linguistic analysis, discourse analysis, genre analysis*.

g. What is wanted from the course.

h. Information about how the course will be run – *means analysis*.

Basturkmen (2010:19) proposes the process of needs analysis:

a. Target situation analysis: identification of tasks, activities and skill learners are/will be using English for; what the learners should ideally know and be able to do.

b. Discourse analysis: Descriptions of the language used in the above.

c. Present situation analysis: Identification of what the learners do and do not know and can or cannot do in relation to the demands of the target situation.

d. Learner factor analysis: Identification of learner factors such as their motivation, how they learn and their perceptions of their needs.

e. Teaching context analysis: Identification of factors related to the environment in which the course will run. Consideration of what realistically the ESP course and teacher can offer.

A needs analysis is a pre-course design process in which information is gathered to help the teacher or course developer decide what the course should focus on, what content in terms of language or skills to include and what teaching/learning methods to employ. The needs analysis also plays a role in refining the ESP course.
Based on the above definitions of ESP and needs analysis, teaching English for Specific purposes, in this case is for students of Vocational High School, to meet the needs of the learners become the primary goal of teaching English. To achieve the goal of teaching English in the Vocational High School, the appropriate approach in language teaching is highly needed. The most appropriate approach to teach English for Vocational High School students is Communicative Language Teaching.

D. Communicative Language Teaching

1. Definition

Communicative language teaching means little more than an integration of grammatical and functional teaching. Communicative language teaching is a theory of language teaching that starts from a communicative model of language and language use, and that seeks to translate this into a design for an instructional system, for materials, for teacher and learner roles and behaviours, and for classroom activities and techniques (Richards and Rodgers, 2001:158).

Communicative language teaching is more than teaching English in terms of grammar and function. Communicative language teaching is teaching English communicatively which is reflected in the materials, activities and techniques. Richards and Rodgers (2001:158) said that communicative language teaching was an analysis of the communicative meaning that a language learner needs to understand and express rather than describes the core of language through traditional concepts of grammar and
vocabulary. In other words, communicative language teaching is the need to focus on language teaching on communicative proficiency rather than on mastery of structures.

2. Goals

Communicative language teaching sets as its goal the teaching of communicative competence. Richards (2006:3) proposes four aspects of language knowledge in communicative competence: 1). Knowing how to use language for a range of different purposes and functions. 2). Knowing how to vary the use of language according to the setting and the participants (e.g., knowing when to use formal and informal speech or when to use language appropriately for written as opposed to spoken communication). 3). Knowing how to produce and understand different types of texts (e.g., narratives, reports, interviews, conversations). 4). Knowing how to maintain communication despite having limitations in one’s language knowledge (e.g., through using different kinds of communication strategies).

Richards and Rodgers (2001:155) say that the aims of communicative language teaching are make communicative competence the goal of language teaching and develop procedures for the teaching of language and communication. Communicative language teaching, aims to apply the theoretical perspective of the communicative approach by making communicative competence the goal of language teaching and by acknowledging the interdependence of the language and communication. (Larsen-Freeman, 2000:120). The goal of communicative language teaching
is to enable students to communicate in target language. To do this, students need knowledge of the linguistics forms, meanings, and functions. They need to know that many different forms can be used to perform a function and also that a single form can be used to perform a variety of functions. They must be able to manage the process of negotiating meaning, because communication is a process; knowledge of the forms of language is insufficient.

3. Language view

According to Larsen-Freeman (2000:130), language is for communication. Linguistic competence, the knowledge of forms and their meanings, is just one part of communicative competence. Another aspect of communicative competence is knowledge of the functions language is used for. Learners need knowledge of forms and meanings and functions. Language functions might be emphasized over forms. A variety of forms are introduced for each function. Only the simplest forms would be presented at first, but as students get more proficient in the target language, the functions are reintroduced and more complex forms are learned. Students work with language at discourse level. They learn about cohesion and coherence and students work on all four skills from the beginning. However, they must also use this knowledge and consider to the social situation in order to convey their intended meaning appropriately.
4. Learning Theory

Related to the learning theory of CLT, there are three learning theories delivered by some experts. The first learning theory came from, Richards and Rodgers (2001:161) propose three elements underlying in learning theory of Communicative Language Teaching, and they are Communication Principle, Tasks Principle, and Meaningfulness Principle. Communication principle refers to activities that involve real communication promote learning. The tasks principle is activities in which language is used for carrying out meaningful tasks promote learning. Meaningfulness principle defines as language that is meaningful to the learner supports the learning process. Learning activities are selected according to how well they engage the learner in meaningful and authentic language use rather than mechanical practice of language patterns.

