

ESP Materials Development - Theory and Practice (Final)

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Malang, June 2011

Kun Aniroh Muhrofi- Gunadi

Preface

ESP Materials Development: Theory and Practice partly reflects the concern with the fact that shift of teaching English from General English to specific English will be needed in the near forthcoming years. This is because English teaching has been started since elementary schools. This phenomenon has to be anticipated by the English teachers in the sense that when the students have acquired the language, the English teachers have to concentrate on the teaching not only in the language but more on the specific subject or content. One of the ways to anticipate this phenomena is by functioning. English teachers as a course developer by writing the materials for their students. This can be carried out by themselves or in cooperation with other subject specialists.

The book consists of the theory, principles and practices of ESP where the readers can get the clear idea of General English, ESP, EAP and EOP, the principles of instructional materials and how to get the data, evaluate the data and also to make an analysis on the data. These topics are distributed into five chapters which consist of the theory of English for Specific Purpose; The Practice of ESP in Materials Development; Materials Development in Relation with CLT, Competency Standards of Hotel, and CTL; Methods of Development of Instructional Materials; Procedures and Validation.

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CHAPTER I

The Theory of English for Specific Purposes

A. Introduction

Chapter I provides both conceptual and empirical perspectives that provide the bases for the writing of topics on English for specific purposes (henceforth ESP). Literature review in this section is completed to address several important issues related with materials development.

The literature review will encompass those topics linked with, first, English for Specific Purposes in the sense as forwarded by Hutchinson and Waters (1987) and Dudley-Evans and St. John (1998). ESP is considered relevant for discussion as the teaching of English to cater for students' need of functional skills of English in hotel-related dealing necessitates a strong understanding of principles of English instruction as implemented in a highly particular context rather, than those principles of general English instruction. The knowledge derived from understanding the principles and practices in ESP will serve for the researcher as a thoughtful and useful basis for further methodological processes required in the current study.

Next, the topic of discussion presented in this chapter also deals with functions and notions in English. The use of English in a highly special setting (Widdowson, 1979:8; Widdowson, 1983) requires actively the operation of restricted language functions and notions (Mackay and Mountford, 1978:5), which follows that verbal communication can advance in so efficient and effective a manner that meaning negotiation can be mutually compromised well, which in terms of learning, prospectively enhances acquisition (Long, 1985). As such, it is considered relevant to review what language functions and notions are commonly used in special setting of language use.

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In addition to this, communicativeness in the realm of English language teaching has become a landmark that every conduct related with teaching English in the classroom needs to consider. Cur-

rent English classroom practices are desirably those envisioned by the idea of equipping the learners to become English users communicatively. It is therefore all efforts, including the provision of instructional materials, are geared to the implementation of communication-based practices. A review on the concept of communicative competence and its classroom practices seems to be relevant.

Besides, it is also deemed necessary to review issues related with measures of English competencies as recognized in the international circles of hotel industries. In the globalization of people's mobility to travel from one place to another as tourists, English recognized widely as a means of global communication (Parkir, 2000:14-31) has been considered the most established medium of communication (Wongsothorn, 2000:327). The International Hotel Association considered it crucial to establish a code of English competences for all those working in the hotel industries to envision them as an international benchmark to put into account (*Joint Australia Indonesia Competency Standards for Hospitality Industry, 1999*). This standard as its name suggests has international coverage. This implies that standard functions as a point of reference that sets up a kind of accepted quality assurance for anyone working in the hotel Industries to observe in providing hotel-related services through English. Therefore, the review will touch on what the international standards of English are and how far and how the outcome of the current study is in approaching the standards.

Finally, the review will be directed to principles and practices of instructional material development. The current study aims as its ultimate goal at producing a set of instructional materials in the form of a textbook of English. Ellington (1985:28-33) outlines conceptual stages that lead to the decision for producing instructional materials. This implies a necessary need to view what and how principles and practices of instructional material development in general can be practically picked up as the theoretical and practical bases for the purpose of developing the textbook of English as the outcome of this current study.

The following section provides the discussion of each of these five main topics. The topics and their order of the presentation of the topics are set up as follows: ESP: concepts, principles and practices, functions and notions in English, instructional material development and International Competency Standards of English in Hotel Industries.

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B. ESP: Concepts, Principles, Types and Practices

ESP is not a new trend in the sphere of English teaching practices. Candlin (1978:vi) and McDonough (1984:1) document that the 1960s can be regarded as the momentous onset for the development of ESP where converging forces in these periods come coincidentally together (Hutchinson and Water, 1987:6) to begin to shape up the now-so-called ESP. To review the development of ESP, it seems fitting to make an analogy with an economy principle. In economics, there has been commonly believed to subsist a working principle of a supply-demand equilibrium. A compelling demand incites the delivery of supplies; sufficiency in supplies holds back demanding forces. Speaking historically, this principle seems to have been applicable to conditions depicting one of the factors that contribute to the emergence of ESP - English for Specific Purposes. Hutchinson and Water (1987:6-8, cf. Candlin, 1978:vi-vii) note three important forces as contributory factors in ESP. First, there is international-scale spreading out of scientific, technical and economic movements (Bhatia, 1986:10), including 'the growth of business and increased occupational mobility' (Kennedy and Bolitho, 1984:1) in which English manage to meet the inevitable demand for a medium of international communication. The other factor is a shift in language studies from a tradition of defining and describing rules of language onto a practice of finding out how language is actually and naturally used in real communication. Studies carried out under this scheme reveal 'varieties' of language along the line with differing social contexts, thus there being, for example, medical English or English of banking. Finally, there comes up in the teaching practices awareness emanating from educational psychology regarding the need to emphasise on the learners' learning welfare. Learners come to learn English with their differing needs and interests, which educationally needs to be attended to (Munby, 1978; Robinson, 1980:10).

Up to the present moment, where ESP has enjoyed almost three decades of its existence, the awareness of the fact that context-dependent English exists and differences in the students' needs and interests in learning English are indisputable has become dominant guiding features in ESP practices (Hutchinson and Water, 1987.8; cf. Brinton, Snow, and Wesche, 2005:vii, 3-7).

The emergence of ESP as a new movement since its birth has invoked a vast spectrum of responses in English instruction (McDonough, 1984:1), be they at the conceptual level (for example, several academic works in Master, 1998; those in Swales, 1998; and those in Peterson, 1986) and at the practical level (for example, MacLean's *English in Basic Medical Science*, 1975, Webber and Seath's *Elementary Technical English*, 1984; and, White's and Drake's *Business Initiatives*, 1989). As a consequence, there are many conceptualizations concerning ESP (cf. Widdowson, 1983), and models of design of instruction based on ESP (Peterson, 1986), which may contrast each other, and thus potentially leading to confusions among teachers as practitioners in the classroom. To gain a clear picture of the current state of affair of ESP, therefore, it is necessary to review concepts, principles and practices in ESP

C. Concepts of English for Specific Purpose

On the conceptual level, the surfacing of ESP onto the community of English Language Teaching (ELT) profession in 1960s (Master, 1985:17) is not automatically appreciated with warm welcome by all those already there in the community. As a new comer to the ELT circles, the promising popularity in attracting more attention among practitioners and educational experts alike contributes to ESP's rapid development. At the same time new terminologies, such as needs analysis, alien to the mainstream ELT utilized. To some (Widdowson, 1983, for instance), this gives the impression that ESP is a new movement separate from mainstream ELT (McDonough, 1984:1).

Master (1985:17) sees that ESP comes up in response to an increasing need ⁵⁷ medium of international communication in almost walks of life in which English as then a *lingua franca* manages to meet the demanding situations. Thus, the concept of ESP starts of from a '... recognition of the need for relevance in English language teaching.' Hutchinson and Waters (1986:1) see it rather differently. The emergence of ESP is due to escalating learning needs other than those of grammar and literature in the already existing ELT practices. They use an analogy that the established situation in 'the City of ELT', of which teaching orientation is conventionally devoted to the teaching of grammar and literature, begins to dramatically change along with the incoming ESP. The already existing ELT, it is argued,

can no more support the new emerging learning needs which begin to get bigger in size. Unable to find a fitting place in the city, the new movement founds another new city called an ESP city as a consequence (Hutchinson and Waters, 1986:1).

McDonough (1984:1) argues that ESP is not a separate development within ELT, nor does it inhibit a new city. It is designated obviously from the instructional bits and pieces in ESP that several ideas from sociolinguistics and linguistics (Master, 1985:17) contribute to shaping the ever developing ESP. However, its two-way incongruous background disciplines on which ESP stands: applied linguistics and educational psychology (McDonough, 1984:2; Hutchinson and Waters, 1986:8) represent a potential source of suspicion that ESP is a separatist. In the ELT tradition, the introduction of linguistic instructional stuff dominates the business of instructional design and teaching practices. A shift from such an ELT tradition to the analytical recognition of the students' learning needs is presumed to characterize the separation of ESP from ELT circles (Master, 1985:18) although it is also recognized long before the emergence of ESP that the success of an ELT course program by design is dependent upon the identification of the aim(s) of the learners. The danger happens, however, when learners' needs analysis is understood in a very rigid meaning which comprises a decisive feature in a course design, thus overruling other considerations (Widdowson, 1983:14).

Another important issue which comes over with the ESP emergence in the world of English Language Teaching (ELT) is a controversy over the differing of conceptualization whether ESP dictates dependence¹³¹ of methodological matters for classroom practices on ESP, or ESP is³⁵ approach to teaching English (Swales, 1988:viii), independent of a particular kind of language, teaching material, or methodology (Dudley-Evans and St.John, 1998:2). In spite of the argument, in Swales' words (1988:viii), both view actually acknowledge the important function of methodology. However, both view differ markedly in how methodology should characterize the overall business of teaching processes.

The former view is strongly advocated by Widdowson (1983:108-109) who argues that the method of ESP should not be separated from the learning activities themselves for there is a need to integrally bring together within the framework of ESP specific

areas of activity already identified and those corresponding to learners need. Thus, as Charles puts it to say, the teaching and learning of English in business, for example, necessarily reflects the business contexts where meetings and negotiations normally would take place; in the same way, as Widdowson believes, English learners of EAP, no matter what subject matters they affiliate, need to exercise problem solving methodology (Dudle-Evans and St Johns, 1998:4). Methodology is placed in the exact core of ESP methodological operation (Widdowson, 1983:107). With this regards in mind, ESP is seen as training development of restricted competence in terms of specifying objectives which is considered equivalent to its aims (Widdowson (1983:7) while, it is argued, objectives and aims differ considerably in their operation: objectives work at the training level; aims at the education level.

The latter, on the other hand, is a claim made by Hutchinson and Waters (1986). This new movement upholds the view that ESP must be seen as an approach not a product. ESP is not a particular kind of language or methodology, nor does it consist of a particular type of teaching material. It is an approach to language learning, which is based on learners' need. Methodology is independent of approach to language learning.

In terms of English, viewed from their outlook, Hutchinson and Waters (1986) seems right because the discussion on the English for Specific Purposes (ESP) commonly touches on the discussion of General English. This seems to be inevitable since historically General English has characterized the teaching of English long before the emergence of the influence of sociolinguistics perspectives on General English teaching practices (Master, 1985:17), which leads to the emanation of English for Specific Purposes (cf. Hajjaj 1986) although according to Brumfit (1979), the newness of ESP just lies on the focus of emphasizing the student-centredness.

However, the implication on sustaining exclusively the incompatible concepts of ESP as asserted by either Widdowson (1983) or Hutchinson and Waters (1986) is sizeable in the face of the working levels where, for example, instructional design or material development is necessarily to be put into operational practice. The adherence to the former view potentially results in unnecessary complication in finding out the right choice of exclusive teaching methodology which seems to call for mostly painstaking efforts and to be

strenuously beyond reach for practical purposes let alone on the parts of the teachers. On the other hand, commitment to maintaining the latter belief is, as Swales (1988:vii) sees it to believe, prone to sterile teaching practices hazardous in equipping students with insufficient knowledge and skills necessary for their extensive real life roles.

Emphasizing offensively the contrast of viewpoint concerning ESP as described previously can be contra-productive if the orientation is put forward for practical pragmatism in the classroom. First, not only does the controversy touch on the level of highly academic arguments, but it also tends to shade the real need of classroom practices. Next, classroom practices commonly do not bother too much with theoretical controversies such as the one just illustrated. They just normally carry on what compels to teach although they make mistakes in their undertaking. Candlin (1991:xi) vibrantly characterizes the situation as an unhealthy environment in the teaching profession, in that 'language teaching ... has suffered particularly from these recipes [*of conceptual theorizing*] for ills.' (Note: [*of conceptual theorizing*] added).

Therefore, a compromise is conceivably the paramount solution for the sake of classroom needs. It is an undeniable belief that instruction needs a particular kind of language, teaching material, or methodology and at the same time it also calls for a certain perspective to advance. What is likely more important is to ascertain the state whether English learning in the classroom takes place on the part of the students. Recognition of both for solicitous pragmatism in the classroom seems to be more importantly fruitful than argue how conceptually to place them in the world of teaching practices in real classroom contexts. For example, it would be prolific to recognize and adopt a view that there is a need to reflect the methodology of the professions and disciplines that ESP can serve. Also, the nature of interaction between the ESP teacher and learners, recognized as methodology, can be different from that in English for General Purposes (EGP) classes (Dudley-Evans and St Johns, 1998:4). Eclecticism, as it may be called, clearly echoes Nunan (1991) when he says:

An important task confronting ... teachers concerned with second and foreign language learning is to overcome the pendulum effect in language teaching, (... which....) is most evi-

dent in the area of methodology where fads and fashions, like theories³⁸ grammar, come and go with monotonous regularity. The way to overcome the pendulum effect is to derive appropriate classroom practices from empirical evidence on the nature of language learning and use and from insight into what makes learners tick (Nunan, 1991:1)

Thus, to take a stand to keep up selective measures of concepts becomes apparently necessary at this stage. This then is followed up with taking a real action albeit potentially resulting in yet unfruitful outputs. This is true with the current study. There is no attempt to strictly adhere to differing conceptualizations on ESP as aforementioned. Thus, there is no place in the current study to question how to place a methodology nor is there a place to doubt the significance of taking a viewpoint approach. However, it should be acclaimed from the outset that attachments to both views are limited down to ideas obtainable and workable from both, or possibly others in order to be put into practice. In other words, there is a dynamic need to experientially venture with the existing concepts and take the lessons learned. Johns (1998:9) states that ‘... despite the obstacles..., we must continue our efforts to make our classes as specific to student purposes and approaches to learning as possible.’ This study then makes good use of potential ideas of the existing concepts on ESP, be they from Widdowson's or Hutchinson's and Waters', or possibly others' where relevant.

