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# EXPLORING ENGLISH FOR SPECIFIC PURPOSES LISTENING MATERIAL THROUGH COMPETENCY PERSPECTIVE

A THESIS

Submitted to English Language Teaching Department, *Tarbiyah* and Teacher  
Training Faculty of *Syekh Nurjati* State Islamic Institute Cirebon in partial  
Fulfillment of Requirements of Undergraduate Degree



by:

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**2016**



## ABSTRACT

### *Umami Kulsum 12121320261 "Exploring English for Specific Purposes Listening Material Through Competency Perspective"*

This research find out ESP listening material through competency perspective. It is conducted in order to find out and analysed listening materials through competency based on syllabus that has created by lecturer. In the current curriculum which is labelled as 'Competency-Based', requires that students' success in learning judged in terms of the appropriateness of competence they have achieved. In the case of ELT, competence is not a new issue, since both language learning and acquisition have been concentrated on the learners' ability to perform these language competences.

The aim of the research is to know how the lecturer select listening materials, whether appropriate or not between objectives and learning outcomes, or to know the relevancy of listening materials used by the lecturer to expected competencies. The most important problem comes from the teacher should be experts in the language and language teaching and are not required to have specialized subject knowledge.

The method of this research is qualitative research, exactly case study research. Because this research focus on investigated a single individual in English Language Teaching. For the techniques of collecting data are interview and document analysis, because researcher should interview to completed the data and to know deeply how the lecturer select listening materials and researcher should analysed the document and compare with the result of field research. This awareness can be reflected on teacher's learning compatible based on syllabus design especially in listening at workplace course syllabus as the English Language Teaching.

The findings of the research are (1) the result of lecturer selected in listening material are adopted from course book as the source that used by lecture, the researcher find out some topic discussions which included in syllabus design, include: a company visit, job information, presentation, meetings, entertaining and socialising, travel and emailing. For all topic discussions are expected in learning process especially for the subject listening at workplace. For created the materials, a lecturer recognized through structures, function, situations, and topics. (2) The relevance listening material to expected competencies based on syllabus design is from macroskills theory point two, point three and also point four. It is also clear that to measure a competency based on the skill can be used, because the skill one of supporting important element includes in competency or it can be said that skill is one of element to build the competency.

**Keywords:** English for Specific Purposes, Listening Material, Competency Perspective



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#### RATIFICATION

This thesis which is entitled "EXPORING ENGLISH FOR SPECIFIC PURPOSES LISTENING MATERIAL THROUGH COMPETENCY PERSPECTIVE" written by Ummi Kulsum, registration number 14121320261, has been examined on August 19<sup>th</sup> 2016. It has been accepted by the board of examiners. It has been recognized as one of the requirements for Undergraduate Degree in English Language Teaching Department at *Tarbiyah* and Teacher Training Faculty, *Syekh Nurjati* State Islamic Institute Cirebon.

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## CHAPTER I

### INTRODUCTION

#### 1.1 Background of the Research Problem

English for Specific Purposes was as most developments in human activity; English for Specific Purposes was not a planned and coherent movement, but rather a phenomenon that grew out of a number of converging trends (Hutchinson and Waters, 1987:6) because English had become international language, which all aspects used it. ESP aims at acquainting learners with the kind of language needed in a particular domain, vocation, or occupation. ESP is centred on the language appropriate to the activities of a given discipline. According to Hutchinson and Waters (1987:16), “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.” In this connection, Dudley-Evans (1991) explains that ESP may not always focus on the language for one specific discipline or occupation, such as English for Law or English for Engineering.

According to Dudley-Evans and St John (1991) modified Strevens’ definition of ESP there are two points such as absolute characteristics that ESP is designed to meet specific needs of learners, ESP makes use of the underlying methodology and activities of the disciplines it serves, and ESP is centred on the language (grammar, lexis, register), skills, discourse and genres appropriate to these activities. Furthermore, definition ESP in variable characteristics that ESP may be related to or designed for specific disciplines, ESP may use, in specific teaching situations, a different methodology from that of General English, ESP is likely to be designed for adult learners, either at a tertiary level institution or in a professional work situation. ESP is generally designed for intermediate or advanced students. Most ESP courses assumed some basic knowledge of the language system, but it can be used with beginners.

Traditionally ESP courses were typically designed for intermediate or advanced adult learners. Nowadays many students can start to learn academic or vocational English at an earlier age and at a lower level of proficiency. Hutchinson and Waters (1987:19) said that ESP must be seen as an *approach* not as a *product*. ESP is not a particular kind of language or methodology, or does it consists of a particular type of teaching material. Understood properly, it is an approach to language learning, which is based on learner need.

From the definition, researcher can see that ESP is not necessarily concerned with a specific discipline, nor does it have to be aimed at a certain age group or ability range. ESP

should be seen simple as an 'approach' to teaching, or what Dudley-Evans describes as an 'attitude of mind'. Such a view echoes that of Hutchinson et al. (1987:19) who state, "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".

Besides that, Rost (2002, p. 3-4) argues that listening as a process of receiving what the speaker says, constructing and representing meaning, negotiating meaning with the speaker and creating meaning through involvement, imagination and empathy. According to Richard (2008: 4), listening as comprehension is the traditional way of thinking about the nature of listening. This view of listening is based on the assumption that the main function of listening in second language learning is to facilitate understanding of spoken discourse. Furthermore, Listening is the natural precursor to speaking; the early stages of language development in a person's first language (and in naturalistic acquisition of other languages) are dependent on listening (Nation and Newton, 2009: 37).

According to Nation and Newton (2009: 38) In this view of language learning, listening is the way of learning the language. It gives the learner information from which to build up the knowledge necessary for using the language. When this knowledge is built up, the learner can begin to speak. The listening-only period is a time of observation and learning which provides the basis for the other language skills.

These researcher investigated English for Specific Purposes Listening Material through Competency Perspective. From those research completed with previous studies to find the gap of the research. *First*, a study carries out by Dzinie Faula Prismarani, I putu Sukmaantara, Bambabang Arya Wijaputra (2014), they research focus on an analysis of listening materials based on the national character building for the seventh year students of junior high school. In this research the authors explains that to analyze the listening materials based on the National Character Building for the seventh year students of junior high school. The problems discussed in this research were how the character values of National. Character Building are available in the listening materials of the English textbook, what kinds of character values are covered by listening material in the English textbook, and to what extent are the character values in National Character Building available in the listening materials of the English textbook. *Second*, study belongs to Ellen Nogueira Rodrigues (2015), her research focus on curriculum design and language learning: an analysis of English textbooks in Brazil. In this research the author describes that the lack of studies on approaches used in the construction of the English textbook for EFL and the need to identify to what extent communicative approaches guides and frames the curriculum content. *Third*,



the previous taken from Ineta Luka (2007), her research focus on development of students' ESP Competence in tourism studies at Tertiary Level. The goal of the research was to study the efficiency of the English language learning model in the development of tourism specialist's English for Special Purposes (ESP) competence.

Some previous study in English for Specific Purposes listening material through competency perspective but this research different field with same cluster. This research investigated exploring of English for specific purposes listening material through competency perspective. Because the current curriculum which is labeled as 'Competency-Based', requires that students' success in learning judged in terms of the appropriateness of competence they have achieved. In the case of ELT, competence is not a new issue, since both language learning and acquisition have been concentrated on the learners' ability to perform these language competences. Competencies as Richards (2001: 159) defines, 'are a description of the essential skills, knowledge, and attitudes required for effective performance of particular tasks and activities'.