The second learning theory is Second Language Acquisition. Second language acquisition is the process of acquiring a second language. Richards and Schmidt (2002:284) say that acquisition refers to an unconscious process of rule internalization resulting from exposure to comprehensible input when the learners’ attention is on meaning rather than forms. It can be concluded that second language acquisition is unconscious development of second language system as a result of using the language for real communication. Unconscious development is the process of language learning through using language communicatively.
The third learning theory is a skill-learning model proposed by Johnson (1984) and Littlewood (1984) in Richards and Rodgers (2001:162). According to this theory, acquisition of communicative competence in a language is an example of skill development. This involves both cognitive and behavioural aspects: cognitive aspect involves the internalization of plans for creating appropriate behaviour for language use; they include grammatical rules, procedures for selecting vocabulary, and social convention in governing speech. The behavioural aspect involves the automation of these plans so that they can be converted into fluent performance in real time.

Based on the above learning theories of Communicative Language Teaching, the theory which is match with the theory of communicative language teaching is the second language acquisition theory. In the second language acquisition theory, states that the learners attention is on meaning rather than forms. The theory is closely related to the definition of CLT, that is, communicative language teaching is the need to focus on language teaching on communicative proficiency than on mastery of structure.

5. Typical Tasks

Richards and Rodgers (2001:165) say that the range of exercise types and activities compatible with a communicative approach is unlimited, provided that such exercises enable learners to attain the communicative objectives of the curriculum, engage learners in communication, and require the use of such communicative processes as information sharing, negotiation of meaning and interaction. Classroom activities are often designed to focus
on completing tasks that are mediated through language or involve negotiation of information and information sharing. For example, provides incomplete plans and diagrams which students have to complete by asking for information.

According to Larsen-Freeman (2000: 129-130), the most obvious characteristic of CLT is that almost everything is done with a communicative intent. Learners use the language through communicative activities such as games, role plays, and problem-solving tasks. Another characteristic is the use of authentic materials to give learners an opportunity to develop strategies for understanding language as it is actually used. Activities in CLT are often carried out by students in small groups. Small numbers of students interacting are favoured in order to maximize the time allotted to each student for communicating.

Littlewood (1981) in Richards and Rodgers (2001:166) distinguishes between Functional Communication activities and Social Interaction activities as major activity types in CLT. Functional Communication activities such as learner comparing sets of pictures and noting similarities and differences; working out a likely sequence of events in a set of pictures; discovering missing features in amp or picture; one learner communicating behind a screen to another learner and giving instruction on how to draw a picture or shape, or how to complete a map; following directions; and solving problems from shared clues. Social Interaction
activities include conversation and discussion sessions, dialogues and role plays, simulation, improvisation and debates.

Richards (2006:19) proposes other activity types in CLT:

a. **Information-gathering activities**: students-conducted surveys, interviews, and searches in which students are required to use their linguistic resources to collect information.

b. **Task-completion activities**: puzzles, games, map-reading, and other kinds of classroom tasks in which the focus is on using one’s language resources to complete a task.

c. **Information-transfer activities**: these require learners to take information that is presented in one form, and presented in different form. For example, they may read instructions on how to get from A to B, and then draw a map showing the sequence, or they may read information about a subject and then represent it as a graph.

d. **Opinion-sharing activities**: activities in which students compare values, opinions, or beliefs, such as a ranking task in which students list six qualities in order of importance that they might consider in choosing a date or spouse.

e. **Reasoning-gap activities**: these involve deriving some new information from given information through the process of inference, practical reasoning, etc. For example, working out a teacher’s timetable on the basis of given class timetables.
Looking at the theories related to the communicative language teaching, it is clear that the effective learning materials which are closely related to the characteristics and the goal of communicative language teaching are highly needed. As we know that approach is concerned with the selection and sequencing of tasks, exercises, and related classroom activities or learning materials as whole.