As a concluding remark for this section, however, it is necessary to raise several important points resulting from the discussion abovementioned, two of which are worth pointing out. First, the idea that ESP is an approach independent of a particular kind of language, teaching material, or methodology encourages the exploratory surfacing of an important field of language instruction to date. This is the so-called Language for Specific Purposes (LSP for short) or Language for Special Purposes (Robinson, 1980:5)¹ which according to Widdowson (1983:1) has also gained a significant ground of popularity in the spheres of language teaching prior to the establishment of ESP claimed as an approach to language instruction. Principles of both, essentially however, share common grounds. This

¹ the terms 'special' is thought to suggest special languages i.e. restricted languages
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LSP like ¹³ is fitting with and considers the lion's share of the view initiated by Hutchinson and Waters (1986), in which ES³⁵ is viewed as an approach to language teaching, independent of a particular kind of language, teaching material, or methodology (Dudley-Evans and St.John, 1998:2). Thus, if this is correct, then the commonly-known ESP, in order to cater for a wider spectrum of practices in language instruction in general, should be understood as LSP. Second, intensive exploratory works in the interest of the importance of teaching contents through language also pave their own way to the presumably-new enterprise of refinement of the so-called ⁹² content-based instruction as outlined by, for example, Brinton, Snow and Wesche (1989) in their content-based second language instruction

a. Principles of English for Specific Purpose (ESP)

Discussions on principles of ESP are seemingly inevitable from not referring to underlying concepts under which ESP is philosophically theorized. As abovementioned, the underlying principle on which to base the current study is eclecticism in the sense that the study selectively adopts the ideas best suited to developing the instructional materials as the ultimate output of the current study. With this in mind, accordingly, the discussion on principles in ESP is also performed on the basis of the principle. To start with, a perspective desirably needs establishing: ESP is an systematic approach to English instruction that needs to consider methodological practices in line with the purpose established on the basis of learners' needs and the learners' disciplines as well as professions thus recognized.

At the conceptual level, as its name suggests one prevalent and outstanding principle ESP holds is specificity of purpose. Care, however, must be exercised in this matter. The general principle of language teaching dictates a need to put language ability analysis into effect. This principle, as Widdowson (1983.15) puts it to state, has long been recognized in the practice of language teaching business as early as 1921 when Palmer maintains the importance of recognizing the learners' aim, which is also later preserved in a statement made by Morris in 1954. In this perspective, specificity of aims is associated with the need to analyse language abilities as required to perform successfully in a particular context, within which context can be interpreted to mean professions or disciplines. Thus, con-

text of language use is conceptually the overall gamut as the basis of analytically specifying the learners' aim.

Later development of ESP, however, begins to demonstrate a shift in giving the meaning of specificity of purpose. As Widdowson (1983:15) further puts it to date aforementioned, to some specificity is more narrowly interpreted to mean learners' learning needs. This latter view, in Widdowson's viewpoint, designates an analysis beyond the tradition of principles of language teaching in general. This new emerging view, however, soon gains ground and is further maintained as an important set of guidelines for those wishing engaged in ESP business. For instance. To Munby (1974), rather than on the teacher or the institution, supreme orientation in ESP teaching needs to be placed on the learner-centeredness. Strevens (1980) prioritizes specificity viewed from learners' learning needs as the first point to ponder in designing an ESP course. Robinson (1980:10) also argues that learners' learning needs are the key element in any ESP course. A similar view is also attributed to by Dudley-Evans and St. John (1998:4) when they strongly characterize ESP.

Conceptually, learner-centeredness issues appear plausibly amenable. In practice, however, operational constraints may acutely pose if critical cautions are not put into effect. As such, the latter view of specificity of purpose in terms of learners' learning needs calls for further comments. When the concept of individual learners' learning needs is projected onto the scheme of individualized and autonomy of language learning as is defined by Allwright, (1988:35-44), specificity in learners' need can be educationally fruitful. It is potentially fruitful as in the scheme the learners' needs constitute an important attention as a learning focus (Brookes and Grundy, 1988:1-11). In such autonomous learning circumstances, learners can identify learning sources that fit their needs provided purposefully to cater for learning needs. Even, to Robinson (1980:10) in such learner-focused instruction context, 'the learner and the teacher should be constantly aware of these purposes and not introduce irrelevant material into the course.' In the traditional English instruction setting (Allwright, 1988:35-44), however, where learners are inculcated with equal treatments of instructional materials as though they were of homogeneous needs while they inspire needs differently, operational constraints may rise in the teaching and learning process as it normally happens in a whole-class teaching prac-

tices. The rigidity in interpreting the concept of individual learners' needs can be a source of confusions on the parts of teaching practices. In the context of a large class sizing up to, say for instance, 20 or 40 learners in a one-time session as it commonly takes place in Indonesia, it is persistently unmanageable to cater for learners' differing aspirations should these be met. Thus, it seems safe to interpret individual learners' learning needs in terms of groups of learners having relatively similar learning goals. If this thinking readily can lay a common ground, then, the concept of learners' learning needs is best understood in terms of Morris (1954), Palmer (1921), and Widdowson (1983). in that there is of vast consequence to interpret individual learners' needs as a scheme referring to particular contexts of learning, including learners' disciplines or professions.

At a more practical level, however, ESP shares several features of operational classroom interest. Strevens (1980:108-109), for instance, establishes a set of guiding definition that ESP is the English teaching characterized by the following points, being, first, devised to meet the learner's particular needs; second, related in themes and topics to designated occupations or areas of study; third, selective (i.e. 'not general') as to language content; finally, restricted as to the language 'skills' included when indicated.

The definition maintains the importance of recognition of learners' needs over other facets such as discipline- or profession-based themes/topics, selective content, and restriction on language-related aspects. The definition mentions no signal on the involvement of methodology. This definition essentially confirms the kind of ESP that is against the one envisioned by Widdowson (1983) as previously discussed. Though not comprehensive in terms of the scope for teaching purposes (cf. Dubin and Olstain, 1986:6), in terms of practical purposes, however, the definition clearly puts several components in teaching under the sub ordination of the component 'the learners' need'. For instance, the definition provides a general direction as to how other an ESP syllabus is developed based on the recognition of learners' needs (Munby, 1978:2). Recognition of needs of prospective learners makes it possible for syllabus developers to explore the characteristics of target audience's need. This then facilitates other subsequent processes such as themes/topics selection to be included in the syllabus under interest. At the same time, selection of language contents and skills to be taught becomes spe-

cific, be they structural, situational, functional, notional, thematic, or lexical (cf. Dubin and Olsain, 1986:106). Such an approach, claims 41 evens (1988), is beneficial in some respects: the approach saves time, is relevant to the learner, successful in imparting learning, more cost-effective than General English (Duddley-Evans and St.John, 1998.9)

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Close to Streven's definition, another set of ESP definition is forwarded by Dudley-Evan and St.John (1998), who establishes two main characteristics of ESP: absolute characteristics and variable characteristics. As its term implies, absolute characteristics set up the utmost standard within which all types of ESP presupposes the features required therein; whereas variable characteristics imply conformity for some particular or restricted types of ESP. Absolute features of ESP in this regard 12 clude the following (Dudley-Evan and St.John, 1998:4-5): first, 'ESP is designed to meet the specific needs of learners; second, ESP makes use of the underlying methodology and activities of the disciplines it serves; finally, ESP is centered on the language (gramunar, lexis, register), skills, discourse, and genres appropriate to these activities.'

On variable characteristics, 8 Dudley-Evan and St.John, (1998:5) define the following points: first, 'ESP may be related to or designed for specific disciplines; next, ESP may use, in specific teaching situations, a different methodology from that of general English; also, ESP is likely designed for adult learners, either at a tertiary level institution or in a professional work situation. It could, however, be used for learners at secondary school level; finally, ESP is generally designed for intermediate or advanced students.'

A closer look at the ESP principles reveals that the absolute features of ESP as characterized by Dudley-Evan and St.John (1998) abovementioned represent ideas compromising those by Widdowson (1983) particularly with reference to the notion of a need to the utilization of discipline and/or profession-based teaching methodology. At the same time, nevertheless, the features also remain to echo the strongest claim of a 'new era' ESP, in that learners' learning needs are of utmost importance. In addition, the features embody attention necessarily paid to the instructional contents reflecting linguistic perspectives, implying an involvement of language as a means for communication. Further examination to these features obviously reveals that the unconditional principles of ESP seem

to rest on three-pronged pillars: learners' needs, appropriate methodology and language-related aspects. Thus, in this viewpoint any ESP course is reasonably those investing these three main beliefs at the bare minimum in its business.

The further four principles of ESP are adjustable to conditions. First, orientation to specific disciplines (and professions alike) implies correspondingly an emphasis on contents or subject matters as the message to be conveyed. This resounds a need to explore how content-based instructions (Brinton, Snow and Wesche, 1989) as well as task-based language teaching (Beglar and Hunt, 2002:96-105) might be performed for meaningful classroom practices. Of concern is its appropriate placement under an instructional principle of languages across the curriculum (Grenfell, 2002:1). The possible use of teaching methodology different from that of general English sets up another point **83** adjustability in the principles of ESP. Methodology perceived as 'classroom tasks and activities and the management of learning' (Nunan, 1991:2) can mean a vehicle for learners that facilitates the delivery of instructional messages to intended goals (cf. Richards and Rogers, 1986). Variability in using classroom tasks and activities as well as learning management is justifiable regarding several factors (see, for example, Nunan, 1991; Brown, 2001, and Richards and Renandya, 2002). Thus, the implementational selection of these methodological parameters may vary in practice along the line with factors such as learners' language learning strategies, language skills and components taught, and syllabus designs, including 'types' of English. Next, ESP is linked with both adult learners and/or possibly advanced students. This principle is possibly **37**st perceived in the context of target needs as conceptualized by Hutchinson and Waters (1987: 55-56). When **target needs are** meant to include **necessities, lacks, and wants**, these constructs are normally attributable to adults and, it is argued, not necessarily advanced learners though. Young learners, it is questionable, may not yet possess these adults' facets as their world is the world still characterized with attempts to understand their surrounding and finding self (Rixon, 1991:33). Therefore, the last two principles are basically expected to be naturally so. And, thus for instance, English for young learners by definition is beyond the community of ESP (cf. Mackay and Mountford, 1978.2-3).

Another view regarding the features of ESP is proposed by Hutchinson and Waters (1986). To emphasize this illustration there are some points that should be understood what ESP is not. Some points that ESP is not are the following. In the first place, ESP is not a matter of teaching 'specialised varieties' of English. The fact that language is used for specific purposes does not imply that it is a special form of the language, different kinds of other forms. Besides, ESP is not a matter of science words and grammar for scientists, hotel words and grammar for hotel staff etc, but ... is what the people actually do with language and the range of language and abilities which enables students to do. Finally, 'ESP is not different in kind of any form of language teaching that it should be based on the principles of effective and efficient learning' (Hutchinson and Waters, 1986: 18-19).

Robinson (1991:2-4) establishes several criteria for a course in order to be based on ESP, two of which are important. These are as follows: First, 'ESP is normally directed to a goal'. In learning English, a learner is guided by aims which may come either internally or externally or both. Or, to say in another way, a learner's underlying force for learning English is the establishment of a purpose or purposes associated with academic or occupational demands of using English. Second, 'An ESP course is based on a need analysis'. This criterion dictates that prior the undertaking of the teaching-learning business, there needs to be a kind of working out to portray as accurately as possible what the learners aspire with English.

Other features are claimed to be the characteristics of ESP. These include the characteristic that the undertaking of an ESP course is specified for a certain time period. Also, the target audience is adult learners.

So far, the discussion has dealt with what characterize an ESP course. The characteristics of ESP as outlined by several people in the ESP sphere above imply several points for a course to be developed on the ESP principles. First, an ESP course is necessarily based on the learner needs analysis; nevertheless, this principle should be exercised with cautious measures not to be overemphasized. Next, the target audience of an ESP course is typically adult learners-although it is argued that English course participants consisting of adult learners do not necessarily indicate that the course is an ESP course. Another important implication for classroom practices is that

the teachers of ESP classes duly have to a) get acquainted with specific content or subject matters, b) establish a close and mutual cooperation with subject matter specialists, dan c) be ready to adopt and apply relevant teaching methodologies that may be different from those would normally be employed in the teaching of general English. Also, the development of instructional materials in an ESP course essentially reflect to some extent an observance to results of the learner needs analysis, content of subject matters and specific disciplines or areas of study and professions or occupations.

b. ESP: Types and Practices

Prior to discussing practices with which ESP is generally associated, it is desirable to address issues related with practices in English language teaching which lay an emphasis on the specificity of disciplines or areas of study and professions or occupations. This will benefit the discussion that follows with regards to possible practices in the implementation of the English language teaching within such specified areas. Secondly, the discussion on area-specific teaching of English serves as a framework to examine the applicability of 'principled approach to the teaching of rules of use, and restore rhetoric, in a new and more precise form, to its insightful place in the teaching of language' (Widdowson, 1979:17).

D. Types of ESP

Based on the specificity in terms - thus far by and large understood to be - of disciplines or areas of study and professions or occupations, the fact that there has been a long list indicating such a specificity stemming from ESP (see Hutchinson and Waters, 1987:17 for the tree of ELT) is prevalently undeniable. For example, Dudley-Evans and St.Jo⁸⁷ (1988: vii) document this list as containing several acronyms like: EAP (=English for Academic Purposes), EBP (=English for Business Purposes), EEP (=English for Educational Purposes), EGAP (=English for General Academic Purposes), EGBP (=English for General Business Purposes), ELP (=English for Legal Purposes), EMP (=English for Medical Purposes), EOP (=English for Occupational Purposes), ESAP (=English for Specific Academic Purposes), ESBP (=English for Specific Business Purposes), EST (=English for Science and Technology), EVP (English for Vocational Purposes). Robinson (1994:xii) has another EPP (English for Professional

Purposes). McDonough (1984:6) adds to the already long list: EEP (=English for Educational Purposes), and ERP (=English for Recreational Purposes) and others. And this list can be lengthened.

Ubiquitous existence of these synonyms deserves a critical address. The purpose, of course, can be of different interest. The current study takes tourism as its broad ground within which English is fit into place as a medium of interaction. A quick look at these lists reveals that there exists no acronym presumably to be labelled as ETI (=English for Tourism Industries). Thus, the questions that immediately arise are follows: are these in the list really types of ESP? If any, on what bases are these types of ESP created and how? Are there agreed standards to which to refer? Or are they creative inventions? To answer these questions, a critical review is called for.