Some phenomenon that commonly happen in material for lecturer that an issue frequently raised with regard to ESP teachers is whether they need to be experts in the subject area in question. The general assumption is that they are primarily language teachers engaged in Teaching English as a Foreign Language (TEFL) and should, above all, be experts in the language and language teaching and are not required to have specialized subject knowledge. Nevertheless, they do need to have some understanding of the subject area, which is ideally accompanied by a positive attitude towards it. ESP teachers should also have the ability to actively integrate student knowledge about the subject matter or, as Ellis and Johnson (1994: 26) put it: "It is the learners who have the specific content knowledge and who are able to bring that knowledge to the classroom".

Good ESP teachers thus above all be "experts in presenting and explaining the language," who also have the ability "to ask the right questions and make good use of the answers" (Ellis and Johnson, 1994: 26). The role and practice of English in the workplace is a key concern in English for special purposes (ESP). An increasingly globalized workforce and the overwhelming use of English as a de facto working language have created significant demand for workplace specific courses (Paltridge and Starfield, 2013:177).

## 1.2 The Limitation of the Research

Based on the identification above, syllabus of ESP listening is needed to be explored because the researcher found the problems of a lecturer. This research focus on exploring of ESP listening material through competency perspective, especially listening at workplace.



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### 1.3 Formulation of the Research

This research limited the problems that investigated based on what researcher mentioned in the questions of research. The research is formulated in the question research are as follow:

- 1) How does the lecturer select those listening materials?
- 2) How is the relevancy of listening materials used by the lecturer to the expected competencies?

### 1.4 Aims of the Research

The aims of this study are divided into two points. In accordance with those real problems above, the aims of this research as follows:

- 1) To find out the lecturer select those listening materials.
- 2) To find out the relevance of listening materials used by the lecturer to the expected competencies.

### 1.5 Usefulness of Research

There are several usefulness of this study which can be useful for students, teachers and readers. For students, the result of this study may increase their knowledge in listening through competency and how they can get knowledge in listening to students needs for workplace. For teachers, this study provides some information on how to make syllabus design and select the course book in order to syllabus has best qualify for English academic. For readers, this study is expected to provide more information how to make a good syllabus and select materials in order to explore the reader's ability in comprehending and responding the text.

### 1.6 Significance of the Research

The significant of the research can be viewed from two different sides, they are theoretically and practically. Theoretically, as a teacher can be develop ESP listening material through competency perspective. This assumed more information in selecting material and more appropriate listening materials for learners. This also how the lecturer develop to



improve and for learners' need especially listening in workplace. Not only for improve their skill but also for consumes more of daily communication in the classroom.

Practically, the result of this study dealing with exploring of ESP listening material through competency perspective that give students opportunities to practice in listening material especially practice for workplace, for example the material is *Confirming a Hotel Booking*. So for this material learners can improve their skill listening through conversation dialogue which has prepared by lecturer. Learners need to know which the best listening strategies and learn to monitor the effectiveness of strategies they have selected. Learners also can self-asses by determining whether they have achived their listening practice goals. For EFL learners also can increase their skill to practice another skill such as speaking, wiring and reading. This research also could help the teachers or instructors in designing and choosing the best materials content in teaching listening for learners. This research could be useful in creasing the quality in syllabus making in the college. It can be guidance to get the more appropriate with learner' competency, relevancy, and to supplement the lecturers' professionalism.

### 1.7 Literature Review

To support this research, the researcher takes three previous studies to know how far the area of perception has been researched and what kinds of gaps are them. In those previous studies, the researcher divides into three parts which are related with this research. First, researched Dzinie Faula Prismarani, I putu Sukmaantara, Bambabang Arya Wijaputra (2014) about an analysis of listening materials based on the national character building for the seventh year students of junior high school. Second, Ellen Nogueira Rodrigues (2015) research about on curriculum design and language learning: an analysis of English textbooks in Brazil. And the last is Ineta Luka (2007) researched about development of students' ESP Competence in tourism studies at Tertiary Level.

First, a study carries out by Dzinie Faula Prismarani, I putu Sukmaantara, Bambabang Arya Wijaputra (2014). In his research that o analyze the listening materials to reveal what character values in the National Character Building are available in the English textbook chosen by applying content analysis. The reason of this research was that the English textbook "Interactive English" published by Yudhistira for the seventh year students of junior high school was claimed by the authors that all fourteen units of this book cover four skills, including listening skill, which is graded and related to real life situations.

Second, study belongs to Ellen Nogueira Rodrigues (2015), in her research that this to analyse two sixth-grade Brazilian EFL textbooks. Specifically, this study aims at identifying



the underlying methodological approach of these textbooks, analysing how language learning processes are being incorporated into the foreign language textbook and evaluating the textbooks 'strengths and weaknesses and indicating changes necessary for these textbooks.

The last, Ineta Luka (2007) researched about development of students' ESP Competence in tourism studies at Tertiary Level. In this research shows that the model for the development of tourism students' ESP competence was constructed and validated in the studies, suggestions for ESP educators were elaborated. The created model promotes students' language competence and educator's professional activity, the language becomes a means of acquiring one's profession. The goal of the research was to study the efficiency of the English language learning model in the development of tourism specialist's English for Special Purposes (ESP) competence.

The study about ESP listening material through competency perspective has been researched by some researchers. The researcher takes some previous studies to know how far the area of reading strategies has been studied and what the gaps are them. In those previous studies, there are three parts which related with this research. First, researched by Dzinie Faula Prismarani, I putu Sukmaantara, Bambang Arya Wijaputra (2014) about an analysis of listening materials based on the national character building for the seventh year students of junior high school. Second, Ellen Nogueira Rodrigues (2015) research about on curriculum design and language learning: an analysis of English textbooks in Brazil. And the last is Ineta Luka (2007) researched about development of students' ESP Competence in tourism studies at Tertiary Level. Here, the researcher takes a gaps and position on the area. It is English for Specific Purposes listening material through competency perspective. This gap, it has relation from Ellen Nogueira Rodrigues (2015) focus on curriculum design and language learning: an analysis of English textbooks in Brazil. The previous study connected in this researches that exploring ESP listening material though competency perspective. In his research that analyses the content of foreign language textbooks and the language learning experiences evoked in the textbooks in Brazil. Furthermore, most studies in the area of language learning have focused on ESL, rather than the context EFL learning. Therefore, more precise indication of how language learning is conceived and language learning processes are organized can be achieve by the present study.

Besides that research investigated ESP listening material through competency perspective. This research will analyse through syllabus design that used by lecturer in ESP listening material. Furthermore, researcher will analyse listening material and textbooks that used by a lecturer. Research also indicates that current textbooks designers are in the process



of aligning to communicative approach instructions (Costa, 2004; Fernández, 2011; Gilmore, 2004; Nascimento, 2012). Studies on ESL/EFL textbooks analysis reveal that investigations related to the underlying approach, language learning processes, and curriculum design have not been thoroughly explored in the area of English language learning and language pedagogy.

## 1.8 Theoretical Foundation

In this part, the researcher presents the general theory of Teaching Materials, Competency Perspective, Models of Competency, Characteristics of Listening and ESP Listening Material. Those are some theories which has relation and strength through some experts in this research which are considered to be valid basis and expected to strengthen the research findings and data analysis.