E. Learning Materials

1. Definition of Learning Materials

Most of people consider that the term of ‘language-learning materials’ are course book. However, the language-learning materials are more than it. Materials are a set of product used in language teaching and learning. Materials can be in the form of newspapers, workbooks, photocopied exercises, etc. Materials refer to anything which is used by the teachers or learners to facilitate the learning of a language that is able to improve the students’ knowledge and experience of the language. (Tomlinson, 1998: 2).

Materials are an important element within the curriculum and the most tangible and visible aspect of it (Nunan, 1991: 208). This is in line with Richards’ (2001: 251) statement that instructional materials generally serve as the basis for much of the language input that learners receive and the language practice that occurs in the classroom. In short, materials are everything used by teacher or learners in the teaching and learning process that give students’ opportunities to practice the language and improve their language knowledge.
2. The Role of Materials

Materials are used in all teaching to support the success of learning process. Not only materials used by teacher but also audio and video cassettes, overhead transparencies, computer and other equipment or real objects. It means that materials play important role in teaching learning process, especially English teaching. There are four important roles of materials in the ESP context proposed by Dudley-Evans and St. John (1998:170-172):

a. Source of language
In some situations, where English is a foreign language, ESP classroom may be the only source of English. Materials then play a crucial role in exposing learners to the language; it means that materials need to present real language. Where the classroom is the primary source of language, the materials also need to maximize exposure to the language by providing additional materials.

b. Learning Support
As a learning support, materials need to be reliable, that is, to be consistent and have some recognizable patterns. To enhance learning, materials must involve learners in thinking about and using the language. The activities need to stimulate cognitive not mechanical process. The learners also need a sense of progression.

c. Stimulation and motivation
To stimulate and motivate, materials need to be challenging to offer new ideas and information, to encourage fun and creativity. The input must
contain concepts and knowledge that are familiar but it must also offer something new, a reason to communicate, to get involve.

d. Reference
For self-study or reference, materials need to be complete, well laid out and self-explanatory. The learners will want explanations, examples and practice activities that have answer and discussion keys.

3. Criteria of Effective Learning Materials

Hutchinson and Waters (1987: 107) explain that good materials will contain interesting texts, enjoyable activities that engage the learners’ thinking capacities, opportunities for learners to use their existing knowledge and skills, and content which both learners and teachers can cope with. They also state that good materials should provide a clear and coherent unit structure, which will guide teachers and learners through various activities in such a way as to maximize the chance of learning.


a. They should correspond to learners’ needs. They should match the aims and objectives of the language learning programme.

b. They should reflect the uses (present or future) that learners will make of the language. Textbooks should be chosen that will help equip learners to use language effectively for their own purposes.
c. They should take account of students’ needs as learners and should facilitate their learning processes, without dogmatically imposing a rigid ‘method’.

d. They should have a clear role as a support for learning. Like teachers, they mediate between the target language and the learner.

Besides, Tomlinson (1998: 7-22) also state the criteria of good materials design, they are:

a. Materials should achieve impact.
b. Materials should help learners to feel at ease.
c. Materials should help learners to develop confidence.
d. Materials should require and facilitate learner self-investment.
e. Materials should provide the learners with opportunities to use the target language to achieve communicative purposes.
f. Materials should take into account that the positive effects of instruction are usually delayed.
g. Materials should take into account that learners differ in learning style.
h. Materials should take into account that learners differ in affective attitudes.
i. Materials should permit a silent period at beginning of instruction.
jj. Materials should maximize learning potential by encouraging intellectual, aesthetic and emotional involvement which stimulates both right and left brain activities.
k. Materials should not rely too much on controlled practice.
l. Materials should provide opportunities for outcome feedback.
In short, effective learning materials should meet the needs of the learners, help students to develop their confidence, equip the learners to use the language effectively, facilitate learners in learning process and give learners opportunities to use the language. In developing effective learning materials, there are many aspects that should be considered, such as criteria of effective learning materials and characteristics of effective learning materials. Besides that, the most important aspect in developing effective learning materials is tasks.