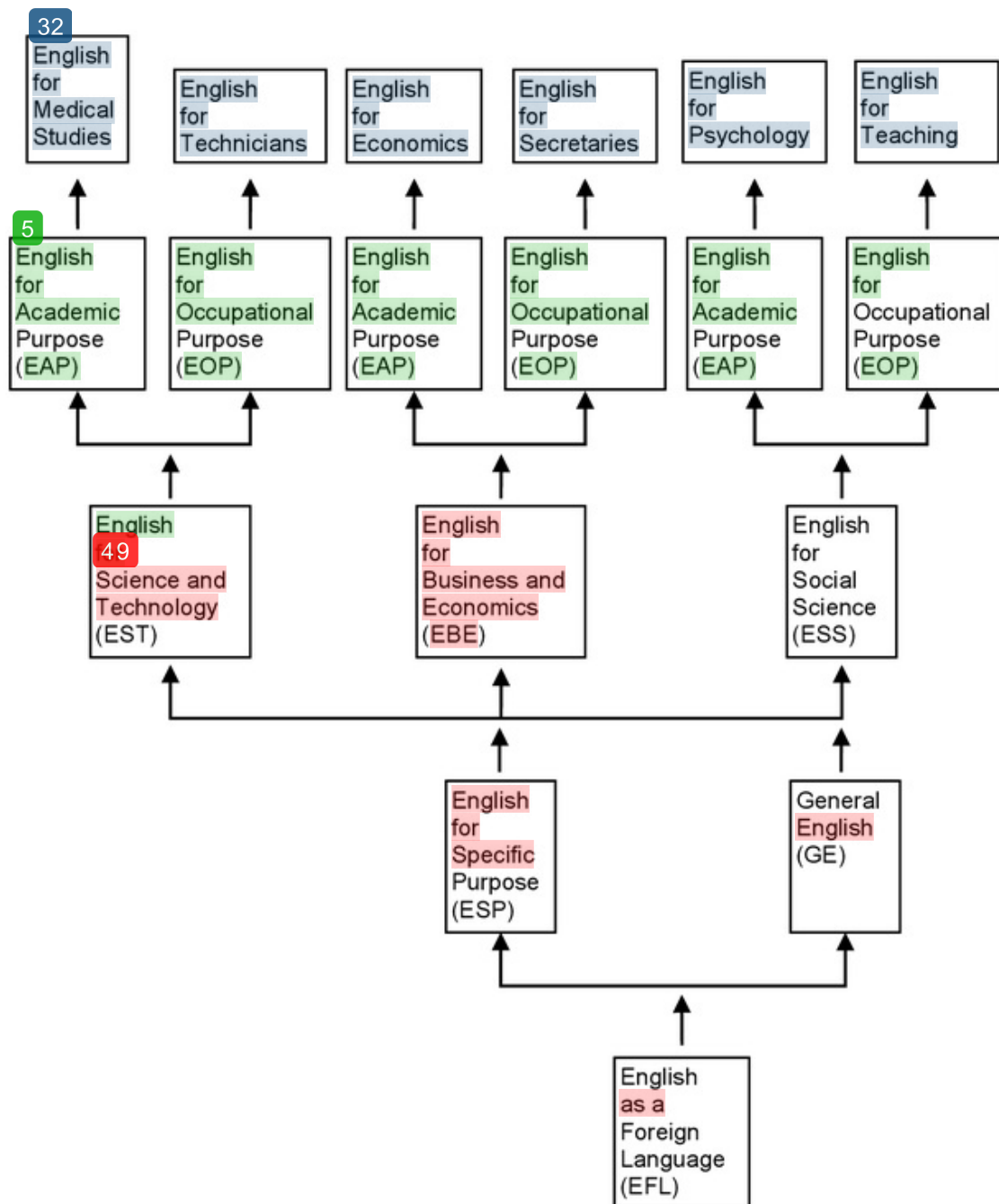
To start with, it is worth reviewing several categorizations as proposed by ESP experts. An interesting classification is offered by Hutchinson and Waters (1937:17). In showing the relation of ESP in the realm of language teaching, they make use the tree of ELT which roughly can be adapted in Figure 2.1. As shown in Figure 2.1, the stalk at which ESP to branch begins at EFL (=English as Foreign Language), sharing the same source with GE (General English). ESP then makes three other succeeding branches: EST (=English for Science and Technology), EBE (=English for Business and Economics), ESS (=English for Social Sciences).

Each of these branches subsequently off two other immediate branches, yielding each EAP (=English for Academic Purposes) and (EOP (=English for Occupational Purposes) or EVP (English for Vocational Purposes). Further each of these two branches are those Englishes for Medical Studies, Technicians, Economics, Secretaries, Psychology and Teaching respectively.

In specifying ESP, Hutchinson and Waters (1987:16) as illustrated in Diagram 1.1 above essentially utilize two main bases for vertical classification. These bases are (1) categorization based on distinction between work and study, occupying the next level just below the topmost branches; and (2) specialism occupying the next level just below categorization based on distinction between work and study. The topmost branches represent individual courses, which is necessarily not a classification because it, is argued, there can be differing courses taking place in this respect.

In this framework, then specialism constitutes a primary distinctive norm for further classification. In this regards, seemingly specialism is arbitrarily seen from three areas: *Science and Technology*, *Business and Economics*, and *English for Social Science*. If so, it is argued, then there are possibilities of adding other specialisms, for example *Humanities*. In the second level, the distinctive norm used is of two kinds: study and work or occupation. Based on this norm there accordingly spring two kinds of ESP: one for study orientation and the other for work.

If all this classification is true, then, the question arising is do people study for its own sake? Similarly, do people work for its own sake? How about those who study to work later? Or, those who work to study later (cf. Robinson, 1994:2)? These questions are important for the purpose of not only critically evaluating the classification offered by Hutchinson and Waters (1987) also proportionally placing the kind of English to be engaged for the purpose in the present study. When the concern is addressed to the first two questions and the answers are affirmative, then, it is likely that the classification is fitting. However, when directed to the third and fourth questions, the classification can be overwhelming. For example, do students studying at a tourism college learn English to study only or to work only or both? When English is viewed as a medium for communicating tourism theories, certainly they learn English to study. But, when English is viewed as a means necessary to facilitate their future profession, they need to learn English for work. Thus, they need both. The current study is concerned with the latter. Therefore, the kind of ESP to be dealt with in this study is the one for work or profession orientation.



**Figure 1.1 Classification of ESP by the British Council, 1975
(Adapted from McDonough. 1984:6)**

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As seen in the figure above, ESP is directly categorized on the basis of study and work, resulting in two immediate types of ESP: English for Academic Purposes (EAP) and English Occupational Purposes (EOP). EAP is further distinguishable as English for Science and Technology (EST), which, according to Hutchinson and

Waters (1987), is placed the other way around, thus EST is super ordinate to EAP.

In the British Council scheme it is not clear though on which basis EAP is specified into EST. However, when touching on the types of courses primarily, ESP, according to McDonough (1984:7), is recognizable on the basis of study and work. To Mackay and Mountford (1978:3), the use of language for study and/or work is attached to requirements in occupational, vocational, academic, or professional areas. On the basis of study, for instance, there are English for Electronic Engineering, English for Computer Science, and English for Social Sciences; whereas on the basis of work, there are English for Secretaries, English for Hotel Staff, and English for Doctors for example. Beside a classification by study and work, there are, however, other classifications of ESP based on research projects and geographical ones.

Robinson (1991:2-4) uses two versions to classify ESP. In the first version, ESP is distinguished into three: EOP (=English for Occupational Purposes) that is associated with work-related needs and training; EAP (=English for Academic Purposes) that deals with academic study needs, and EST (=English for Science and Technology) that involves both work- and study-related needs, thus cutting across both EOP and EAP. In making ESP classification, Robinson (1991:2) considers it necessary to take into account the degree of experiences of the learners. For example, in EOP, participants with different work experiences may be grouped differently. So do they in ESP as a school subject and in ESP for study in specific disciplines. Therefore, for instance, newcomers' ESP class will be different from an ESP class with more work experiences.

Almost similar to the classification in version 1 illustrated in Figure 1.2, classification version 2 also still considers learners' degree of experiences. However, in version 2 which is applicable to USA context, ESP is classified into three: EAP (=English for Academic Purposes), APP (=English for Professional Purposes), and EVP (=English for Vocational Purposes). This is shown in Figure 2.4. In his perspective, however, EST, considered to be 'the senior branch of ESP', characterizes these three types of ESP. He further specifies that EST at the level of training business and commerce areas falls within EOP/EVP or APP; whereas EST deals with EAP, but at the training level EST may be seen to be EOP or EVP. This classification

actually mirrors Robinson' ESP classification in version 1 described above in which EST characterizes EOP and EEP (cf. Widdowson, 1983:9).