### 1.5.1 Teaching Materials

According to Tomlinson (1998: 2) material development refers to anything which is done by writers, teachers or learner to provide sources of language input and to exploit those sources in ways which maximize the likelihood of intake. In other words it also relates to the supplying of information about experience of the language in ways designed to promote language learning. So the materials developer including teachers may bring pictures advertisement in the classroom, compose a textbook, design a student worksheet, read a poem or article aloud. Tomlinson (1998: 7-21) states the principles of second language acquisition which are relevant to the development of language teaching materials, such as:

- 1) Materials should achieve impact.
- 2) Materials should help learners to feel at ease.
- 3) Materials should help learners to develop confidence.
- 4) What is being taught should be perceived by learners as relevant and useful.
- 5) Material should require and facilitate learner self-investment.
- 6) Learners must be ready to acquire the points being taught.
- 7) Learner's attention should be drawn to linguistic features of the input.
- 8) Materials should provide the learners with opportunities to use the target language to achieve communicative purposes.
- 9) Materials should take into account that the positive effects of instruction are usually delayed.
- 10) Materials should take into account that learners differ in learning styles.
- 11) Materials should take into account that learners differ in affective attitudes.
- 12) Materials should permit a silent period at the beginning of instruction.
- 13) Materials should maximize learning potential by encouraging intellectual, aesthetic and emotional involvement in which stimulate both right and left brain activities.
- 14) Materials should not rely too much on controlled practice.
- 15) Materials should provide opportunities for outcome feedback.



Furthermore, another expert provide theory of teaching material to promote language learning. Graves (2000: 150) states the considerations in developing teaching materials, such as:

- 1) Learners. The materials developed should be relevant to the students' experiences and background, their target needs (outside of class), and their affective needs.
- 2) Learning. The material developed should be engage in discovery, problem solving, analysis, and develop specific skills and strategies.
- 3) Language. The materials developed should reach the target of the relevant aspect (grammar, functions, vocabulary, etc), integrate four skills of speaking, listening, reading and writing, use or understand authentic text.
- 4) Social Context. The material developed should provide intercultural focus and develop critical social awareness.
- 5) Activity or Task type. The material developed should aim for authentic tasks, vary roles and groupings, vary activities and purposes.
- 6) Materials. The materials developed should be authentic (text and realia) and varies (print, visuals, audio, etc).

### 1.5.2 Selection and Grading

Coursebook writers are in effect designing a syllabus as well as producing teaching material, and implicate in coursebooks for language learning there must be view of and an approach to syllabus design. According to Cunningsworth (1995: 54-60) there are some basis the content of the coursebook has been selected and how the content has been grade, such as:

#### 1.5.2.1 The Syllabus Base

A syllabus can be broadly defined as a specification of the work to be covered. Over a period of time, with a starting point and a final goal. The language content will be ordered in some way, usually being sequenced according to underlying principles or theories. In some cases the amount of time to be spent on each section will be specified. The focus of syllabus, therefore, is on what is taught and in what order it is taught.

However, some alternative views of syllabus design, notably the process syllabus, are based on the learning process rather than on the content. The process syllabus is somewhat experimental in nature and has yet to make an impact on the bulk of teaching materials. The content is not specified in advance and there are no predetermined goals. The process grows naturally out of the learning situation and to some extent is set out retrospectively as the situation evolves.



### 1.5.2.2 Content Based Syllabuses

According to White (1988) identifies four types of content base in syllabus design. These are:

- Form (with a structural focus)
- Function (with a notional/functional basis)
- Situation (with a contextual focus)
- Topic (with an informational focus)

It identified the main characteristics of each of these syllabus bases, but it should be borne in mind that the actual content of coursebooks based on a combination of these factors. Coursebook writers have to balance the competing demands of different approaches to syllabus design and produce a version which is best suited to the users' needs.

### 1.5.2.3 Structural and Functional Syllabuses

The structural syllabus incorporates probably the most traditional approach and is based on the internal structure of the language with particular emphasis on grammatical structure. The selection and sequencing of language items in a structural syllabus is based on no firm theory or principle, but is determined by writer in a pragmatic fashion with reliance on established orthodoxy and practical experience. The general guidelines used in the case of grammar items tend to be:

- Complexity of structure
- Learnability
- Usefulness

The strength of structural syllabus is that it can account for all the forms of a language and relate them to one another in a coherent way. A serious limitation of a purely structural syllabus, on the other hand, would be the scant regard paid to meaning and especially to the communicative potential of what is taught.

The functional syllabus is based on the identification of communicative functions and owes its development to work done under the aegis of Council of Europe in the early 1970s. In this approach to syllabus design, communicative functions are selected and sequenced according to usefulness to the learner, the extent to which they meet the learner's communicative needs.

An advantage of a functional base to coursebook design is that the learning goals can be identified in terms which make sense to the learners themselves. To the average



student, making requests for information means more than interrogative form of modal verbs followed by infinitive. Another advantage is that the coursebook writer can ensure that the learning process has an immediate practical result in that the students can use what they have learned outside the classroom at relatively early stages. Students who do not complete a course can be able to take away with them something useful in the form of a limited communicative ability in English.

#### 1.5.2.4 Situational and Topic Based Syllabuses

The situational syllabus takes ‘real-world’ situations as an organizing principle in selecting and grading what is to be taught. The factors that come into play are:

- Participants
- Setting
- Communicative goals.

A situationally based syllabus come somewhere between phrase book and full language learning. Its limitation lies in being too closely tied to the specific situations that it selects and in the difficulty of ensuring that structure of language is adequately covered.

Topic based syllabus is information content as the main principle for selecting and organizing the syllabus content. It is unlikely that the syllabuses of general English courses can be wholly topic based, as the concept of the topic is too imprecise and difficult to define. Topic can be of great value in keeping learners’ interest and maintaining or increasing their motivation. Additionally, it provides a focus for the language input contained in the course and helps to create a sense of coherence within individual units.

A coursebook should provide interesting content, it should be challenging and appropriate for the age group, and not offer childish content just because the learners’ language skills are low.

Based on situational and topic base syllabus, according to Cunningsworth (1995) that emphasized the importance attached to topic and subject content, students should be able to learn about other things as they learn English. English should be linked to other subjects in the school curriculum and to the world outside the school. So, this is some questions for teacher as designer syllabus to select the content, such as:

- How is the content organized according to structure, functions, situations, and topic?



- Is any one of the above predominant as the bases of selection of content?
- Is any of the material suitable for use as a resource in negotiated (process) syllabus?

### 1.5.2.5 Grading: Sequencing and Staging

According to Cunningsworth (1995: 59-60) that grading refers to the way in which the content is organized in the syllabus or coursebook, involving the ordering of items and the speed with which the students progress through the course. A useful distinction has been made between sequencing and staging. Staging refers to the way a course is divided into units, how much material each unit contains, the speed of progression and the size of learning load. Staging is to some extent a function of the time spent in learning and the amount learned. So it concerns how much new material is introduced in given number of hours, how close together or how far apart new grammar items are in relation to one another, how much new vocabulary is introduced in each unit and so on.