4. The Model of Designing Tasks (Nunan’s Model)

a. Definition of Task

Materials should be designed to lead a communicative task in which learners use the content and language knowledge they have. A task becomes a primary focus in a unit. Richards and Schmidt (2002:539) said task is an activity which is designed to help achieve a particular learning goal. It can be defined as an activity or action that is carried out as the result of processing or understanding language. In line with Breen (1987) in Nunan (2004:3) tasks refer to a range of work plans which have particular objective, appropriate content, a special working procedure, and facilitate language learning from the simple and brief exercise type to more complex activities. Beside, Nunan (2004:4) task is a piece of classroom work that involves learners in comprehending, manipulating, producing, or interacting in the target language while their attention is focused on mobilizing their grammatical
knowledge in order to express meaning, and in which the intention is convey meaning rather than to manipulate form.

**b. Components of Tasks**

According to Nunan (2004:41-56), the task will be analyzed based on task components i.e. goals, input data, procedures, settings and roles.

![Diagram](image)

*Figure 2.2 diagram of tasks simple model by Nunan*

1). Goals

Goals are the vague general intention behind any given learning task. They provide a point of contact between the task and broader curriculum. They may relate to a set of general outcomes i.e. communicative, affective or cognitive or may directly describe teacher or learner behaviour.

2). Input

Input refers to the spoken, written and visual data that learners work with in the course of completion a task. It can be provided by a teacher, a textbook or some other source such as newspaper, memo note, magazine, recipe, diary, etc. The input relates to authenticity, in this context refers to the use of spoken and written material that has been produced purposes of language teaching. Given the richness and variety of these resources, it should
be possible for teachers to select authentic written texts that are appropriate to the needs, interests and proficiency levels of their learners.

3). Procedures

Procedures specify what learners will actually do with the input that forms the point of departure for the learning task. In considering criteria for task selection, some issues arise similar to those as encountered when considering input.

One of these is authenticity; it has just looked in relation to input data. Candlin and Edelhoff (1982) cited in Nunan (2004:53) pointed out that the authenticity involves much more than simply selecting texts from outside the area of language teaching, and that the processes brought to bear by learners on the data should also be authentic.

The other way of analyzing procedures is in terms of their focus or goal. They are basically concerned with skill getting or skill using. In skill getting, learners master phonological, lexical and grammatical forms through memorization and manipulation. In skill using, they apply these skills in communicative interaction.

The third way of analyzing learning procedures is focused on the learner in developing accuracy and fluency. Brumfit (1984) cited in Nunan (2004:56) state that accuracy and fluency are not opposites, but are complementary.
4). Teacher and 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 relationship between the participants. Richards and Rodgers (1986) cited in Nunan (2004:64) point out that a task will reflect assumptions about the contributions that learners can make to the learning process.

This last point raises the important issue of learners developing an awareness of learners themselves. There is growing evidence that an ability to identify one’s preferred learning style, and reflect on one’s own learning strategies and processes, makes one a better learner.

5). Settings

Setting refers to the classroom arrangements specified or implied in the task. It also requires consideration of whether the task is to be carried out wholly or partly outside the classroom. There are two different aspects of the learning situations. They are mode and environment. Learning mode refers to whether the learner is operating on an individual or a group basis.

Environment refers to where the learning actually takes place. It might be a conventional classroom in a school or language centre, a community class, a workplace setting, a self-access centre, or a multi-media language centre.

c. Tasks Sequencing

Nunan (2004:128) proposes procedural sequences within a task. He divides the sequence into three phases: a pre-task phase, a task-proper phase
and a follow-up phase. The pre-task phase has the similar function as schema-building task. It orients the learners to the task, generates interest, and rehearses essential language that will be required to complete the task. In the task-proper phase learners complete the task. In the follow-up phase they get debriefing from the teacher, report the results of the task back to the class as a whole, and may receive corrective feedback from the teacher.