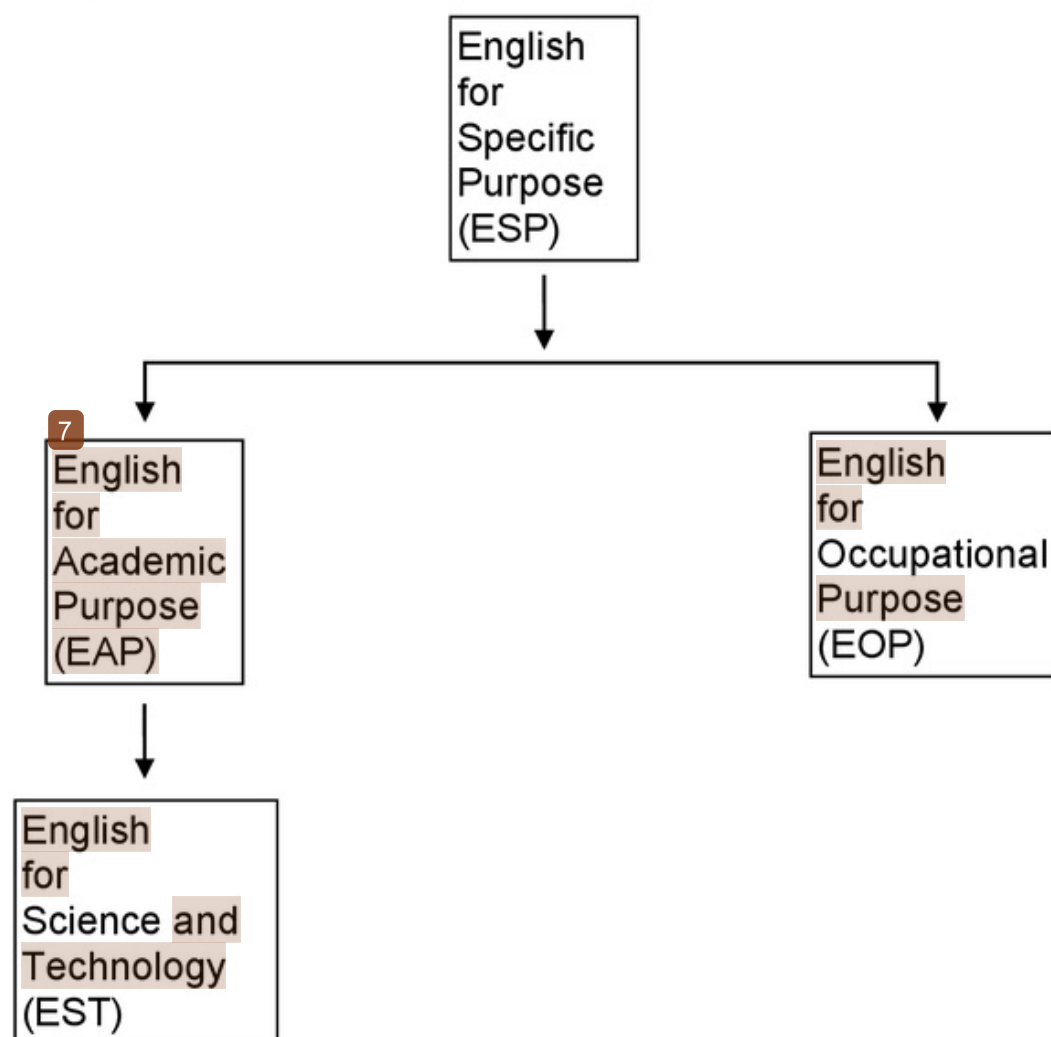


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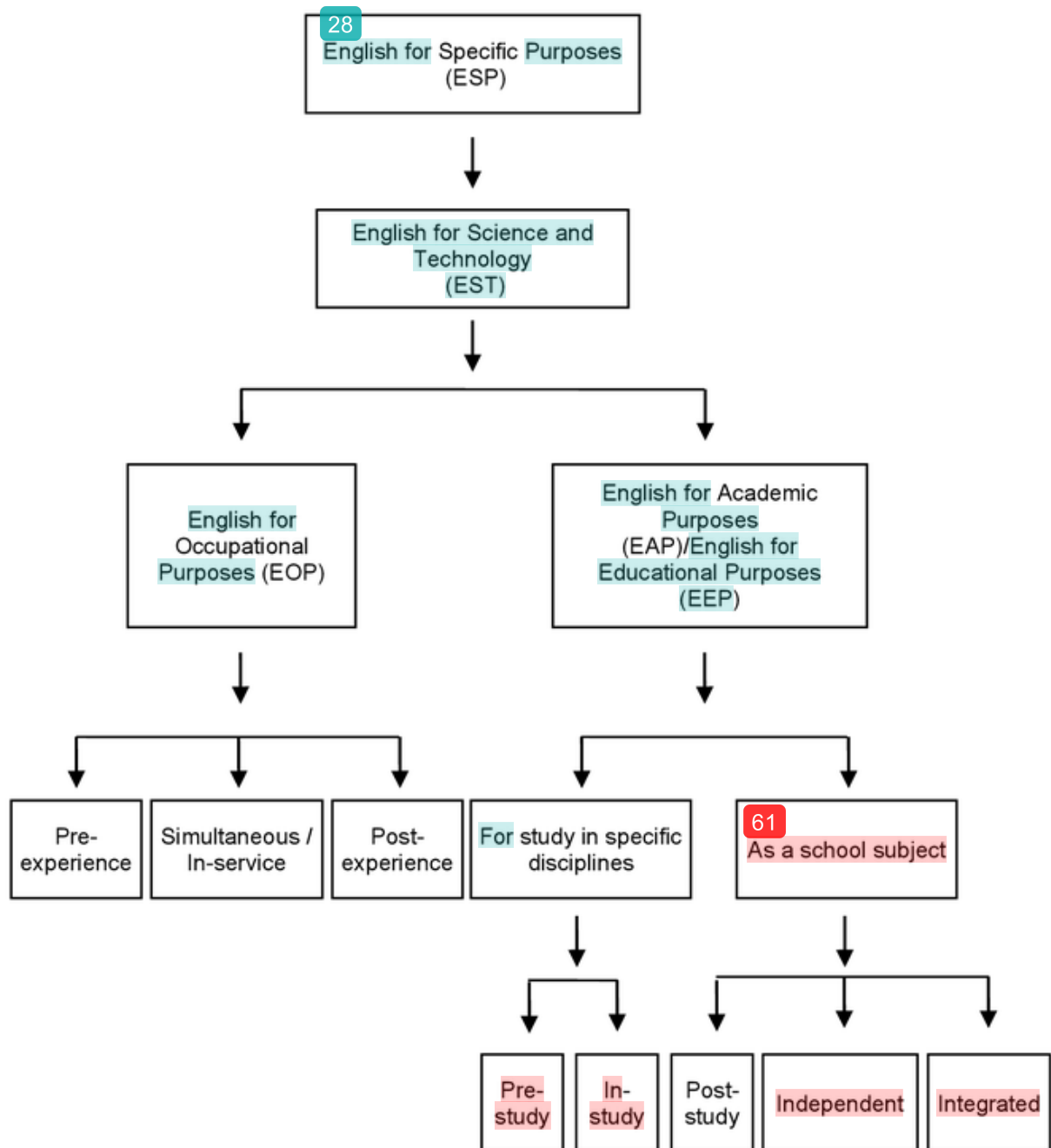
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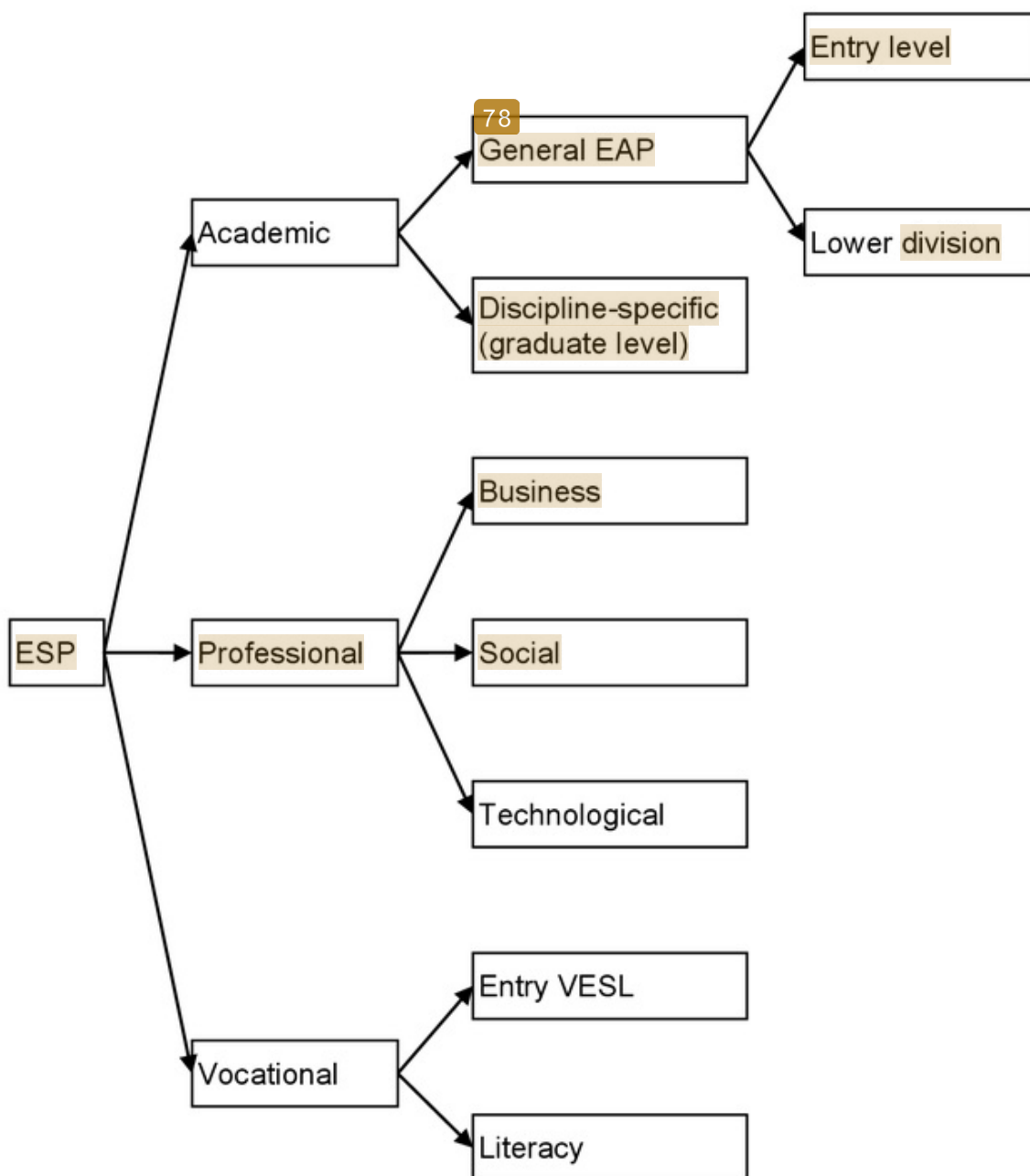
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**Figure 1.3 Types of ESP Version 1
(Adapted from Robinson, 1994:3)**

Although feeling somewhat uncomfortable, Swales (1988:vii) acknowledges the categorization of ESP as is mentioned by Robinson's ESP classification in version 2 described above. Thus, ESP is classified into 3 (three), which essentially reflects ⁵⁴ classification on the basis of distinction between work study: 1) English for Academic Purposes (EAP), 2) English for Occupational or Vocational Purposes (EOP) and (EVP), 3) English for Professional Purposes (EPP).



**Figure 1.4 Types of ESP Version 2
(Adapted from Robison, 1994:4)**

A useful point in his view is worth attending. When discussing EST, he uses an interesting concept to further classify EST; this concept, he claims, is also applicable to other process of sub-classifying other ESP doings (Swales, 1988:v). This concept concerns 3 (three) categorization bases: institutional setting, subject-matter, and activity-type. The first type of ESP holds ESP courses in such institutional-settings as: 1) schools, particularly technical secondary and

trade schools, 2) technical colleges, polytechnics, be they at undergraduate, postgraduate. or research and academic staff levels, 3) and specialized institutions, including technical translations, patents, research administration etc. The second type of ESP holds ESP courses in such subject-mater based contexts as shown in Figure 2.5 that follows.

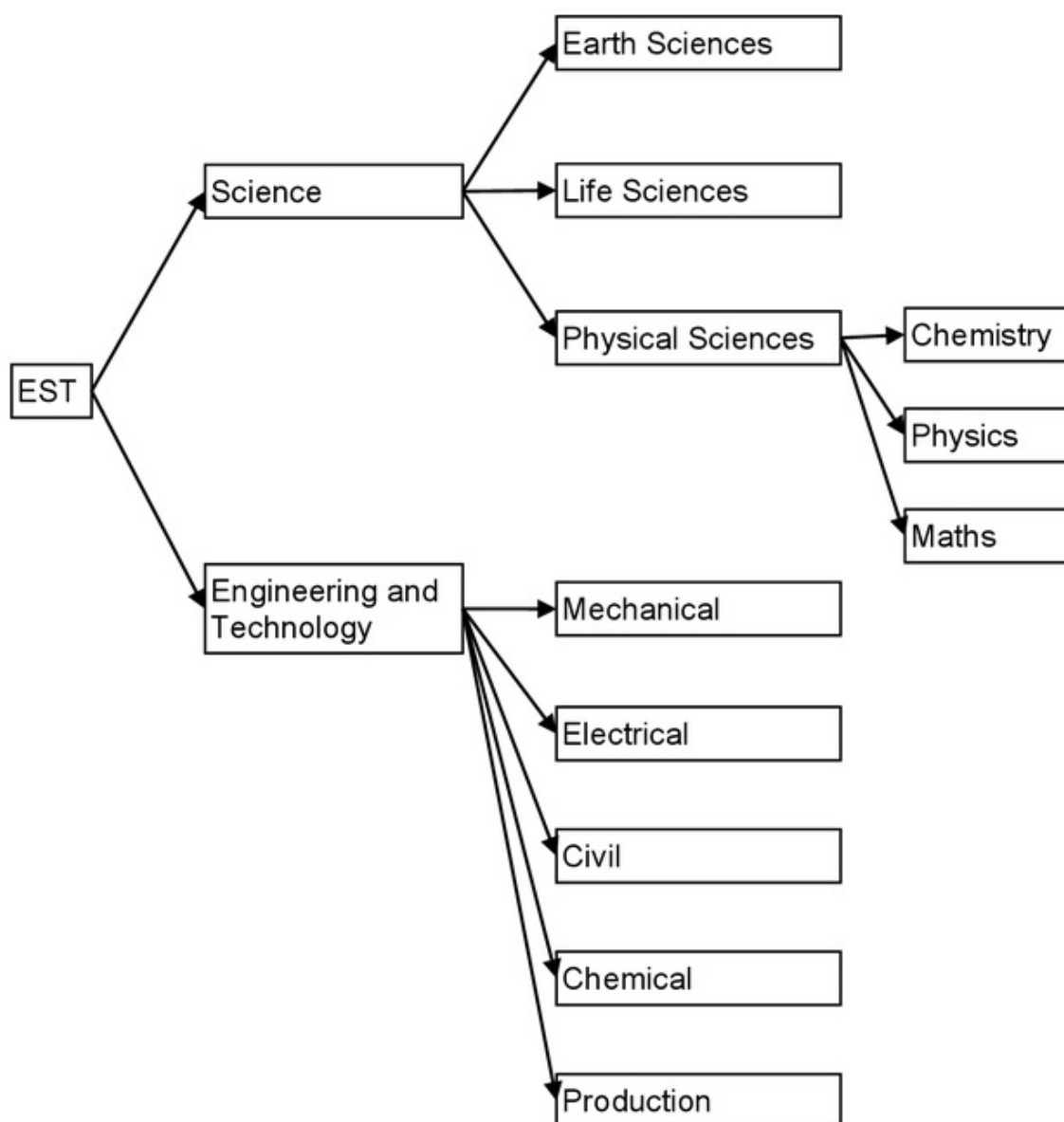


Figure 1.5 EST Types
(Adapred from Swales, 1988:v)

The third category is related with the types of activities the students are supposed to keep with regards to ¹²¹re-related activities. These simply include study skills involving the use of language. Including in this is a set of specialized English skills such as the

following: note taking, taking parts in seminars, reading and note-taking on textbooks, writing research reports, etc.

Swales' categorization of ESP thus far discussed has basically been similar to ESP classifications outlined by others. However, the elaboration of categorization on the basis of students' activities provides other important operational perspectives. His approach to such categorization is typically based on the recognition of language skills such as listening, speaking, reading, and writing, which, in the face of principles of English course design (Tomlinson and Masuhara, 2004) and materials development (Graves, 1996) provides useful pedagogical access and directions. It should be clear by now that types of ESP are real and exist. They come in many faces (McDonough, 1984:6) or types (Robinson, 1991:2), thus, potentially bewildering (Widdowson, 1983:9). Attempts have been made to clarify the classification; yet obscurity remains (Swales, 1988:xvi). Viewed from the bases of classification thus far exerted, nevertheless, the classification has generally been drawn on two levels. The first level concerns a conceptual criterion. It establishes a three-partite distinction of a work/occupation/profession, study/academic and discipline-research. At this level, practical operations for the purpose of language training are not yet relevant since the criterion merely provides an indication of direction of membership. The second level deals with an actual criterion. Due its specificity nature, this level is operational, in that practices for training purposes begin to be tangible. For instance, the target audience of the training turns out to be more obvious; needs analysis become apparent, and syllabus designing as well as material development may proceed accordingly and so on.

A reflection upon the review reveals that, first, the classification on ESP seems to be founded on a wobbly principle. Of theoretical concern is that to be more systematic, ESP classification ought to have systematically taken a model for taxonomical procedures as, for instance, proposed by Carolus Linneaus when applying the principles in biology to classify animals or plants. Therefore, there seems to be a need in finding out the clarity of criteria so that the *kingdom, familia, species, genus, and ardo* of ESP types can be more firmly established. Second, it appears also very likely that ESP is flexible, in that, to quote Robinsons' words, 'it is adjustable to' developments in all three realms of studies: language, pedagogy, and content'

CHAPTER II

The Practice of ESP In Materials Development

A. ESP in Practice

So far the discussion has touched upon concepts and principles pertinent to ESP. This has necessarily come into contact with academically exploratory issues on ESP. The following section deals with how ESP is to be put into practice. For the purpose several sub topics will be presented, particularly those sub topics that discuss the extent to which practices in ESP can be applied. Some theoretical perspectives on the issues may be inevitable in the discussion. These sub topics include Needs Analysis, Meaning of Needs Analysis. The foregoing is the presentation of the discussion on each of these sub topics.

1. Needs Analysis

In general, the term 'learner centeredness' has become an important jargon in language teaching practices and particularly in the teaching of ESP. To different people this term, however, can mean different things. Therefore, the term, it is desirable, needs clarification from the outset in the discussion of ESP practices.

Centeredness to learners may be interpreted in two distinct ways. The first interpretation implies paying more attention to the learners' learning characteristics. Second, learner centeredness means paying more attention to the learners' needs in learning. The former relates to psychological aspects the learners hold that might be brought to the instructional context (Nunan, 1991:178); the latter is associated with what skills and knowledge as learning expectations on the part of the learners to aim at (cf. Widdowson, 1998:21) so that they need to be addressed for the purpose of teaching-learning (Kennedy and Bolitho, 1984:11 & 135). Based on this framework of thinking, then these interpretations embody essentially different conceptions. Nevertheless, learner centeredness in both senses is useful in several ways in instructional business. For example, accu-

4 the identification of students' psychological characteristics, say their language learning strategies such as conceptualized by Oxford (1990), or that of learners' learning needs will serve an informative basis with which several activities related to instruction will work together, for instance 4 to design a course (Dubin and Ohlstein, 1986; Morrison, Ross, and Kemp, 2001; Smith and Ragan, 1993), to design a syllabus (Krahnke, 1987), to develop instructional materials (Nunan, 1988), or to select appropriate language teaching methodology (Nunan, 1995).