### 1.5.3 Competency Perspective

A competency as Richards (2001: 159) defines, 'are a description of the essential skills, knowledge, and attitudes required for effective performance of particular tasks and activities'. Hogg (1993) defined competency as 'competencies are the characteristics of a manager that lead to the demonstration of skills and abilities, which result in effective performance within an occupational area. According to Sanghi (2007: 9-10) competency also embodies the capacity to transfer skills and abilities from one area to another.' An analysis of the definition reveals:

- 1) Competencies are the characteristics of a manager. This goes along with our promise that competency is a characteristic of a person.
- 2) Competencies lead to the demonstration of skills and abilities. Therefore, competency must be demonstrated and hence must be observable. It must not be inferred or extrapolated.
- 3) Competencies must lead to effective performance. This means that the performance of a person with competency must be significantly better than that of a person without it. Competency thus refers to behavior, differentiating success from merely doing the job.
- 4) Competency also embodies the capacity to transfer skills and abilities from one area to another. A sales person may be able to deliver his sales pitch flawlessly but may be



tongue-tied elsewhere. He lacks the competency of communication. Thus competencies cannot be restricted to a single job alone but the person must be able to carry them along. This dispels the need to differentiate between generic and functional competencies since this part of the definition excludes functional competence which is associated with a particular job.

Spencer and Spencer (1993) in their work *Competence at Work* have defined competency as ‘an underlying characteristic of an individual that is casually related to criterion-referenced effecting and superior performance in a job situation’. Besides that Sanghi (2007: 10-11) ‘Criterion-referenced’ means that the competency actually predicts who does something well or poorly, as measured on a specific criterion or standard. There are five types of competency characteristics.

- 1) Motives—The things a person consistently thinks about or wants and that which causes action. Motives ‘drive, direct or select’ behaviour towards certain actions or goals and away from others.
- 2) Traits—Physical characteristics and consistent responses to situations or information.
- 3) Self-concept—A person’s attitudes, values or self-image.
- 4) Knowledge—Information a person has in specific content areas.
- 5) Skill—The ability to perform a certain physical or mental task.

Furthermore, Competencies are components of a job which are reflected in behaviour that are observable in a workplace. The common elements most frequently mentioned are knowledge, skills, abilities, aptitudes, personal suitability behaviour and impact on performance at work (Sanghi, 2007: 12). There are various definitions with little difference in them. However, the common denomination is ‘observable behaviour’ in the workplace. The criteria of competency are superior performance and effective performance. Only some competencies can predict performance. Sanghi (2007: 13) explains that competencies can be divided into two categories.

- Threshold competencies—These are the essential characteristics that everyone in the job needs to be minimally effective, but this does not distinguish superior from average performers.
- Differentiating competencies—These factors distinguish superior from average performers.

Gary Hamel and C.K. Prahalad (1994) in their book *Competing for the Future* wrote, ‘core competencies transcend any single business event within the organization’. Certain



projects are so massive and persuasive that no individual can possess the competencies required to see them through to completion. Therefore, organizations have to identify, develop and manage organizational core competencies that drive large enterprise critical projects. Workplace competencies focus on individuals instead of the organization, and they vary by job positions versus enterprise endeavours.

The unit of measure is people rather than the business. There may be core competencies that appear in every competency model position, most workplace competencies are typically specific to the position. Thus there is an enormous amount of work to set up organization-wide competency-based applications. 'Competent' is when a person is qualified to perform to a requisite standard of the processes of a job. 'Competence' on the other hand means the condition or state of being competent. The difference between the core and workplace competencies is given in Table 1.

**Table 1: Core Competencies vs. Workplace Competencies**

	Core	Workplace
Scope	Organization	Individual
Purpose	Strategic	Tactical
Participant(s)	Business unit	Worker
Tasks	Processes	Activities
Competencies	Global	Position

**Figure 1. Criteria for Describing and Assessing Competency Based Programmes (Source—Burke et al., 1975)**

No.	Criterion	Description
1.	Competency Specifications	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Competences are based on an analysis of the professional role(s) and/or a theoretical formulation of professional responsibilities.</li> <li>Competency statements describe outcomes expected from the performance of professionally related functions, or those knowledges, skills, and attitudes thought to be essential to the performance of those functions.</li> <li>Competency statements facilitate criterion referenced</li> </ul>





1. Dilarang mengutip sebagian atau seluruh karya tulis ini tanpa mencantumkan dan menyebutkan sumber :
  - a. Pengutipan hanya untuk kepentingan pendidikan, penelitian, penulisan karya ilmiah, penyusunan laporan, penulisan kritik atau tinjauan suatu masalah.
  - b. Pengutipan tidak merugikan kepentingan yang wajar dari Perpustakaan IAIN Syekh Nurjati Cirebon.
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		<p>assessment.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Competences are treated as tentative predictors of professional effectiveness, and are subjected to continual validation procedures.</li> <li>• Competences are specified and made public prior to instruction.</li> <li>• Learners completing the CBE programme demonstrate a wide range of competency profiles.</li> </ul>
2.	Instruction	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• The instructional programme is derived from and linked to specified competences.</li> <li>• Instruction which supports competency development is organised into units of manageable size.</li> <li>• Instruction is organised and implemented so as to accommodate learner style, sequence preference, pacing and perceived needs.</li> <li>• Learner progress is determined by demonstrated competence.</li> <li>• The extent of learner's progress is made known to him/her throughout the programme.</li> <li>• Instructional specifications are reviewed and revised based on feedback data.</li> </ul>
3.	Assessment	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Competency measures are validly related to competency statements.</li> <li>• Competency measures are specific, realistic and sensitive to nuance.</li> <li>• Competency measures discriminate on the basis of standards set for competency demonstration.</li> <li>• Data provided by competency measures are manageable and useful in decision making.</li> <li>• Competency measures and standards are specified and made public prior to instruction.</li> </ul>
4.	Governance and Management	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Policy statements are written to govern, in broad outline,</li> </ul>

		<p>the intended structure, content, operation and resource base of the programme.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Management functions, responsibilities, procedures and mechanisms are clearly defined and made explicit.</li> </ul>
5.	Total Programme	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Programme staff attempt to model the attitudes and behaviours desired of students in the programme.</li> <li>• Provisions are made for staff orientation, assessment, improvement and reward.</li> <li>• Research and dissemination activities are an integral part of the total instructional system.</li> <li>• Institutional flexibility is sufficient for all aspects of the programme.</li> <li>• The programme is planned and operated as a totally unified, integrated system.</li> </ul>

#### 1.5.4 Models of Competency

According to Sanghi (2007: 20-21) that a competency model describes the combination of knowledge, skills and characteristics needed to effectively perform a role in an organization and is used as a human resource tool for selection, training and development, appraisal and succession planning. Identifying and mapping these competencies is rather complex. Skills can range from highly concrete proficiencies like the ability to operate a particular machine or to write a sentence, to far less tangible capabilities such as the ability to think strategically or to influence others.

Furthermore, a competency model includes both innate and acquired aspects. It is essentially a pyramid built on the foundation of inherent talents, incorporating the types of skills and knowledge that can be acquired through learning effort and experience. At the top of the pyramid is a specific set of behaviours that are the manifestation of all innate and acquired abilities.