Tasks sequencing refers to the interdependence of tasks, task component and supporting enabling skills within an instructional sequence. The approach to sequence tasks is psycholinguistic processing approach. This approach sequences tasks according to the cognitive and performance demands made upon the learner. The following steps in a possible instructional sequence require learner to undertake activities moving from comprehension-based procedures to controlled production activities and exercises, and finally to ones requiring authentic communicative interaction. (Nunan, 2004:125).

In the psycholinguistic processing approach Nunan (2004:126) proposes ten-step sequence as follow:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Phases</th>
<th>Steps within phase</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A. Processing (comprehension)</td>
<td>1. Read or study a text-no other response required.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2. Read or listen to a text and give a non-verbal, physical response</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(e.g. learner raises hand every time key words are heard).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3. Read or listen to a text and give a non-physical, non-verbal responses (e.g.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>check-off a box or grid every time key words are heard)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(continued)
(continued)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Phases</th>
<th>Steps within phase</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A. Processing (comprehension)</td>
<td>4. Read or listen to a text and give a verbal responses (e.g. write down key words every time they are heard)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B. Productive</td>
<td>5. Listen to cue utterances, or dialogue fragments and repeat them, or repeat a complete version of the cue.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>6. Listen to a cue and complete a sub situation or transformation drill.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>7. Listen to a cue (e.g. a question) and give a meaningful response (i.e. one that is true for the learner).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C. Interactive</td>
<td>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).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>9. Simulation/discussion (e.g. students in small groups share information about their own families).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>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 represent the family, etc).</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Table 2.3 the psycholinguistic processing approach by Nunan (2004)*
**d. Tasks Grading**

Grading refers to decisions on what to teach first, what second, and what the last in a course book. As Richards, Platt and Weber (1986) in Nunan (2004:113) state that grading is the arrangement of the content of a language course or textbook so that it is presented in a helpful way. Gradation may be based on the complexity of an item, its frequency in written or spoken English, or its importance for the learner.

1). Grading Input

The first thing to consider is the complexity of the input. Here, grammatical factors will be important. In addition to grammatical complexity, difficulty will be affected by the length of a text, propositional density, the amount of low-frequency vocabulary, the speed of spoken texts and the number of speakers involved, the explicitness of the information, and the discourse structure.

2). Learner Factors

Learner factors are all those that the learner brings to the task of processing and producing language such as background knowledge, interest, and motivation. In addition to background knowledge, interest, and motivation, learner factors will include confidence, prior learning experience, learning pace, observed ability in language skills, cultural knowledge or awareness and linguistics knowledge. The implication is there will be an interaction between the grammatical complexity of the input and the learners’ linguistic knowledge.
3). Procedural factors

The final set of factors to be considered is the procedural factors. Procedural factors refer to the operations that learners are required to perform on input data. To control the difficulty of the task is not by simplifying the input data but by varying the difficulty level of the procedures themselves.

e. Example of Good Tasks

I’m going to go to arts festival

Task 1
LEAD IN
Activities
• Go to the movies
• Visit an amusement park
• See a sports event
• Go to an arts or crafts festival
• Visit a historic park
• See a stage play
• Go to a live jazz performance
• Go to a classical music concert
1. Which of these activities have you done in the past year?
2. Which of these activities would you like to do?
3. What other activities do you like to do?

Task 2
CONVERSATION talking about plans
Listen and practice
Tony: Hi, Anna. What are you doing tonight? Would you like to go out?
Anna: Oh, sorry, I can’t. I’m going to work late tonight. I have to finish this ceramics.
Tony: Well, how about tomorrow night? Are you doing anything then?
Anna: No, I’m not. What are you planning to do?
Tony: I’m going to go to arts festival. Would you like to come?
Anna: Sure, I’d love too! But let me pay for the tickets this time. It’s my turn.
Tony: All right! Thanks!
Task 3

**GRAMMAR FOCUS**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Future with present continuous and be going to</th>
<th>With present continuous</th>
<th>With be going to + verb</th>
<th>Time expressions</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>With present continuous</td>
<td>With be going to + verb</td>
<td>Time expressions</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>What are you doing tonight?</td>
<td>What is she going to do tonight?</td>
<td>tonight</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I’m going to go to arts festival.</td>
<td>She’s going to work late.</td>
<td>tomorrow</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Are you doing anything tomorrow night?</td>
<td>Are they going to go to arts festival?</td>
<td>on Friday</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Task 4