In the discussion that follows a focus is put on the second meaning, specifically, learner centeredness in terms of learners' learning needs as commonly initially understood in the context of ESP. Basically, the discussion on learners' learning needs relates to one important aspect in ESP, namely learners' needs analysis. Learners' need analysis to date has become a kind of an ESP 'corporate' icon: ESP necessitates learners' need analysis; and learners' needs analysis almost 60 ways relates to an ESP enterprise (McDoncugh, 1984:29) although it should be kept in mind that English teaching practices other than ESP also adopt this kind of analysis (Robinson, 1991:1). To review the concept of needs analysis, several points that follow will be discussed: meaning of needs analysis, advantages and disadvantages, procedures for conducting needs analysis which includes aspects like what instrument to use, how to collect data, how to analyze data, how to utilize the results of data analysis.

2. Meaning of Needs Analysis.

To start off, it is useful to present several ideas therein as discussed by Robinson (1991). As is argued by Widdowson (1983), (learning)² needs are considered necessarily as 'eventual (learning) aims' rather than (learning) objectives in the Bloomian tradition (see for example, Anderson and Krathwohl, 2001) of a taxonomy of learning objectives. In this view, (learning) needs have been rigidly interpreted to reflect a reductionist's endeavour to demote learning output. A very similar view regarding (learning) needs has been put forward by Brindley (1989:65) when he argues for absence of 'an objective reality' in the term 'needs'. This follows then that when

² the use of a set of brackets to the term 'learning' is made intentional as to emphasize needs as used in the context of learning.

placed on the view that 'objectives (in life) help us to focus our attention and our efforts; they indicate what we want to accomplish' (Anderson and Krathwohl, 2001:3), needs imply nonattendance of targets to make happen. In Lawson's words needs constitute 'agreement and judgement not discovery' (Lawson, 1979:37). As such, needs are necessarily weighted down with subjectivity. Robinson (1991:7) supports this view stating that learners' needs analysts with different ideological preconceptions of search conducts (Patton, 1990) likely come up with differing sets of results albeit working out on the same groups of data sources.

In terms of validity, such a concern on potential subjectivity, however, may be amenable and at the same time arguable. It is agreeable when a non multiple facet of search procedures is chosen as a sole strategy in data collection let alone with a single ideological preconception of search conducts on the part of the analyst. For instance, quantitative measures employed to scrutinize a set of data on needs likely yield quantitative discovery accordingly. In the same way qualitative perspectives brought into play in revealing the same needs of interest, it is argued, will generate a differing conceptualization of needs. The case may be minimized, not to say to be eliminated, when a combined mode of qualitative and quantitative measures are applied (Newman and Benz, 1998; Brannen, 1992); or, in cases where thoughtful triangulations are employed (Cohen, Manion, and Morrison, 2000; Patton, 1990) as an attempt successfully made by Jasso-Aguilar (1999). Thus, not in terms of substance, needs in terms of methodological data collections can still be substantiated.

Returning to the discussion on the fundamental nature of needs, there are different views proposed by different people in the ESP professions established on different conceptual points of view. Most of the views can be put in a dichotomous polarization. First, taking Bloom's taxonomy framework, Widdowson (1981:1) prefers an objective-oriented view referring needs to ultimate goals upon the completion of an ESP course. This view enunciates end-products of an ESP course that emphasizes specificity of language abilities as required from either academic disciplines, professions or occupations. This view gains a recognition from Berwick (1989:57) when considering needs as objectives. Unlike a product-oriented

view of needs, another view is process-oriented basically in that needs refer to intermediary skills or abilities that lead to the end-goals. In Widdowson's words, needs in this sense are 'what the learners need to do to actually acquire the language' (Widdowson, 1981:2).

In addition to these two, there coexist institutional needs as opposed to personal needs. Institutional needs of learning refer to those needs of learning as aspired by, as its name suggests, user-institutions for their staff deemed desirably compulsory to learn from a language training program (Mountford, 1981:27). On the other hand, personal needs are those needs aspired by individual learners to fulfil the conditions required by their academic or professional interest. In Berwick's view, this kind of needs is downgraded to refer to 'wants' or 'desires' (Berwick, 1989:55). Associated with personal needs of learning is needs in terms of absence or presence of knowledge and/skills in English, to which Hutchinson and Water (1987:55-56) refer as 'lacks' of a particular learners with regards to skills and knowledge required in the target workplaces or the target study environments.

Similar to a distinction of objective-oriented and process-oriented needs, needs can also be viewed from a notion of 'what the learners need to do in the target situation' and that of 'what the learners need to do in order to learn'. The former is termed target needs; the second learning needs (Hutchinson and Water, 1987:54). Target needs, namely 'what the learners need to do in the target situation' covers 'necessities', 'wants' and 'lacks'. In terms of who views', target needs may be in the interest of user-institutions or individual persons. Thus, 'necessities' is those target needs aspired by user-institutions; whereas 'wants' is those target needs craved by individual persons. Unlike 'necessities' and 'wants', 'lacks' is target needs desired by either user-institutions or individual persons. 'Lacks' is a kind of target needs that emphasizes on what learners necessitate to do at the target situation, the information concerning the presence of what results from analysing what they already know.

Learning needs, on the other hand, are those needs associated with the learning process or how learners to learn to do what they are required to and what they necessitate institutionally or personally in the target situations, their work place or academic environments. This kind of needs refers to needs in terms of the way the

procedures or the route (Hutchinson and Water, 1987:61) learners need ¹¹⁹ke so that learning processes can be optimum.

Based on the discussion, it is obvious that (learning) needs may be viewed from different angles of polar contrasts. First, they can basically be a product-process distinction. Next, needs are also seen as a pair of personal and institutional contrasts including educational and academic or professional ones. Distinctions of (learning) needs other than these are also identified. These are other pairs of needs contrasts like 'subjective-objective' and 'perceived-felt' (Robinson, 1991:8). In Brindley's view (1989:70), needs are subjective in that the needs reflect factual information about the learners in terms of their daily use of language, current language abilities, and constraints. On the other hand, objective needs refer to learners' characteristics in terms cognitive and affective needs (Brown, 2000, for cognitive and affective factors in language learning discussed therein) required for the context of language learning. Needs may also be viewed from the agents who perceive learners' needs and who feel the needs. For instance, in the needs classification of objective orientation, learners' learning needs may be perceived or felt by the teachers, the experts or the authorities. As with the learners, they may feel their learning needs in terms of objective needs but not certain subjective needs as their teachers are able to identify (Brindley, 1989:138).

Besides, it should be clearer now ⁴⁴ that the word 'need' as a noun reflects the meaning of 'a lack of something requisite, desirable or useful' or 'a condition requiring supply or relief' (The New Merriam-Webster Dictionary, 1989:490) as are used in the meaning of needs viewed from different angles described above. In addition, the scope of the concept 'learning needs' broadens, stretching originally from linguistic aspects to psychological perspectives. To sum up, so far the discussion has touched on the meaning of needs. According to The New Merriam-Webster Dictionary, the term 'analysis' can mean 'examination of a thing, to determine its parts or elements' (1989:43). For the purpose of this discussion, needs analysis can simply be defined as a systematic and exploratory conduct made to uncover significant information of not only a linguistic lack on the part of learners in learning a particular language but also the process needed by learner to arrive at the purpose. Ideally, as a con-

sequence needs analysis covers a variety of variables pertinent to the business of language teaching practices.

To most in the ESP profession (for instance, Dudley-Eva³⁷ and St. John, 1998; Richterich and Chancerel, 1977; Robinson, 1991) needs analysis is central in the development of an ESP course. The centrality of needs analysis obviously rests on how key components presumed to synergistically play a substantial role in the teaching learning processes (McDonough, 1984:14) are necessarily to be based on it (Nunan, 1988, 1995) most specifically in the stage of ESP course planning and development (Graves, 1996:12). Thus, key components like course objectives, assessment, curriculum, and resources are determined subsequently upon the satisfactory accomplishment of the process of identifying learners' needs (Richterich and Chancerel, 1977:4). In other words, by implication, as a process needs analysis precedes any other ensuing instructional activities and as a guidepost needs analysis is the most important seminal component that will direct the conduct of other related processes in instructions. As shown in the previous section, this practice, though recognized considered as important, has been much criticized by Widdowson (1983:20-21) as a practice beyond the tradition of the convention of language teaching pedagogy, in that it downgrades language learning potentialities from 'educational objectives' to 'eventual aims' when needs are viewed rigidly. Nevertheless, this practice is the one commonly much exercised and is ubiquitous in the conduct of ESP courses. The information resulting from needs analysis will then be utilized as the basis for among other things specifying course contents.

B. Functions and Notions in English

In addition to the discussions on matters related to ESP, the present study also considers it necessary to review theoretical concepts related with notions and functions. The advances in applied linguistics particularly those exerted by notable European applied linguists like, ordered alphabetically. Brumfit, Fillmore, Johnson, Morrow, Trim, van Ek, Wilkins, Widdowson, and many others have made it possible to explore and to establish the concepts notions and functions in language teaching. Just like other important elements attributable to language that have been much discussed like grammar and vocabulary, functions and notions constitute an inte-

gral part in the discussion of language teaching that orients particularly language use (Widdowson, 1983).

A notional/functional syllabus is one the content of teaching is a collection of the functions and notions that language is used to express. Functions represent the intention of the speakers like advising, complaining, suggesting, describing etc. They are related with communicative acts carried out through language whereas notions are a reflection of what human minds think. The categories that the mind and the language divide reality such as time, frequency, duration, gender, quality, quantity, number and so on (Wilkins, 1979). The move towards the functional and notional syllabus has been strong in ESP teaching materials because most of the students have been studying grammatical structures in the secondary high schools and they need to hear how to use the knowledge they already have. However, the functional syllabus has drawbacks that it lacks systematic conceptual framework and that it does not help learners to organize their knowledge of the language.

C. Instructional Materials

To start, it is likely important to set a ground in order to distinguish instructional materials from instructional contents or course contents. These terms are frequently used so interchangeably that they potentially grow to be a source of misunderstanding. However, it should be kept in mind from the start that these terms pedagogically refer to differing concepts (Smith and Ragan, 1993:6). Instructional materials are the mode that sets up learners' learning activity (Romiszowsky, 1988:9); instructional contents essentially refer to the subject matter as concepts, ideas, policies and information (Piskurich, 2000:115 and 253).

As conceptualized by Dunkin and Biddle (1974:38), instructional materials constitute a part of classroom context. As a part of classroom context, instructional materials essentially fit into the component 'instructional strategy' (Dick and Carry, 1996) in the practice of instruction (Morisson, Ross and Kemp, 2001:8). As such in a way, instructional materials provide the learners with learning experiences that are purposefully designed to cater for the achievement of the pre-stated learning objectives. This follows then that instructional

materials can be interpreted as a mode through which learning takes place. The medium contains selected instructional contents. In addition, the medium is purposefully created to link between the learners and the instructional content in the interest of the attainment of learning objectives.

Interpreted as a mode for learning to occur, instructional materials are frequently associated with instructional media in the sense of software (Romiszowsky, 1988:9) not to confuse it with instructional aids which is essentially physical and is commonly in the form of 'hardware' (Reiser, 2002:28). As such, instructional materials are 'carriers⁹¹ of (instructional) messages, from some transmitting (which may be a human being or an inanimate object) to the receiver (which in our case is the learner)' (Romiszowsky, 1988:8; boldface added; cf. Crawford, 2002:80-91). In this framework, books are considered one form of instructional media commonly used in the teaching learning process.

Viewed as 'information or skills carriers', instructional materials conceptually play an important role in the teaching learning process. There are several ways which instructional materials can take important parts in instructional processes (Morrison, Ross, and Kemp, 2001:170-175). In the first place, it directs the learners to the learning route for effective achievement of learning objectives. This way, they make it possible for learners stay tuned and focussed on purposeful learning. Next, good instructional materials enable learners to more easily understand the intended 'messages' of the instruction of interest. It is necessarily the concrete translation of pre determined learning objectives.

In addition, to translate learning objectives needs a strategy that provides a bridge to connect the objectives and the learners' state of existing knowledge and skills. Carefully developed instructional materials are those during development of which highly exercise this *step size* of instructional contents to match the learners' learning needs. Also, frequently delivery of instructional contents needs considerable attention. Abundant instructional contents that are parsed to learners all at once lead to ineffectiveness of learners' learning. Thus, through instructional materials there is an opportunity to manage appropriate pacing thoughtfully in presenting the instructional materials. Of interest is also consistent presentation of

delivery of instructional contents through instructional materials. Maintaining consistency is another benefit that instructional materials can play so that learning can be enhanced. Finally, through careful cueing, instructional materials are a good way to establish a structural building of the intended information on the part of the learners' mind.

It is obvious accordingly that by concept carefully-developed instructional materials benefit learners in several important ways. They are facilitative in the sense that learning becomes focussed and meaningful. The potential challenge that arises after the instructional processes are accomplished is that 'does functional learning take place as an effect of instructional materials?' Instructional materials as 'a learning vehicle or carrier' need to be able to take its passengers to pre-determined destination. In other words, good instructional materials are those that can extrapolate, thus necessarily providing a kind of assurance of success.

1. Principles for Designing Language Instructional Materials

Considering the importance of instructional materials, there are principles that need to be observed. When creating instructional materials, the developers need to link between syllabus and audience. In an idealized model, materials draw on the content of syllabus, reducing broader objectives to more manageable ones, course designs although they are available. Possibly they are not used by or unknown to the teachers most likely they are unknown by learners.

When the writers create for a local audience, they should be familiar with the needs of the learners, their age, level of proficiency, degree of motivation, cultural learning style etc. Many writers begin by creating instructional materials for a local audience, or at least by using their experience with a known group of learners and a known instructional setting and then project these needs on to a wider framework (Dubin and Olshtain, 1986:167).

Nunan (1988:1) mentions several key principles for designing language teaching materials. These principles, it is claimed, are derived from recent theory, research and practice in language learning and teaching. The principles are: 1) materials should be clearly linked to the curriculum they serve, 2) materials should be authentic in

terms of text and task, 3) materials should stimulate interaction, 4) materials should allow learners to focus on formal aspects of the languages, 5) materials should encourage learners to develop skills, and skills in learning-how-to-learn, 6) materials should encourage learners to apply their developing language skills to the world beyond the classroom (Nunan, 1988:1)

2. Textbooks as Instructional Materials

Though conceptually potential to be considered as an important learning component, textbook use in classroom invites another question needing critically attending: Once a syllabus is there available and taken it for granted, how would it be justifiable academically to 'interpret' intended skills and knowledge in a syllabus as instructional contents to be imparted to students? Is it that the teacher himself/herself who assumes a sole responsibility? Or, can teachers depend on the expertise of 'others' namely through textbooks?