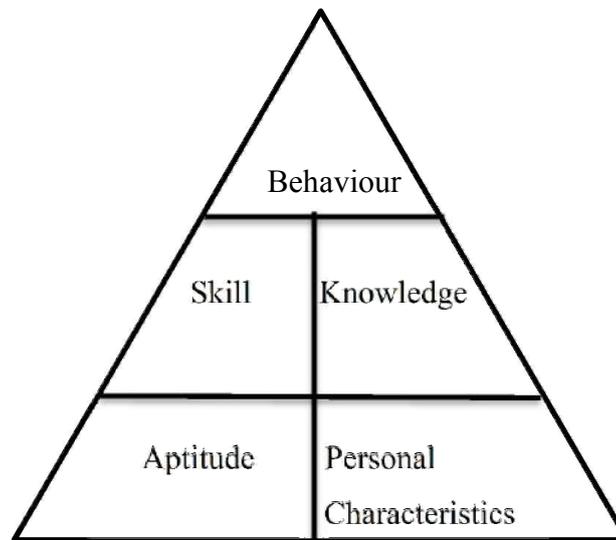


Fig. 2: Competency Pyramid Model

For a competency model to be useful as a human resource tool:

- 1) Competencies must be defined along with examples to illustrate when a particular competency is being demonstrated.
- 2) Although the innate characteristics are fixed in a person for the most part, behaviours can be modified and taught.

When developing a competency model, keep the following in mind:

- 1) Certain competencies as customer focus might be generic across several organizations, but the behaviour relating to those competencies can still vary widely from one organization to another.
- 2) Within the same organization two management jobs may present very different challenges and require very different skills.
- 3) In order to be as useful as possible, the competency model should be developed with a specific role in mind. Thus even the best off-the-shelf generic competency model, based on very high quality research, will be more effective if it has been customized.

The HRM systems are ensured by a competency model:

Selection Systems	All interviews are looking for the same set of abilities and characteristics.
Training and Development	It provides a list of behaviours and skills that must be developed to maintain satisfactory levels of performance.



Succession Planning	It focuses on the same set of attributes and skills relevant to success on the positions under consideration.
Performance Management	It clarifies what is expected from the individuals.
Appraisal System	It focuses on specific behaviour, offering a road map for recognition, reward and possible advancement.

Furthermore, according to Dubois (1993) in Sunghi's Book of *The Handbook of Competency Mapping* (2007: 27-28) there are various developed models that are used as a basis for selection, training, promotion and other issues related to human resources, such as :

- 1) Job Competence Assessment Method—This is developed using interviews and observations of outstanding and average performers to determine the competencies that differentiate between them in critical incidents (Dubois 1993).
- 2) Modified Job Competence Assessment Method—This also identifies such behavioural differences, but to reduce costs, interviewees provide a written account of critical incidents (ibid.).
- 3) Generic Model Overlay Method—Organizations purchase an off-the-shelf generic competency model for a specific role or function (ibid.).
- 4) Customized Generic Model Method—Organizations use a tentative list of competencies that are identified internally to aid in their selection of a generic model and then validate it with the input of outstanding and average performers (ibid.).
- 5) Flexible Job Competency Model Method—This seeks to identify the competencies that will be required to perform effectively under different conditions in the future (ibid.).
- 6) Systems Method—This demands reflecting on not only what exemplary performers do now, or what they do overall, but also behaviours that may be important in the future (Linkage, Inc. 1997).
- 7) Accelerated Competency Systems Method—This places the focus on the competencies that specifically support the production of output, such as an organization's products, services or information (ibid.).

### 1.5.5 Competence of Listening

Based on the theory, competence of listening can be seen through macro and micro skills. Brown (2007: 308) provided micro and macro skills of listening comprehension. Micro skills are relevant to what can be done at sentence level while macro skills refer to what can be done at discourse level (Brown, 2007: 307).



### Micro skills

1. Retain chunks of language of different lengths in short-term memory.
2. Discriminate among the distinctive sounds of English.
3. Recognize English stress patterns, words in stressed and unstressed positions, rhythmic structure, intonation contours, and their role in signalling information.
4. Recognize reduced forms of words.
5. Use an adequate number of lexical units (words) in order to accomplish pragmatic purposes.
6. Process speech at different rates of delivery.
7. Process speech containing pauses, errors, corrections, and other performance variables.
8. Recognize grammatical word classes (nouns, verbs, etc.), systems (tenses, agreement, pluralisation, etc.), patterns, rules, and elliptical forms.
9. Detect sentence constituents and distinguish between major and minor constituents.
10. Recognize a particular meaning may be expressed in different grammatical forms.

### Macro skills

11. Recognize cohesive devices in spoken discourse.
12. Recognize the communicative functions of utterances, according to situations, participants, and goals.
13. Infer situations, participants, goals using real-world knowledge.
14. From events, ideas, etc., described, predict outcomes, infer links and connections between events, deduce causes and effects, and detect such relations as main idea, supporting idea, new information, given information, generalization, and exemplification.
15. Distinguish between literal and implied meanings.
16. Use facial features, kinesics, body language, and other nonverbal cues to decipher meanings.
17. Develop and use a battery of listening strategies, such as detecting key words, guessing the meaning of words from context, appealing for help, and signalling comprehension or lack thereof.

By knowing the micro and macro skills, both teachers and students understood the direction of the learning in the classroom. This can be guidance in designing the objective(s) of the study in speaking classes. In turn, it helped the class going to the right track of learning.

Further more according to Richards's (1983) list, recorded below, is useful tool for lesson planning: once the learners' listening needs have been identified (see needs assessment) and the target discourse has been analysed for its salient features (what kinds of listening situations the learners found themselves in), this list of micro-skills can serve as a guide for planning the objectives of instruction. Input and task selection and design should target the development of the micro-skills that student required in expected communication types. Richards's (1983) list focuses on conversational listening and listening to lectures, but



additional micro-skills can be added for different *listening types*. Richards's (1983) listening micro-skills for conversational listening:

1. ability to retain chunks of language of different lengths for short periods
2. ability to discriminate among the distinctive sounds of the target language
3. ability to recognize the stress patterns of words
4. ability to recognize the rhythmic structure of English
5. ability to recognize the functions of stress and intonation to signal the information structure of utterances
6. ability to identify words in stressed and unstressed positions
7. ability to recognize reduced forms of words
8. ability to distinguish word boundaries
9. ability to recognize typical word order patterns in the target language
10. ability to recognize vocabulary used in core conversational topics (high frequency)
11. ability to detect key words (i.e., those which identify topics and propositions)
12. ability to guess the meanings of words from the contexts in which they occur (see strategies)
13. ability to recognize grammatical word classes (parts of speech)
14. ability to recognize major syntactic patterns and devices
15. ability to recognize cohesive devices in spoken discourse
16. ability to recognize elliptical forms of grammatical units and sentences
17. ability to detect sentence constituents
18. ability to distinguish between major and minor constituents
19. ability to detect meanings expressed in differing grammatical forms/sentence types (i.e., that a particular meaning may be expressed in different ways)
20. ability to recognize the communicative functions of utterances (speech acts), according to situations, participants, goals (pragmatic competence)
21. ability to reconstruct or infer situations, goals, participants, procedures
22. ability to use real world knowledge and experience to work out purposes, goals, settings, procedures
23. ability to predict outcomes from events described
24. ability to infer links and connections between events
25. ability to deduce causes and effects from events
26. ability to distinguish between literal and implied meanings
27. ability to identify and reconstruct topics and coherent structure from ongoing discourse involving two or more speakers
28. ability to recognize markers of coherence in discourse, and to detect such relations as main idea, supporting idea, given information, new information, generalization, exemplification (*discourse competence*)
29. ability to process speech at different rates
30. ability to process speech containing pauses, errors, corrections
31. ability to make use of facial, paralinguistic, and other clues to work out meanings
32. ability to adjust *listening strategies* to different kinds of listener purposes and goals
33. ability to signal comprehension or lack of comprehension, verbally and non-verbally