Complete the invitation in column A with the present continuous used as future. Complete the responses in column B with be going to.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>A</th>
<th>B</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. What ... you ... (do) tomorrow? Would you like to go out?</td>
<td>a. Well, my father ... (visit) my brother at college. But my mother and I ... (be) home. We’d love to come!</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. ... you ... (do) anything on Saturday night? Do you want to go to arts festival?</td>
<td>b. Sorry, I can’t. I ... (work) overtime. How about Saturday?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. We ... (have) friends over for an exhibition on Sunday. Would you and your parents like to come?</td>
<td>c. Can we go to an art show? I ... (stay) in the gallery till 7:00. After that ... (go) to the gym.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Task 5

**ROLE PLAY an invitation**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>art show</th>
<th>comedy act</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>barbecue</td>
<td>craft fair</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>baseball game</td>
<td>picnic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>beach party</td>
<td>play</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>car show</td>
<td>tennis tournament</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Student A: Choose an activity in the box and invite a partner to go with you. Be ready to say where and when the activity is.

A: Hi, are you doing anything on ...? Would you like to ...?

Student B: your partner invites you out. Either accept the invitation and ask for more information, or say you can’t go and give an excuse.

Accept | Refuse

B: That sounds interesting. Where is it? B: oh. I’m sorry, but I can’t go. I’m .

*Adapted from: A unit of work based on the task/exercise typology. (Nunan, 2004:195)*
A task is a part that cannot be separated from materials. In other words, tasks become the important part to make unified materials. Unified materials can be seen in the sequencing of tasks in a unit. It will be discussed further in the unit design development.

F. Unit Design Development

A course book usually consists of a number of units; each unit has a number of tasks or activities. The decision should be made upon the unit design. These can be based on the writer’s beliefs, understanding and experience. They also depend on the goal and objectives, the way the course is conceptualized, the way the course is organized and sequenced, and the way the learner needs are understood (Grave, 2000:166). Grave (2000:156) also points out that developing materials should follow several considerations; the learners, learning process, language, social context, activity, tasks types, and the materials. The list of consideration for developing materials is stated below:

| Learners | 9. Make relevant to their experience and background |
|          | 10. Make relevant to their target needs outside class |
|          | 11. Make relevant to their affective needs |

| Learning | 12. Engage in discovery, problem solving, analyzing |
|          | 13. Develop specific skill and strategies |

| Language | 14. Target relevant aspect (grammar, functions, vocabulary, etc) |
|          | 15. Integrate four skill of speaking, listening, reading and writing |
|          | 16. Use/understanding authentic texts |
Learners should also be introduced to authentic tasks; that is, introducing them to the real-world context tasks and activities relevant for their field. The tasks which will be developed should allow learners to engage in discovery, problem solving, and an analysis and also develop their specific skills. In short, the tasks developed in the unit should contain the complete considerations at the very beginning of the development.

1. **Second Language Acquisition Theory (SLA Theory)**

   In deciding second language method and materials make use of second language acquisition is one of elements that should take into consideration. Second language acquisition defines as unconscious development of second language system as a result of using the language for real communication. Second language acquisition is the systematic study of how people acquire a second language. Second language acquisition can be defined as the way in which people learn a language other than mother tongue, inside or outside of the classroom (Ellis, 1997:3). In acquiring second language, there were some

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>Social context</strong></th>
<th>9. Provide intercultural focus</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>10. Develop critical awareness</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>Activity/Tasks Types</strong></th>
<th>11. Aim for authentic tasks</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>12. Vary roles and grouping</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>13. Vary activities and purposes</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>Materials</strong></th>
<th>14. Authentic (text, realia)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>15. Varied (print, visual, audio, etc)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Figure 2.4 list of consideration for developing materials*
stages involved. Ellis (1997:35) proposed the stages of the second language acquisition. The SLA model identifies four major stages that are involved in conversion of input to output: input, intake, L2 knowledge, and output.