Textbooks as instructional materials do not always attain positive responses among teachers and students as well. Their existence is likely at a crossroad not only in teachers' viewpoint (Harmer, 1998) but also in the perspective of several scholars (Crawford, 2002) alike. Harmer (1998:166-117) identifies several points of teachers' dissatisfaction with textbooks. First, textbooks are perceived as being 'boring' 'stifling' and 'inappropriate'. Some others consider textbooks merely as a collection of materials. Some claim that they know much better what and how to present materials than any textbook writers do. Crawford (2002:81) reveals that a criticism is launched that textbooks are associated with those teachers lacking competence and creativity in addition to their having potential cultural differences in attitude. As a result, these teachers are interested in 'making' instructional materials on their own, or conduct their teaching independently of textbooks. Grant (1987:7), however, argues that teachers falling into the latter category are those rare in being for they are either plenty of time to prepare their materials (cf. Crawford, 2002:81) or geniuses.

On the other hand, to some other teachers books are valued positively. Not all teachers are fortunate that they enjoy facilities required for teaching-learning processes to happen (Grant, 1987:5). The availability of even a single textbook can be a kind of extravaganza. To these teachers, and others in favour of textbooks, text-

books can be useful in several important ways. They provide a clear identity of what to teach students and in which order to present the contents. Next, textbooks also are indicative of teaching techniques, methods, or approaches to be exercised. Textbooks can also be a source of teaching contents that have been made available in an ordered, attractive, and efficient fashion. Furthermore, the availability of textbooks makes it possible for the teachers to save their time considerably as preparing instructional materials in their genuine meaning is potentially time-consuming. In addition, textbooks to students can serve as functional guidance for their learning (Grant, 1987:8). Not only these, textbooks are consistently inherent with a syllabus. Also, textbooks are readily at hand when teachers are being sort of ideas (Harmer, 1998:117).

The existence of two opposing views regarding textbooks is also recognized by Crawford (2002:81). Of the criticisms reviewed, she documents several that follow. At the agent level, it is observed that the existing textbooks are viewed as potentially being excessively decisive, in that they tend to dictate things that students and teachers are capable to do (Allwright, 1981). Not only this, textbooks are also prone to marginalize learner's role (Auerbach and Burgess, 1985) as well as teachers' creativity and personality (Gebhard, 1998). Next, from several linguistic perspectives it is noted that textbooks as instructional materials fail to equip learners with discourse competence (Kaplan and Knutson, 1993). Also, not all instructional materials successfully offer a model on how language is appropriately and realistically used in real life (Porter and Raberts, 1981; Nunan, 1989). This view is further supported by another similar observation stating that instructional materials of English fall short to contextualize language activities (Waltz, 1989). In addition to these, of other cultural concerns, it is remarked that English textbooks present inadequate cultural understanding (Kramsch, 1987) and at the same time are also lack of equity in gender representation (Graci, 1989).

While these pessimistic views may be true to some extent, others as Crawford notes (2002:82-83) consider textbooks useful in several important ways. For example, Donoghue (1992:35) is of the view that textbooks are 'an essential source of information and support'. To teachers, textbooks can assist in upholding sustainability of their professional development (Hutchinson and Torres, 1994). Others

perceive textbooks as an 'agent of change' for teachers to expect. However, there are conditions for this textbook role to occur (Crawford, 2002:83). These textbooks necessarily come with guides that suggest on how to make the most of them. Next, textbooks should not 'dictate' in a rigid term what and how teachers and learners behave in the classroom. In other words, classrooms' creativity and dynamic should not be constrained only because of textbook presence: No such textbooks ever control the teachers and learners. Also, classroom cultures can change with textbooks in so far as textbooks are really powerful in having a clear vision to go to. Classroom changes cannot be expected of a textbook with a 'weak' character. Finally, it is also argued that textbooks can be a medium that is potential for a shared responsibility and commitment if their use constitutes a school visionary policy. The importance of textbooks also extends to a role as 'a structuring tool' (Hutchinson and Torres, 1994) in that uncertainty, anxiety or stress arising from a classroom context of teaching learning process can be mitigated with the use of textbooks. Thus, textbooks can be a source that teachers can utilise to configure a class due to these unfavourable effects of learning.

To conclude this section, textbooks as instructional materials, are they serviceable as they intend to be or are they a nuisance? Just like Crawford, Ur (1996:83) also recognizes several situations concerning textbook use in the classroom: those who take for granted; those who abandon them, those who occasionally use when necessary, and those who compromise. But, she argues that textbooks should be critically evaluated, viewing both their constraints and their promises in order to, also in Grant's words (1987), make the most out of them and minimize or compensate for the second. Similarly, Crawford (2002) responds to this question as 'a matter of balance'. Personally, in the hand of a teacher, textbooks-in the scarcity of other learning sources to depend on- constitute an important educational role. Yet, it should not be too overemphasized that textbooks are the only route. They can be also used as sources of creativity other than those contained therein in the hand of a visionary teacher.

3. Criteria for Good Textbooks as Instructional Materials

Good textbooks are those that make learners learn effectively. However, how good they are good seems a matter of delicate views.

This is reflected by the presence of several criteria proposed by different people. All are equally important and at the same time all are equally posed with potential challenges for a textbook to cater for at once.

Crawford (2002), for example, suggests several points for textbooks in order to become an effective vehicle during the teaching learning process. Some of her views, however, are rather elusive. Some important points are worth presenting. In the first place, textbooks necessarily contextualize the language that they stand for. Language does not exist in vacuum. It has social context of use. This is such contextualizing functions that a textbook needs to represent. Next, textbooks need to focus on whole-text levels of language. This implies that meaning on language use is of primary concern. Authenticity and being realistic are another characteristic that a textbook should hold, in that the characteristic needs to provide a room for learners to explore to produce authentic language. In addition, language materials could do with a strong basis on which learners individualize their learning. Effective textbooks necessarily enhance autonomous learning on the part of the learners. In a whole-class context, individual differences are inevitable. It is therefore in these usual situations that textbooks call for a quality for such mass accommodation. Finally, meaningful learning is the one in which learners can engage their cognitive and affective potentials. As such, effective materials are those that can make learners activate their resources.

Some of the ideas above are shared by Hutchinson and Waters (1987). Yet, some are unique to Hutchinson and Waters (1987:107-108) when they set up several criteria as follows: 1) 'materials provide a stimulus to learning', 2) 'materials help to organize the teaching-learning process, by providing a path through the complex mass of the language to be learnt', 3) 'materials embody a view of the nature of language and language learning', 4) 'materials reflect the nature of the learning task', 5) 'materials can have a very useful function in broadening the basis of teacher training by introducing teachers to new concepts', 6) 'materials provide models of correct and appropriate language use'.

A more detailed and rather 'grounded' are those criteria proposed by Moore (1977). As quoted by Robinson (1991:61), the six criteria that instructional materials like textbooks need to possess

are as follows: purpose (Is the purpose clearly defined?), type (Does the exercise type effectively and economically accomplish the purpose?), content (Is the ratio of language given/student task economic? and Are instructions to students clear?), interest (Is it interesting?), authenticity (Is it a meaningful task? and Is it challenging?), difficulty (Does it contain distracting difficulties?). Hutchinson and Waters (1987:107) mention that 'good materials are those that do not teach: they encourage learners to learn. They contain: interesting texts, enjoyable activities which engage the learners' thinking capacities, opportunities for learners to use their existing knowledge and skills, and content which both learner and teacher can cope with.

Another view is succinct, straightforward, and readily applicable to textbook writing. This includes several criteria that are acronymized by Rajan (1997) as MAGIC, being motivating, meaningful; authentic, appropriate; graded; interesting, integrative (skills); and contextualized. Still another set of criteria is forwarded by Ur (1996:186). Her criteria are tangible in that they are practical and direct to the aspects of a classroom textbook. For example, a good textbook is the one in which its instructional objectives are explicitly stated at the beginning, which are further explored in the materials. In terms of layout, it is clear and attractive; fonts of the letters are easy to read. Also, the instructional contents of the textbook are clearly structured and are presented in accordance with graded levels of difficulty. The textbook also contains ample of authentic language that encourages learners to enhance autonomous learning.

To sum up, while all these criteria are useful, not all are voluntarily implementable in terms of producing textbooks for classroom use. The reasons are that other factors in the target learners need also to be put into account, for instance, age factor. Writing a textbook for adult learners certainly needs several aspects of the criteria put forward aforementioned which are necessarily different from the ones when writing for young learners, for example. Therefore, selectivity on criteria is inevitable

CHAPTER III

Materials Development In Relation With CTL, Competency Standards of Hotel, and CTL

A. On Communicative Competence

Discussions on communicative competence seem to be relevant ⁴³the context of instructional material development. It is argued that the ultimate ¹²⁸objective of teaching and learning English is the achievement of communicative competence in English as reflected in its corresponding communicative performance. Instructional materials in the teaching learning processes then provide the teachers and learners with a possible route that can lead them to the achievement of learning objectives. Considering the role of instructional materials, it is desirable to include the concept of communicative competence in this section to provide other theoretical perspectives useful for instructional materials development.

1. Outset of the Concept 'Communicative Competence'

It was Chomsky (1965) who first ⁹posed the need to differentiate the concepts 'competence' from 'performance'. Competence is defined as a presumed underlying ability, and performance as the aspect manifestation of that ability. Competence is what one knows, performance is what one does. Communicative competence is relative, not absolute, and depends on the participants involved (Savignon, 1983:8).

Chomsky's conceptualization on competence has been concerned with abstract formal linguistic knowledge. This knowledge is essentially an umbrella term that can manifest in a number of different forms, in which were then interpreted and completed by Hymes (1972) as communicative competence (Lavandera, 1988). Hymes (1972) has the opinion that Chomsky's idea on ideal listener-speaker in a completely homogeneous speech community and applying in actual performance is highly conceptual and is not realistic. Human beings do not communicate using a language in an idealized context but in a real social context. Hymes then proposes sev-

eral sectors of communicative competence in which grammatical is one. Linguistic theory which underlies grammaticality with respect to competence and acceptability with respect to performance is not enough. Therefore, he suggests that other forms of cultural communication should be taken into consideration. The four conditions for verbal communication to really take place (Hymes, in Pride and Hymes, 1979) require the existence of the following conditions: whether (and to what degree) something is formally possible; whether (and to what degree) something is feasible in virtue of the means of implementation available; whether (and to what degree) something is appropriate (adequate, happy, successful) in relation to a context in which it is used and evaluated; and whether (and to what degree) something is in fact done, actually performed, and what its doing entails.

Hymes' ideas of communicative competence contribute to the development of language teaching. The difficulty of description does not basically lie at the theoretical level. Hymes' framework holds up very well and further work, like Brown and Levinson (Paulston, 1984) add useful supports. The difficulty lies partially in the difficulty of observation and data collection in the selection of variables which influence language manifestations.

The difficulty of observation and data collection makes language methodologists learn more on communicative competence for when it is applied in language teaching, there is the truth that most normal people do not find language learning tasks very interesting. One of the advantages of communicative language teaching (henceforth CLT) is that many of the classroom activities are a lot more interesting than grammar drills and fill-in-the-slot exercises so that whether or not students learn anymore motivation and attention remain higher (Paulston, 1984:25).

2. Communicative Competence as Brought into Classroom

The characteristics of competence in communication underlie practices of CLT. From this point of view some aspects are of significance in understanding CLT. In the first place, communicative competence is dynamic rather than a static concept. It depends on the negotiation of meaning between two or more persons who share to some degree the same symbolic system. In addition, communica-

tive competence applies to both written and spoken language as well as to other symbolic system. Finally, communicative competence is context specific text. Communication takes place in an infinite variety of situations

A classroom model of communicative competence for language teaching purposes has been explored, which can be considered advances in understanding of communicative competence. An extensive survey of communicative approach was conducted by Canale and Swain (1983) resulting in their proposal stating that communicative competence consists of linguistic competence or sentence-level grammatical competence, sociolinguistic competence, discourse competence and strategic competence. Grammatical competence is mastery of linguistic code, the ability to recognize the lexical, morphologic syntactic and phonological features. Sociolinguistic competence requires a understanding of the social context in which language is used. Discourse competence is concerned with the connection a series of sentences or utterances to form a meaningful whole. Strategic competence is the strategies that one uses to compensate for imperfect knowledge of rules (Canale and Swain (1983). Another conceptual exploration on the concept 'communicative competence' for language teaching purposes has also been attempted by Bachman (1990). A more recent model of pedagogical concern the concept 'communicative competence' has been proposed by Celce-Murcia, Dornyei and Thurrell (1996).

Still in the realm of language teaching, the term 'communicative' in the phrase of Hymes' communicative competence in relation to CLT can refer to syllabus: communicative syllabus (e.g, Munby, 1978), communicative approach (Widdowson, 1978; Brumfit and Johnson, 1979), semantic syllabus (Johnson,1982), notional syllabus Wilkins 1976), functional syllabus and functional-notional approach (Finochiaro, 1979; Nababan in Bikram, 1984).

The move towards CLT has been dominating the classroom practices for about thirty years, eradicating structuralism-based teaching practices of English. Stated simply, the present situation is dominated by the communication-based teaching. Therefore, related classroom conducts, including instructional material development are necessarily geared to this perspective

B. International Competency Standards of English in Hotel Industries

Competency standards are simply worded statements about performance in the workplace that describe in output terms what the employees are expected to do, how well the employees are expected to perform and how to *tell* when the employees' performance is at the expected level.

In some countries competency standard is a benchmark which has been stated and agreed to acquire effective performance. However the benchmark is a minimum task which can be used to make competition similar and fair. The specific benchmark can be added and is needed by every country, province or company to win individual competition among regions, provinces even countries in the world.

Competency standards can be used for the following purposes: 1) to create job specification, 2) to organize group work, 3) to decide selection and recruitment, 3) to decide training needs, 4) to develop training program and teaching sources, 5) to decide the evaluation of promotion and rotation, 6) To relate skills and appreciation done by industry (Competency Standard for the Hospitality Industry, 1999).

Competency standards are beneficial in several important ways at different levels. Competency standards offer several benefits at the national level as follows: 1) more cost efficient and relevant vocational education and training, 2) better skills formation to compete internationally, 3) more consistent and realistic assessment, 3) better linking training, assessment and certification, 4) possibility of recognition of prior learning arrangements.

In addition to this, there are also benefits at the industry and company level. They are: 1) better identification of skill needs, 2) better understanding of course outcomes, 3) less duplication of training effort, 4) improving recruitment, 5) more realising and consistent assessment of training, and 6) more accurate identification or workforce competencies.