In addition, Richards's (1983) this list of macro-skills can serve as a guide for planning the objectives of instruction. Micro-skills for listening to lectures are:

1. ability to identify purpose and scope of lecture
2. ability to identify topic of lecture and follow topic development



3. ability to identify relationships among units within discourse (e.g., major ideas, generalizations, hypotheses, supporting ideas, examples)
4. ability to identify role of discourse markers in signaling structure of a lecture (e.g., conjunctions, adverbs, *gambits*, routines)
5. ability to infer relationships (e.g., cause, effect, conclusion)
6. ability to recognize key lexical items related to subject/topic
7. ability to deduce meanings of words from context
8. ability to recognize markers of cohesion (*discourse competence*)
9. ability to recognize function of intonation to signal information structure (e.g., pitch, volume, pace, key)
10. ability to detect attitude of speaker toward subject matter
11. ability to follow different modes of lecturing: spoken, audio, audio-visual
12. ability to follow lecture despite differences in accent and speed
13. familiarity with different styles of lecturing: formal, conversational, read, unplanned
14. familiarity with different registers: written vs. colloquial
15. ability to recognize irrelevant matter: jokes, digressions, meanderings
16. ability to recognize function of non-verbal cues as markers of emphasis and attitude
17. knowledge of classroom conventions (e.g., turn-taking, clarification requests)
18. ability to recognize instructional learner tasks (e.g., warnings, suggestions, recommendations, advice, instructions)

### 1.5.6 Characteristics of Listening

According to Richard (2008: 3) to understand the nature of listening processes, we need to consider some of the characteristics of spoken discourse and the special problems they pose for listeners. Spoken discourse has very different characteristics from written discourse, and these differences can add a number of dimensions to our understanding of how we process speech. In other word, Richard (2008: 3-10) there are two different kinds of processes are involved in understanding spoken discourse. These are often referred to as *bottom-up* and *top-down* processing.

#### 1.5.6.1 Bottom-up Processing

Bottom-up processing refers to using the incoming input as the basis for understanding the message. Comprehension begins with the received data that is analyzed as successive levels of organization sounds, words, clauses, sentences, texts until meaning is derived. Comprehension is viewed as a process of decoding.

The listener's lexical and grammatical competence in a language provides the basis for bottom-up processing. The input is scanned for familiar words, and grammatical knowledge is used to work out the relationship between elements of sentences.

Learners need a large vocabulary and a good working knowledge of sentence structure to process texts bottom-up. Exercises that develop bottom-up processing help the learner to do such things as the following:

- 1) Retain input while it is being processed



- 2) Recognize word and clause divisions
- 3) Recognize key words
- 4) Recognize key transitions in a discourse
- 5) Recognize grammatical relationships between key elements in sentences
- 6) Use stress and intonation to identify word and sentence functions

Furthermore, Richards (2008) explains that bottom up processing completed through activities for learners in the classroom, examples of the kinds of tasks that develop bottom up listening skills require listeners to do the following kinds of things:

- 1) Identify the referents of pronouns in an utterance
- 2) Recognize the time reference of an utterance
- 3) Distinguish between positive and negative statements
- 4) Recognize the order in which words occurred in an utterance
- 5) Identify sequence markers
- 6) Identify key words that occurred in a spoken text
- 7) Identify which modal verbs occurred in a spoken text

#### 1.5.6.2 Top-down Processing

Top-down processing, on the other hand, refers to the use of background knowledge in understanding the meaning of a message. Whereas bottom-up processing goes from language to meaning, top-down processing goes from meaning to language. The background knowledge required for top-down processing may be previous knowledge about the topic of discourse, situational or contextual knowledge, or knowledge in the form of “schemata” or “scripts” plans about the overall structure of events and the relationships between them. Then, exercises that require top-down processing develop the learner’s ability to do the following:

- 1) Use key words to construct the schema of a discourse
- 2) Infer the setting for a text
- 3) Infer the role of the participants and their goals
- 4) Infer causes or effects
- 5) Infer unstated details of a situation
- 6) Anticipate questions related to the topic or situation

Besides that, Richards (2008) explains that there are some activities through top down processing for learners, the following activities develop top-down listening skills are:

- 1) Students generate a set of questions they expect to hear about a topic, then listen to see if they are answered.



- 2) Students generate a list of things they already know about a topic and things they would like to learn more about, then listen and compare.
- 3) Students read one speaker's part in a conversation, predict the other speaker's part, then listen and compare.
- 4) Students read a list of key points to be covered in a talk, then listen to see which ones are mentioned.
- 5) Students listen to part of a story, complete the story ending, then listen and compare endings.
- 6) Students read news headlines, guess what happened, then listen to the full news items and compare.

### 1.5.7 The Four Skills in General Coursebook

According to Cunningsworth (1995: 64) that the skills dimension complements the dimension of grammatical/lexical/phonological knowledge and focuses on the ability of learners actually to operate in the language. The emphasis on linguistic behaviour and on learners' ability to use the language in different situations requiring different skills, sometimes in isolation but more usually together. The integration skills is an important aspect of overall language ability, all of the other four skills in ways which are appropriate to the situation. A further consideration is whether the material presented for skills work is specially written for the coursebook, is semi authentic (originally authentic materials can be used on them are suitably graded).

So, it should check if the course book deals adequately with all four skills, taking the level and overall aims into account, and if there is suitable balance between skills. Here some questions to check the balance of four skills, such as:

- Are all four skills adequately covered, bearing in mind your course aims and syllabus requirements?
- Is material for spoken English (dialogues, roleplays, etc) well designed to equip learners for real-life interactions?
- Do the presentation and practice activities includes the integration of skills in realistic context?
- Does the coursebook use authentic material at an appropriate level (eg preintermediate, intermediate, advanced)?

Listening skill, in the coursebook could do more to help learners to cope with this problem, for example by providing dialogues where what the student says is well controlled and graded, but where the response is more difficult and harder to understand. Student could then be encouraged to develop strategies for coping, which would range from making informed guesses based on partial comprehension to asking for a repetition, which may or



may not come in a simpler form, but would at least give extra thinking time (Cunningsworth, 1995: 67).

So, for listening skill also need to check if the coursebook provide pre-listening activities to focus learners' attention on the topic of the passage. These take the form of pre-questions, or asking students to look for certain items of information contained in the listening material. This gives purpose to the activity, allows an element of prediction and makes the passage more accessible by placing it in a context. This is some questions to check for listening skill:

What kind of listening material is contained in the course?

- Does listening form part of dialogue/conversation work?
- Are there specific listening passages?
- If there are specific listening passages, what kind of activities are based on them comprehension questions, extracting specific information, etc?
- Is the listening material set in a meaningful context?

In addition, according to Cunningswoth (1995: 97) that how few courses discuss student needs in the introductory sections of their teachers' books and even more surprising to see how many launch straight away into a description of the course and how to use it without considering, however briefly, the needs of the students for whom the course has been written. It is needs experienced by when learning a language in a classroom with a teacher and a textbook. There are:

- The need to communicative effectively
- The need to be familiar with the language system
- The need for challenge
- The need to tak on more responsibility for their own learning
- The need for cross cultural awareness.

For learners needs, however most course do not discuss student needs explicitly, although their approach to their students would be implicit in the methodology they use. It should be check for learners need through this question:

- Does the material discuss and identify areas of student need??