![Figure 2.5 Model of Second Language Acquisition by Ellis (1997)](image)

The learner is exposed to input, which is processed in two stages. First, part of it are attended to and taken into short-term memory. These are referred to as intake. Second, some of the intake is stored in long-term memory as L2 knowledge. Finally, L2 knowledge is used by learner to produce spoken or written output.

a. Input

Input can be defined as the samples of language to which a learner is exposed. Input refers to language which learners hear or receive and from which they can learn (Richards and Schmidt, 2002:261). There are two different input, they are *apperceived input* and *comprehended input*. Apperceived input refers to the process of understanding by which newly information of language is related to the past experiences (Gass and Selinker, 2001:400).

There are some factors influencing the apperception, they are: affective, prior knowledge, and attention. Affective factors such as social distance, status, and motivation. These factors may play a significant role in the learner’s ability to get access to input but not necessarily in the learner’s
ability to notice something in the input. Prior knowledge is defined as knowledge of the native language, knowledge of other languages, existing knowledge of the second language, world knowledge, language universals, and so forth. All these play a role in a learner’s success or lack of success in interpreting language data. The last factor, attention, plays an important role in the individual’s ability to notice features in the input (Gass and Selinker, 2001:402).

Comprehended input is different from Krasen’s comprehensible input. Comprehensible input is controlled by the person providing input, generally a native speaker of the second language, whereas comprehended input is learner-controlled; that is, it is the learner who is not doing the ‘work’ to understand (Gass and Selinker, 2001:404)

b. Intake

Intake refers to the process of attempted integration of linguistic information. Thus, input that is only used in a conversation and for the sake of that conversation is not regarded as intake (Marysia, 2004:80-81). It is in line with Gass and Selinker (2001:405), they state that not all comprehended input becomes intake. For example, input may be comprehended only for the immediate purpose of a conversational interaction, or it may be used for purposes of learning.

c. L2 knowledge

L2 knowledge can be defined as different kinds of knowledge learners construct, for example, explicit knowledge about language and implicit
knowledge of language. (Ellis, 1997:75). Explicit knowledge about language refers to knowledge that is transmittable in formal systematic language. On the other hand, implicit knowledge of language refers to knowledge that people can be shown (by their behaviour, their judgments about grammaticality, and so forth), but which they are unable to articulate. For example, native speakers of English know the regularities of article use, but they are usually unable to say what those principles are. Foreign language learners of English, on the other hand, may have a lot of explicit knowledge about the rules for using English articles.

d. Output

According to Saville-Troike (2006:75) Output for SLA is the language that learners produce, in speech/sign or in writing. She also points out that output is important in second language acquisition. Meaningful production practice help learners by:

1). Enhancing fluency by furthering development of automaticity through practice

2). Noticing gaps in their own knowledge as they are forced to move from semantic to syntactic processing, which may led learners to give more attention to relevant information

3). Testing hypotheses based on developing interlanguage, allowing for monitoring and revision

4). Talking about language, including eliciting relevant input and (collaboratively) solving problem
2. Component of a Unit

A good unit should have components that serve in sequence. In developing units of work (Nunan, 2004:31) proposed a six-step procedure 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 expression that the students will need in order to complete the task.

Step 2: Controlled practice

The next step id to provide students with controlled practice in using the target language vocabulary, structures and functions. In this step, the students would get to see, hear and practice the target language for the unit work. The type of the controlled practice extends the scaffold learning that was initiated in step 1.

Step 3: Authentic listening practice

This steps involves learners in intensive listening practice. It would expose them to the authheentic or simulated conversation.

Step 4: Focus on linguistics elements

In this step, the students get to take part in a sequence of exercises in which the focus is on one or more linguistics elements. Before analyzing elements of the linguistics system, they have seen, heard and spoken the target language within context. Hopefully, it will make easier for the learners to see
the relationship between the communicative meaning and linguistic form than when linguistic elements are isolated and presented out of context.

Step 5: Provide freer practice

So far, 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. For example, working in pairs they could take part in an information gap role play. This will result in discourse that begins to draw closer to the discourse of normal conversation.