It is obvious from the description above that competency standards can set a visionary benchmark that benefits several parties for different purposes. This is an advantage for the present study be-

cause the benchmark as a set of agreed norms will show the distance of one's actual standing towards the benchmark. Accurate information concerning that existing gap certainly will enable course designers, material developers, and those concerned in English instruction to find ways to bridge the gap professionally.

C. Contextual Teaching and Learning

Contextual teaching and learning (henceforth CTL) has for some time been in the educational sphere almost everywhere in the national as well as the global scales. Due to its gaining ground of popularity for its promising offer for more natural learning on the part of the students, CTL has been adopted in a variety of ways in educational settings, for example in the classroom practices, including instructional material development. This section is aimed at discussing several topics related with CTL. These topics are what CTL is, Why CTL?, and pillars of CTL, CTL and instructional materials development.

1. What CTL is

CTL may be regarded as a new movement in education. CTL emanates as a response to the traditional practices in the teaching learning process which is believed to fail in developing the students' potentials necessary to cope with real-life challenges. As a new vision towards the concept of learning, CTL offers a new way at looking how learning necessarily takes place. In this light, it may be viewed from the conceptual level as consisting of a set of principles. As such, CTL may be considered as an approach that is believed to be potential for making the teachers' teaching possible in performing their work in the classroom in their attempt to facilitate students' learning to enable the students to relate subject matter contents with the real-world situations.

According to Sears (2002:2), CTL has four assumptions. The first assumption states that teaching and learning essentially involves an interaction between students and any sources potential for their learning. Thus, the interaction may take place between students and a book, school environment, and many other forms of learning resources in real life. The second assumption holds that students need

4 to establish a need to learn something and to employ all their 'attentional, intellectual and emotional' capacities for the learning purposes. It is the students who regulate their learning needs themselves. This implies that it is the students who should decide their learning needs. The third assumption posits that no teaching takes place without learning on the part of the students. This implies that the orientation of teaching is not the presence of the teacher's activities in the classroom. Teachers' activities themselves do not mean automatically provision of useful experiences for the students if learning does not happen in students. Finally, CTL is of the assumption that learning occurs step by step along the line of the development of the students, and this occurs throughout one's life.

CTL may be defined as teaching learning processes that relate the students' learning experiences in the classroom with real life. It should be noted here, however, that the term classroom does not mean a classroom in the traditional practice of teaching. Rather it extends beyond classroom settings reaching any useful and rich learning resources. Thus, learning may take place in multiple contexts or settings of place and/or time.

2. Why CTL?

Contextual teaching and learning has different characteristics from the traditional one. Johnson (2002) and Sears (2002) outline several differences between CTL and the conventional teaching and learning as follows. Rather than just a passive recipient of information, students in contextual classrooms are actively engaged in the learning process. Thus, students do not just sit nicely and listen attentively to the teacher's explanation as it normally happens in the conventional classroom. They are involved dynamically in the learning process; learning occurs by doing real things using authentic materials. The students are the knowledge shaper for themselves rather than the information collector. As a consequence of this active involvement of the learning activities, the students benefit the effects of direct learning rather than learn theories or abstraction in vacuum out of context as is commonly evidenced in conventional classroom. In CTL, students learn not just from the teacher but also from other students through a variety of learning activities such as pair work, team work or group work. In such a context learning is not

built up by way of competition rather through cooperation. In addition to these, in CTL classrooms, students set up their own goals, and as a consequence they are responsible for their own learning. Thus, they regulate themselves to move forwards to achieve their goals. In the conventional classroom, the teacher is believed to be the one who knows what the students need to achieve in their learning. As such, students do not assume any responsibility in their learning. This implies that in CTL teachers play more a significant role as facilitator in students' learning unlike in the conventional teaching where teachers control and dictate all aspects of learning processes for the students. Also, in CTL classrooms, the learning occurs in a dynamic and fun atmosphere with a focus on high cognitive thinking and problem solving as opposed to the practice in the conventional class where the learning atmosphere is static and routine. Learning focuses on factual memorization of factual information for the students to know. Finally, multiple aspects of the students' learning are assessed using a variety of data collection tools - tests and non tests-along the learning process integrated in the instruction in the CTL classroom unlike in the conventional setting where students' learning is measured by using tests set up on a particular occasion.

3. Seven pillars of CTL

Basically all approaches, strategies or techniques in line with context situational based are elements of context based teaching learning process. As synthesized by Suyanto (2002), there are seven pillars that characterize the context-based teaching as follows: constructivism, questioning, inquiry, modelling, learning community, authentic assessment, and reflection.

In the behaviouristic paradigm, the teachers exercise prominently the form of teaching learning process where transfer of knowledge occurs from the teachers to the learners. In this perspective, students are treated as an empty paper on which the teacher will carve the knowledge for the students. The students are passive and knowledge is outside the students and is believed to be possessed by the teacher. Unlike the behaviourist view, the constructivism believes the active involvement of the students in learning based on his or her capabilities, knowledge and learning styles with the help of the teacher as a facilitator who helps students when they are in trouble in their effort to learn. Thus, students are able individuals

who need to be facilitated so that they can construct the knowledge on their own.

The second pillar is *questioning*. In this pillar, students are provided with learning contexts on which they can raise questions concerning things of interest in the teaching learning process. Such a teaching learning process provides a room for the students to develop their curiosity by asking questions. This kind of learning environment moves up the students' interest to ask everything they are learning. Many questions of which answer the students want to know lead and train students to think critically not just to accept what is said by their teacher. From the questions teacher can decide what things are given to the students to reach optimal learning.

Close to the second pillar, the third is inquiry. Questioning is the beginning of inquiry. In inquiry students are provided with scientific strategies which they can utilize to find the answer to the questions they raise for instance by observing objects. Raising questions requires the good way of formulating the questions, proposing the tentative answers in the form of the explanation of the object, searching for the relevant information by way of collecting data, and finally drawing the conclusion whether the explanation is satisfactorily supported or reflects the data.

The fourth pillar is learning community. This pillar emphasizes the spirit of working together in solving a problem⁶⁶. The forming of learning community by the students may take the form of pair work and/or group work⁸⁹. In this learning community all the members of the family are responsible for the learning development of the group. They all have to make an effort so that all the members achieve the objectives of the study. Learning community gives the lesson that individual's success is no more a matter of a competition in a negative meaning but it also requires the making of cooperation with others. In reality, the fact is that people in the world depend on the others; they cannot solve the problem themselves without any help from others.

Modelling constitute the fifth pillar of CTL. As its name indicates, in this pillar the teacher sets an example as a model of someone who learns something and this should be demonstrated in front of the students. The teacher has to give the example as a person who is active in learning and gives an example to the students on how things are learned.

The sixth is authentic assessment. Authenticity of authentic assessment has several features as follows. First, there is no separation of evaluation from instruction. Assessment is integrated with the students' learning process. Next, assessment result may be utilized as a basis for improving learning processes. Thus the result of assessment may serve as diagnostic information of the students' learning achievement, students' motivation, and students' attitude towards learning. Belonging to the class of authentic assessment is performance assessment, portfolios, and student-self assessment. In performance assessment students are assigned to demonstrate the activity that has been learned, solve the problem, give the oral report, give example in writing, individual project or group project or exhibition of the student's project.

The last pillar of CTL is reflection. In performing this pillar, both the students and the teacher provide the feedback concerning the instruction. The students may evaluate not only their learning but also the effectiveness the learning strategy that has already been accomplished. The teachers do the same, that is evaluating whether the activity of teaching learning process so far is effective or not, which points have to be improved. Reflection can only be performed by the teachers who are enthusiastic to develop their professionalism, and the students who really want to learn and realize that the activity they have already made might be wrong. Teachers revise the activities of teaching learning process and students revise the learning strategy. All these activities can be done individually or in group by the teachers and the students

4. CTL and Instructional Materials Development

CTL provides clear guidelines on which to base the development of learning resource in the form of textbook. Based on the concept of contextual teaching which focuses on high cognitive thinking and problem solving, textbook development as an attempt made to provide a learning resource for the students needs to implement these principles of CTL. For the purpose, considerations on the contents of the textbook, for instance, need to be taken into account. Brinton, Snow, and Wesche (1989:3) proponents of ESP note that for successful language learning to occur language forms and function serve the learner best based on the description. The learners' needs

may not always coincide, but the use of information content which is perceived as relevant will increase students' motivation and promote more effective learning. The content based approach employs the principle that any teaching conduct should build on the previous experience of the learner, as they take into account the learners' existing knowledge of the subject matter and the academic environment as well as their second language knowledge. Therefore, language should be taught through a focus on contextualized use, and there is need to set up a condition for successful language acquisition that is language "input". The input in the target language in a textbook, then, must be at the right amount neither too low nor too high from the students' input ability, which according to Krashen (1985) should be reflected in his formula $I + 1$.

The principle of problem solving needs to be implemented in the textbook development, and to be presented in the exercises in every unit in the form of problem based where the students are trained to look for solution individually or in groups. Thus, there is a need in the textbook to include exercises and tasks that implement the principle of cooperation, team work and reflection, which is very important for the students in the future.

CHAPTER IV

Methods of Development of Instructional Materials

Chapter IV presents aspects related with methodological procedures undertaken to answer questions raised in the present study. This chapter then deals with strategies and steps that are utilized to address the problems. To that end, five main topics are presented and discussed in the order as follows: adapting concepts, establishing conceptual frameworks, operationalizing theoretical frameworks model of development, procedures for product development and the following is the presentation of each topic in that order

A. Adoption of Concepts and Practices

The review of related studies discussed in the previous sections has provided both important theoretical and empirical perspectives that provide useful bases for all the activities related with the conduct of textbook development as the focus of the current study. The concepts to be adopted for the purpose of the present study include, first, principles of assessment of students' learning needs and students' learning needs analysis. These principles will be used as a basis for identification of what the students of hotel departments of tourism colleges actually need in order to perform linguistically well at the supervisor level in their future profession. This stage of identifying the students' learning needs necessitates essentially a conduct of 'what to find' in research principles. As a form of inquiry, then, learning needs assessment to be performed in the present study will include, where relevant, qualitative and/or quantitative principles for collecting and analyzing the data required in the present study, the data being the students' learning needs. Along with this, conceptual as well as criterion perspectives will be employed continually as references during the data collection and data analysis. These references take account of communicative competence, notions and functions, and international competency standards of English in tourism industries.

The review also demonstrates that developing instructional materials needs strong conceptual as well as operational schemes. This follows that the principles of developing development of instructional materials to be adopted in the present study include those particularly related with among other things synthesized conditions for writing a textbook, input text selection, textbook content mapping, and task selection.

Finally, in an R&D cycle, as is taken in the present study, it turns out that piloting of the product is essential. For the purpose then, principles of pilot studies will be adopted. These include employing a design¹¹³ of the piloting stage which will take pre experimental design: pre test-post test. The purpose is to examine the¹¹² workability of the textbook already developed in the classroom in terms of its effectiveness⁷⁰ in the teaching learning processes.

In short, for the purpose of the current study, there are at least two levels of frameworks that can be derived from reviews of relevant literature. These are the conceptual and the operational ones. The former which is highly speculative in nature lays theoretical foundations on which to establish the present study; the latter, however, provides a working groundwork that sets up procedural schemes for textbook development as the intent of the current study. The following is the description of each of the frameworks.

B. Conceptual Frameworks

It seems desirable to recall once again that the review of related literature has touched on several topics: ESP-concepts, principles and practices, functions and notions in English, communicative competence, principles of instructional material development and International Competency Standards of English in Hotel Industries. These topics have been discussed to some detail separately. For the purpose of the present study, there is a need to incorporate all these topics conceptually to constitute a unified concept that underlies the conduct of the present study.

The framework thus will constitute the conceptual guidelines which provide a theoretical⁹⁹ corridor for the present study. With these topics and the purpose of the study in mind, the conceptual framework of the current study can be illustrated using Figure 2.6.

The flowchart should read as follows. The ultimate product of the present study is the availability of a textbook for hotel department students of tourism industry projected to work at the hotel-supervisor level. This therefore entails that the genre of English to be dealt with throughout is necessarily the one particularly with English for occupational or professional purposes - a main branch of English for Specific Purposes (ESP). This will constitute the basic stand and corridor for all activities to be envisioned and performed in the current study.

In such a context, three main areas will be touched on. The first area is concerned with the very beginning attempt intended as a search for both theoretical insights and empirical data related with English as a means of communication and the kind of English as used in the hotel-management workplace context. In the flowchart it is shown with first box inside the outer box with two smaller boxes inside.

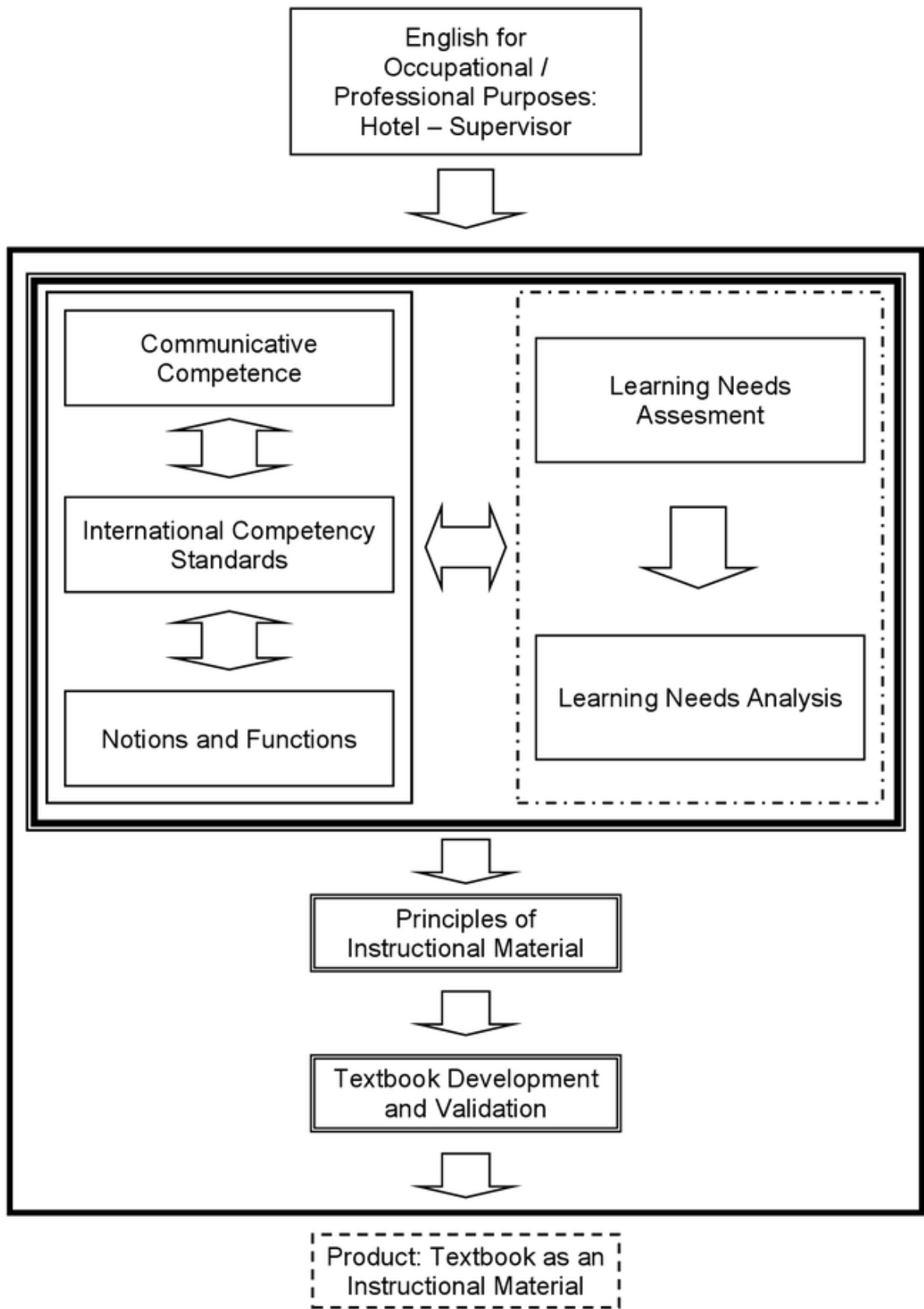


Figure 4.1 Conceptual Framework of the Study

The discussion on theoretical insights, shown with a small box on the left, relates with three main fields: concepts of communicative competence, international competency standards and functions and notions. These three fields are interrelated so that the concepts derived from each field are crosschecked permitting a kind of anchor that controls outputs of each field is always exercised to be established. The purpose of this is for synergizing conceptual outputs thus resulted in this sub area, which later will be used as a basis for the handling and management of empirical data collection and analysis.