### 1.5.8 ESP Materials

Learners needs can be identified by the teachers from the target learners from whom they are going to develop the materials. The application of the principles and procedures of developing learning materials is described focusing on materials development for specific



purposes of the teaching of English. In order to develop learning materials for specific purposes, one thing that should become the starting point is the learners needs. This is in line with the first step of developing learning materials for general purposes as well as that for English as a specific purposes (ESP) proposes by Hutchinson and Waters (1989: 3) which states that ESP is based on designing courses to meet learners needs.

This is where a learners' development of ESL listening and ESP listening competence overlap. It is useful, therefore, to conceptualize ESL and ESP listening development as being interrelated, instead of considering ESP listening development as an "add on" to a set of skills that learners already possess. Richards (1993: 3) states that one view of how to improve teaching is through the use of instructional materials, so that "quality of teaching will come about through the use of instructional materials that are based on findings of current theory and research." Richards (1993: 3) maintains that instructional materials can have a profound effect on teaching and that teachers rely on such materials to define the language courses they teach.

The goal of second language listening instruction is to develop active listeners and this is also the goal of the more defined area of ESP listening. To listen actively, language learners need to:

- 1) have an available source of relevant knowledge to support cognitive processing;
- 2) use listening skills to facilitate comprehension and interaction;
- 3) engage in metacognitive processes to enhance and regulate their own comprehension and listening development. (Goh 2005; Vandergrift and Goh 2012).

Furthermore, according to Paltridge and Starfield (2013: 57) that active listening can occur in all types of listening contexts and is not restricted to situations where the individual is interacting with others. It is needed when one is talking to another person (interactive listening) or when listening to a talk or a lecture (one-way listening). In interactive listening, listeners engage their interlocutors in repeating and explaining messages to obtain greater clarity in their attempt to construct an understanding of the message. In one-way listening, where the context does not allow them to do this, active listeners will make use of appropriate strategies to cope with difficulties and facilitate their comprehension by making predictions or drawing inferences, as well as monitoring and evaluating their understanding.

ESP listening as a construct has many similarities to ESL listening. It involves the same cognitive processes that draw from a number of similar knowledge sources to process spoken input, and requires the use of the same core "macro" skills that enable effective attention to information in accord with the purpose for listening (Paltridge and Starfield,



2013: 58). Besides that, In reality, however, this may not always be the case, with some learners needing to work hard to build up their rather low level of listening ability while at the same time learning to develop new skills needed for their specific domains. This is where a learner ' s development of ESL listening and ESP listening competence overlap. It is useful, therefore, to conceptualize ESL and ESP listening development as being interrelated, instead of considering ESP listening development as an “ add on ” to a set of skills that learners already possess.

According to Alan Cunningsworth (1995: 132) Teaching materials for English for Specific Purposes (ESP) tend to be viewed as distinct and separate from general coursebooks. This may be because of the emphasis on content and the unfamiliarity of the content to many teachers. There are also differences in the roles of teachers and learners and in the design of the materials.

#### 1.5.8.1 Characteristics of ESP Materials

The range of ESP books on the market is large and covers many disciplines and occupations from medicine to banking, from physics to tourism and from law to aviation. The three areas best catered for by published material in Britain are English for business, English for science and technology (EST) and English for academic purposes (EAP).

Although the content of ESP books may look very different from that of general coursebooks and the skills being developed may have a different balance from those in general coursebooks, the guidelines for evaluation of materials also apply to ESP materials. It is should check that ESP materials meet learners' needs and that language taught matches the language that the students will use. The material should take into account learner expectations and learning styles and should have a clear role in the learning or teaching process.

So far as meeting learners' needs is concerned, ESP materials have sometimes been in advance of general coursebooks, as they have been developed specially for students who were perceived to have specific needs which could not be met fully by general material. These needs were originally seen mainly in terms of subject content. For example, engineers need the language of engineering, doctors the language of medicine, pilots the language of aviation, etc, and this is indeed the case. However, as the subject content becomes defined more narrowly, so the number of different areas proliferates. The same general approach holds for others areas of ESP, such as business. In this case students might learn the specific language features found in the business context (eg letters, invoices, tender, reports) and at the same time become equipped to use this language in negotiating, making presentations, dictating letters, etc. (Cunningsworth, 1995: 133)



### 1.5.8.2 Students and Teacher Roles

At the level of much ESP work, the roles of teachers and learners will be different from those in general courses. They will be more equal in most cases, partly because ESP students tend to be older and already established in their professions, but also because the students have crucial subject knowledge that the teacher does not have. English language teachers cannot be expected to have specialist knowledge outside their own field.

Consequently a useful and often fruitful partnership can be developed between teacher and students, where they pool their knowledge and expertise to produce an effective course. One main advantage of this, apart from the obvious one of remedying the teacher's lack of specialist knowledge, is that students feel more involved in the course and have a greater stake in it.

### 1.5.8.3 Design and Methodology

According to Cunningsworth (1995: 134) that in design, ESP materials may differ considerably from general coursebooks. For one thing, they will generally assume a foundation of proficiency in general English, and from the start will focus on aspects of English specific to the subject area being covered. Similarly, the balance of language skills being taught may be different from that found in general courses. In some cases, they may be a strong emphasis on the written language and oral skills may be totally ignored, in other cases the material may focused on very specific skills, such as note-taking from a talk, presentation or lecture.

Methodologically, the general principles which apply to general coursebooks also apply to ESP materials. Additionally, it might expect to see an emphasis context. This can be done by use of skill based and task based activities involving an element of problem solving and drawing substantially for their content on the learners' specialist subject knowledge and professional experience. Project work which replicates real life situations is an effective way of helping learners to develop the skills and strategies that they will need. The cooperation necessary for a group project will also give learners the opportunity to develop their language skills in interpersonal relations and helped to give them confidence in using English professionally.

Furthermore, Cunningsworth (1995: 134) said that the balance and mix of skills that the students need represented naturally in the projects undertaken, so long as they in turn are representative of the professional situations in which the students operate. So ESP materials can produce preparatory material that learners went through before undertaking a particular task or project, it should be check for ESP material through some questions here:



- Is the material based on a careful analysis of learner needs?
- Are objectives specified in content terms and performance terms?
- Is there a body of 'core' specialist language related to the subject area?
- Is there a balance between subject-specific language items (grammar, vocabulary, discourse structure) and operational skills and strategies in language use?
- Can the material be used for individual study? If so, are learners given guidance on how to use the material in this way?
- To what extent do the learning activities mirror real-life situation, eg through task based and skill based activities?
- Do learning activities have outcomes or products which will help learners to evaluate their performance?

## 1.9 Research Methodology

### 1.9.1 Respondent

Participant or Respondent observation is a part of the broader qualitative research paradigm (Denzin and Lincoln, 2000), where the researcher serves as the primary instrument for observing and collecting data (Creswell, 2003). Researcher has selected participant as the informant who will give valuable data to this research that one of lecturer who teaches English Language Teaching (ELT) in second semester. Researcher investigated appropriate with lecturer who teaches in ELT especially for the subject listening at workplace. Besides that, according to Spradley (1980: 54) the participant observer comes to a social situation with two purposes: (1) to engage in activities appropriate to the situation and (2) to observe the activities, people and physical aspects of the situation.

Furthermore, according to Jorgensen (1989: 37) the methodology participant observation is very much concerned, however, with *dependable* and *trustworthy* findings. Viewed in this way, reability is ver much interrelated with validity. The validity and reliability of participant observation may be checked in a number of ways, are:

- a) The participant observer, as already noted, rarely depends on a single form of evidence. Concepts are formulated and checked by multiple procedures and forms of evidence, such as direct experience and observation, different forms of interviews, and different informaants, artifacts, and documents.