Step 6: Introducing the pedagogical task

The final step in developing units of work is the introduction of the pedagogical task. Pedagogical task defines as a piece of classroom work that involves learners in comprehending, manipulating, producing or interacting the target language while their attention is focus on mobilizing their grammatical knowledge in order to express meaning, and in which the attention is to convey meaning rather than to manipulate form. The task should also have a sense of completeness, being able to stand as a communicative act in its own right with a beginning, a middle, and an end.

It can be conclude that the consideration of developing units of work is a six-step element. It consist of schema-building exercise that introduce students to the topic, controlled exercises that scaffold learners, then, students will hear authentic conversation in authentic listening activity, analyzing
elements of linguistics system in focus in linguistics elements, manipulate language so that the students begin to draw closer to the discourse of normal conversation, and pedagogical task that introduce learners to the communicative act in the real world.

3. Unit Design

As stated before that a unit consists of a number of tasks or activities which are based on the writer’s beliefs, understanding and experience. The components of a unit that will be developed in this research are ordered as follows:

a. Title/topic: the appropriate title or topic based on the materials discussed

b. Objective of a unit/ learning outcomes: telling the purpose of the unit and the reason of learning the unit to the students implicitly

c. Lead-in: introducing the topic and the language that is related to the focus of the unit i.e. macro-skills (listening, speaking, reading, and writing) and micro-skills (vocab, grammar, pronunciation, etc).

d. Lesson proper: there are many tasks in lesson proper. One task will be related to the other tasks, called task dependency. The question of the tasks will be related to what the students have to learn in the unit. The repetition language will be presented in the unit. The unit will begin from spoken skills followed by written skills. The unit will facilitate students in learning grammar, vocabulary, language function, and pronunciation.
e. Fun Space

A part in which attracts the students, but it is still related to the materials. It can be proverbs, jokes, or riddles.

f. Evaluation

Consist of questions that aims to evaluate the students comprehension in each unit.

g. Word Bank

It presents the vocabulary lists which are taken from the content of unit.

**G. Conceptual Framework**

Designing effective learning materials is the main focus of this study. Materials refer to anything which is used by the teachers or learners to facilitate the learning of a language to improve the students’ knowledge and experience of the language (Tomlinson, 1998: 2). It is believed that effective learning materials should meet the needs of the learners, help students to develop their confidence, equip the learners to use the language effectively, facilitate learners in learning process, help learners to feel at ease, and provide learners with opportunities to use the target language to achieve communicative purposes.

Knowledge of the curriculum of Vocational High School becomes the first theory that should be known in developing effective learning materials for grade X students of ceramics skill programme. Curriculum is guideline for designing materials. Curriculum defines as an element that brings important roles in teaching and learning process. The standard of competence and basic
competency of Vocational High School also will be the basis in designing the materials.

In designing materials for students of grade X of the ceramics skill programme, a number of factors are considered. English learning materials that will be conducted in this study is for specific purposes to fulfil their needs i.e. mastering English that is related to their skill programme. The theories of ESP, then, give some contribution to the process of analyzing the students of ceramics skill programme needs of English. ESP is concern in teaching language and communicative skill that specific group of language learners needs or will need to function effectively in their discipline of study, professions or workplaces (Basturkmen, 2010:17).

An ESP approach starts with an analysis of the learner’s needs. The results of needs analysis are used to determine the objective of language learning and to write the course grid. Course grid is the central aspect in developing materials. The materials are developed based on the course grid. Here, the writer needs to comprehend the theories of CLT (Communicative Language Teaching). It was an analysis of the communicative meaning that a language learner needs to understand and express rather than describes the core of language through traditional concepts of grammar and vocabulary. (Richards and Rodgers, 2001:158).

Besides, it is important also to notice the theories of materials and task design model (Nunan:2004). The materials should be developed based on the principles of materials development and meet the characteristics of good
materials. The tasks will be analyzed based on the task components: goals, input, procedures, setting, teacher role, and learner role. In this research the content of materials are adapted with the ceramics terms.

The materials developed then distribute to the students to be applied in their English lesson to evaluate the materials. The results of the evaluation are used to revise the materials. Finally, the output of this study is a set of English learning materials for Grade X students of Ceramics skill programme.