- b) It is extremely important to ask whether or not and the extent to which the researcher's procedures have provided direct access to the insiders world. Limited access generally results in less valid and reliable findings.
- c) The methodology of participant observation, more than most scientific approaches, requires the researcher to describe and discuss fully the procedures used to collect information. The researcher thereby is obligated to discuss for the reader the relationship between the procedures employed and the results obtained, including advantages and limitations of these procedures.
- d) Explicit, detailed discussion of study procedures subjects them further to public examination and scrutiny. In other words, study procedures are subject to debate and testing in the experience and judgement of everyone reading the final report.
- e) Important concepts may be tested by actual usage in everyday life, as noted above. It is difficult to imagine a more severe test of the accuracy or dependability of an idea than that it pass the less of use in everyday life.
- f) Although it may be difficult in practice, in principle there is no reason why the method of participant observation cannot be checked by independent restudy.

### 1.9.2 Research Design

This study is qualitative method, exactly case study research. According to Lodico, Spaulding and Voegtler (2010: 156), case study research is a form of qualitative research that endeavors to discover meaning, to investigate processes, and to gain insight into and in-depth understanding of an individual, group, or situation. According to Smith, as cited in Merriam (1998), as cited also in Lodico's book, that case studies can be differentiated from other forms of qualitative research by the fact that these studies focus on a "single unit" or a bounded system. Essentially, the case defines the topic for the study, and any data that help to understand the case can be collected. However, case study researchers typically use many qualitative data sources. The reason took this method because the respondent is focus on a single individual. The purpose of this studies is to understand the case in more depth so that the researcher can learn about it in depth (Lodico, D et al., 2010: 158).

### 1.9.3 Source of Data

This study involved the lecturer one of English Language Teaching. The lecturer is essential thing in this study; because the lecturer's syllabus design should be investigated in this study. In this research, the researcher collects the data in the forms of primary source data. Primary source data is the data that researcher takes directly in the field of



the problem the researcher concerns. In this case, the researcher takes from answer of interview. As Grabe (2002: 166) stated that interviewing provide the researcher a means to gain a deeper understanding of how the participant interpret a situation or phenomenon then can be gained through observation alone. Then, researcher should be interpreting the document of syllabus that has created by lecturer.

#### 1.9.4 Instrument of the Research

The instrument of the research is the writer herself. The researcher is as the source for collecting data. As the instrument of the research, she more comprehends the data for giving more information clearly, and accurately. Her source material can be course books.

The instrument of the study is the researcher her self. According to Moleong (2008:9), in the qualitative research the intruments of the study is the researcher her self or with other people as a tool to collecting data and concern with the interview or study of document because only the researcher who can take acount with respondents or the other objects and also understand the fact that happen in the field. In this study, the researcher her self was the instrument to collect data through interview and study of document.

#### 1.9.5 Techniques of collecting data

The main data of this study is lecturer select listening material through competencies. To answer the researcher questions, this research employs two data collection methods, which are document analysis, interview the expert about listening materials. Based on Cunningsworth (1995), Creswell (2014) Harmer (2001) and Scott and Ytreberg (1990), the procedurs of analyzing the books can be describes in several steps bellow:

- 1) Determining the instrument of evaluation of the textbook
- 2) Requestiong the experts about select and choose listening material in syllabus and the English textbooks.
- 3) Categorizing the component of the textbooks finding base on the criteria of textbooks.
- 4) Interpreting the data, recalling them theories.

According to Creswell (2014), there are four steps in the process of the data collection of qualitative research.

- 1) Identifying the participants and sites on purposesful sampling;
- 2) Having great permissions to the participants



- 3) Collecting data process
- 4) Recording the information supplied by the participants;

In this study, the researcher does not use observation because of some reason. First, Listening is receiving the transfer of images, impressions, thoughts, beliefs, attitudes and emotions from the speaker (Rost, 2011: 2). So that it cannot be done by just once observation. The researcher has a limited time and power to do that. Second, Richards (1993: 3) states that one view of how to improve teaching is through the use of instructional materials, so that “quality of teaching became about through the use of instructional materials that are based on findings of current theory and research.” How can the researcher observe in listening material because that reason. The researcher is afraid of disturbing their pleasure if doing observation.

#### 1.9.5.1 Interview

Qualitative data was collected via interview. The researcher examines a lecturer by interviewing him about the materials that was being used lasted today. The evaluator is Mr. Edy Waloyo, M.Pd., the researcher need to know how the lecturer select and create those listening materials, and how listening materials are relevant used by the lecturer to expected competencies. For the questions, the researcher used interview which is stated by Alan Cunningsworth (1995) in which the questions are formulated for this theory. The questions of interview can be seen totally in Appendix 1. The primary data of interview is a lecturer of English department of IAIN syekh nurjati Cirebon in English Language teaching second semester.

#### 1.9.5.2 Document Analysis

Qualitative researchers may use written documents or other artifacts to gain an understanding of the phenomenon under study. “The term documents here refers to a wide range of written, physical, and visual materials, including what other authors may terms artifacts” (Ary, et al, 2010: 442). The researcher used some documents in collecting data process, books’ resource used by lecturer, syllabus design, reports, it provided to reach some important information that related to the study and support the theory used in, the researcher select one book as a guide to syllabus design in teaching listening at workplace.

#### 1.9.6 Technique of data analysis

The technique of collecting data in this study was interview and document analysis. In collect the data of interview, researcher made an appointment with the lecturer to



interview, then researcher give the list of interview to know more deeply the questions and recorded the interview in the beginning until the end. Furthermore, there are some procedures in analysing the data. First, categorize the data into two aspects through Objective and Learning outcomes. Second, analyse and interpret the data to answer the second question “how relevant is the listening materials used by the lecturer to the expected competencies?” Third, analysing and interpreting the data to find out the relevance syllabus design between objectives which analysed through vocabulary and discourse. Then, for learning outcomes which analysed through knowledge and skills based on syllabus design is created by a lecturer. Finally, reporting the result of the research descriptively.

### 1.9.7 Research Timeline

The research spends 120 days to investigate ESP listening materials through competency perspective. The study consists of some stages, organizing research proposal, observation, conducting study of document, analyzing data from study of document, preparing interview, conducting interview, analyzing data, checking and evaluating research. The stages of the research are shown as following in the table research time line.

**Table 2 Research Timeline**

No.	Agenda	Time Allocation
1	Organizing Research Proposal	10 <sup>th</sup> – 30 <sup>th</sup> of May 2016
2	Preparation Identification of the phenomenon, the participant	7 <sup>th</sup> – 20 <sup>th</sup> of June 2016
3	Data collection and searched the theoretical foundations	21 <sup>st</sup> – 30 <sup>th</sup> of June 2016
4	Conducting Study of Document	11 <sup>st</sup> – 30 <sup>th</sup> of June 2016
5	Analyzing Data from Study of Document	19 <sup>th</sup> – 30 <sup>th</sup> of July 2016
6	Interview Section	1 <sup>st</sup> of August 2016
7	Analyzing data	2 <sup>nd</sup> – 7 <sup>th</sup> of August 2016
8	Describing data analysis and conclusions	8 <sup>th</sup> – 14 <sup>th</sup> of August 2016
9	Checking and Evaluating Research	15 <sup>th</sup> – 16 <sup>th</sup> of August 2016





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