The discussion on empirical data, indicated with a dotted line box touches on two main fields: assessment and analysis of students' learning needs. Both essentially require a methodological approach to be conducted. The former entails a kind of research conduct and the former systematic and relevant procedures for data analysis. The output derived from this field is synchronized with its corresponding theoretical aspects resulted from the theoretical field.

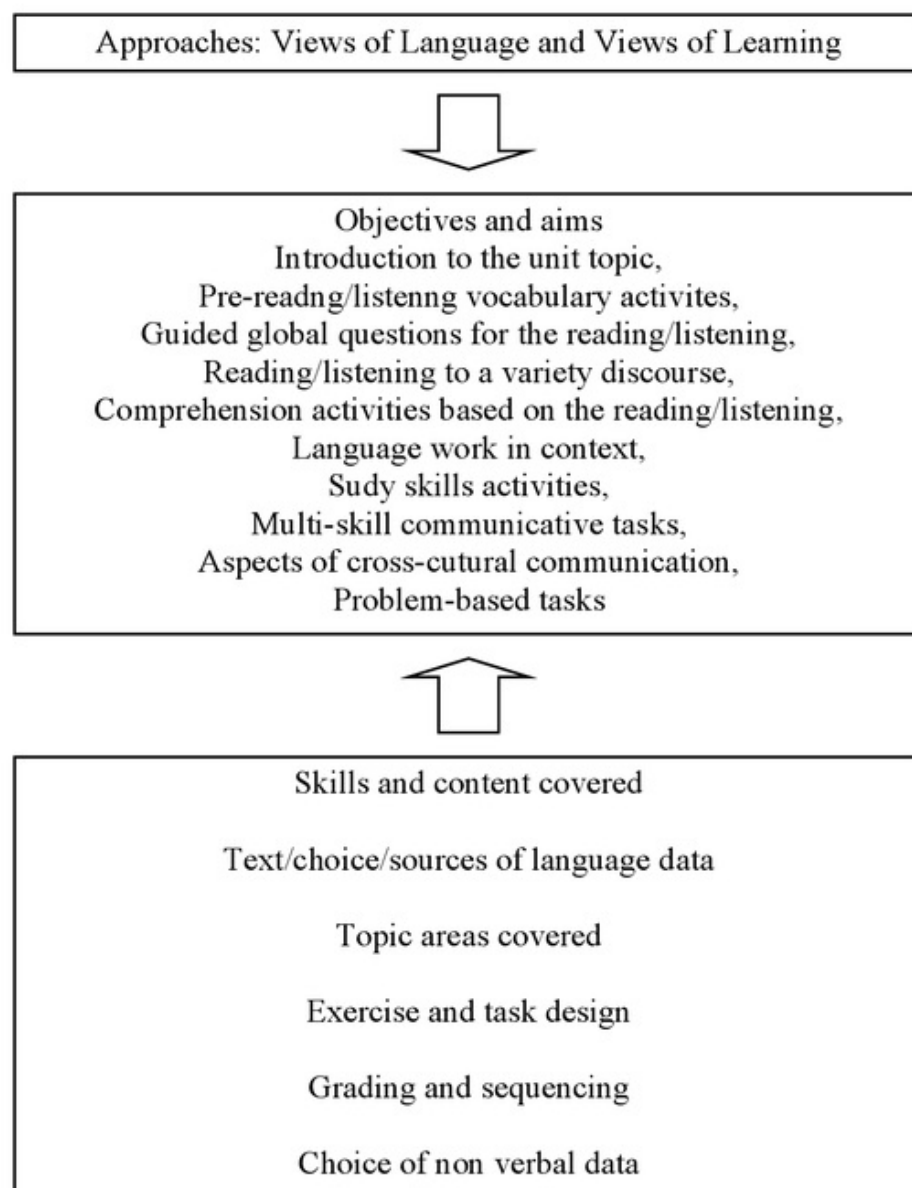
When the output from the first area is extracted as the 'raw' stuff, the materials need to be projected further against the principles of developing instructional materials. In the flowchart, it is shown in a small box as a second area just below the first box. In this area, the stuff may undergo selection and classification. Mapping of textbook contents in line with the materials available may also be carried out. In addition, selection of tasks is also decided. In short the output of this discussion is blueprint for the textbook contents together with their tasks and necessary format and planned illustrations in the textbook.

The last area, textbook development and validation, concerns the development of the textbook itself. This necessarily involves writing the textbook contents based on the blueprint and then validating the textbook thus produced.

C. Operational Framework

On the operational level, the framework proposed in the current study is actually the elaboration of one aspect in the last area, textbook development and validation, particularly with the textbook development. The framework concerns the plan of the textbook and is synthesized from several models proposed by experts such as

Hutchinson and Water (1987:108), Tomlinson and Masuhara (2004), McDonough (1984:66⁴²³) and Rajan (1997). The framework for designing the textbook as the main purpose of the present study is shown in Figure 2.7.



**Figure 4.2 A Proposed Model of Materials Design
(Source:Synthesis of Various Models)**

As shown in Figure 2.7, the model for developing the textbook in the present study consists of three levels. The first level talks about underlying approaches that characterize the development of the textbook. In this respect, this generally touches on recent advances in theoretical views concerning language learning such as communicative competence and constructivism.

The second level is tentative elements and organization of each unit of the textbook. This is essentially concerned with organizing principles of each unit. The third level supporting principles (shown with an arrow pointing upward to the organization principles) of developing units in the textbook has to do with the subject-matter or the contents. In this case, these contents include what language skills to be considered and areas of content schemata for the students of hotel management departments of tourism colleges to be learned.

D. Model of Development

As described in Chapter I, the purpose of the study is to develop a textbook as ESP instructional materials that will be used for the students who are trained to work in the hotel department when they graduate to equip them professionally with functional ESP. Thus, the kind of ESP textbooks to be developed is not that on EAP (=English for Academic Purposes) bases, rather the one on EPP (=English for Professional Purposes) bases, particularly English for the hotel-supervisor level at the hotel business as discussed elaborately in Part II.

In this present study, therefore, there are 3 (three) critical phases that need to be observed very carefully. These phases are the initial data collection phase, the textbook development phase, and the try-out phase. The first phase is concerned with the matter to address the instructional contents that will be included in the textbook to be developed. The second phase deals with the textbook writing, and the last phase copes with attempts made to have the field test with the textbook developed in the second phase. In general, however, there are two main phases that can be adopted in the current study: the development phase, which includes the first and the second phases as described previously and the field test/try-out phase.

Of theoretical concern on research design to address these three phases, the type of the research design that can be employed is specific. With regards to the sequential processes that will be carried throughout the present study, this study is necessarily a kind of educational research and development study (henceforth R&D). Therefore, it is necessary to review the design of this R&D. Unfortunately, however, only very few authoritative research handbooks

discuss aspects of R&D. The one that is solely much referred to and discusses this is of Borg's and Gall's (1983) and (1986) Gall's et al. (2003).

According to Borg and Gall (1986:775-776), there are ten major steps in the R&D cycle, the first seven of which are relevant for the current study and are important to be discussed here. Therefore, these steps are adopted for the current study. These steps are described in brief as follows. The R&D cycle begins with a process of gathering sets of information relevant to the study. In Borg and Gall's terms (1986), this process comprises several activities such as 'review of related literature, classroom observations, and preparation of report of 'state of the art'.

In the current study, the activity of 'review of related literature' deals with re-examination of the contents of already existing syllabus and other relevant documentary sources such as International Competency Standards of English in Hotel Industries (*Joint Australia Indonesia Competency Standards for the Hospitality Industry*, 1999), documents related with roles and responsibilities of hotel supervisors, and some concepts on developing instructional materials in the form of textbooks as a learning resource. The activity 'classroom observations' is closely associated with needs assessment, which according to Prince (1984), involves goal analysis, job analysis and language analysis. In the present study these processes require observations and field visits to hotels. Based on the activities in this first step, the emerging ideas of what happening in the theories and the practices as the focus of the present study are to be synthesized as a basis for carrying out the second step, namely planning.

The planning phase in Borg and Gall's concept (1986) includes, for example in the case of developing a teaching model, 'defining skills, stating objectives, determining course sequence, and small scale feasibility testing'. In the present study, the first two are performed and realized in the form of defining competencies and determining the order of topics. The activity 'small scale feasibility testing' is carried out in the form of setting up particular competencies for particular topics in corresponding units. These units are organized in a logical order of presentation linked with the varying roles and responsibilities of a hotel supervisor. This activity results in a map for the textbook.

According to Borg and Gall (1986), the next phase in the design, then, is developing a preliminary form of the product under interest. Including in this phase is developing a set of data-collecting instruments that are used to observe variables in 'preliminary field testing'. In the present study, the phase is realized by finding relevant input texts and then establishing and writing tasks based on the texts for each unit. In this phase, instruments for data collection for the purpose of evaluating the textbook being developed are also developed.

The next step according to Borg and Gall (1986) is trying out the preliminary products; that is when the preliminary products are ready. In their design, this process is called 'preliminary field testing'. In this process, a limited number of subjects are involved. Besides, data collection is also conducted using the instruments already developed, including the use either one of interview, observation and/or questionnaire. The purpose of data collection in this regards is to examine inconsistencies and inappropriateness of the products, including initial information concerning the effectiveness of products. Information concerning these aspects is useful for the next step, namely 'main product revision'. When necessary, revisions on the product based on results of the preliminary field-testing are made.

The present study adapts this phase of 'preliminary field testing' for the purpose of validating the product. This is the process where experts and experienced practitioners are involved to evaluate the preliminary draft of the textbook developed. For the purpose, a set of data-collection instruments is utilized. Following this phase is revision of the product based on the evaluative feedback provided by the experts and experienced practitioners.

Borg and Gall (1986) calls the next step as 'the main-field testing or try-out'. Just like in the preliminary field-testing, in 'the main field testing' a number of subjects are involved. This time, however, this involves more subjects. In this phase, a set of instrument for data collection is also needed. Several modes for data collection in 'the main field try-out' are employed in this phase. The present study utilizes a combination of the use of quantitative and qualitative data collection procedures (Newman and Benz, 1988). These include the use of a set of non participant observations, questionnaires and interviews. The information gathered from the data collection is further utilised for the improvement or betterment of the product. The

phase is called 'operational product revision' which is based on the evaluative feedback gathered from the main-field test results. Based on the adaptation of the R@D design discussed previously, in general, the design of the current study can schematically be illustrated in Figure 3.1 presented previously.

Needs Assessment and Needs Analysis

Results of Needs Assessment and Needs Analysis

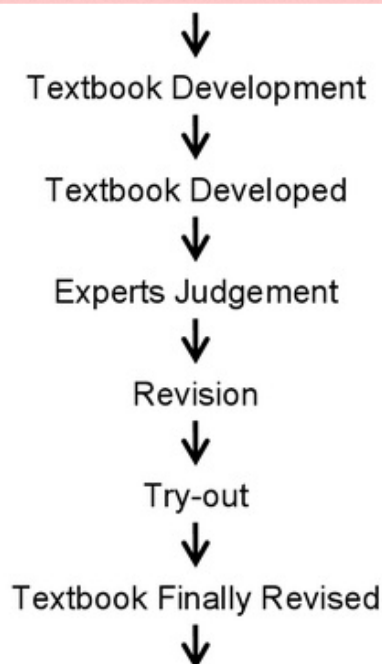


Figure 4.3 General Design of the Current Study
(Source: Adaptation from Borg and Gall's R@D)

E. Procedures for Product Development

Critical points in these phases of the adapted R&D design need to be cautiously observed. These particularly happen in the phase beginning from the phase of Instructional Materials Development Design to other phases down. Therefore, there is a need to review briefly issues that relate to the relevant phases, particularly in relation with the purpose of the present study. As has been described in the R&D cycle above, the purpose of the development phase is basically two folds: to establish a conceptual and empirical basis for the textbook as an instructional product to develop through needs assessment and to develop the intended educational textbook based on needs assessment i.e. conceptual and empirical perspectives.

In this development phase, in conjunction with the purpose of the current study, several activities are performed with reference to

the R⁴⁵D principles. These activities are as follows: 'review of related literature, classroom observations, and preparation of report of state of the art'. These are initially aimed at identifying learners' learning needs (Morrison, Ross, and Kemp, 2001; Smith and Ragan, 1993).

However, instead of carrying out related literature first, it seems more logical to conduct 'observation', which in this case is best understood as performing 'field observation' that can involve naturalistic observations (Patton, 1990). Accordingly, data from field observations are collected first, which is accordingly followed with review of related literature in terms of needs assessment and needs analysis (Graves, 1996;12). Needs assessment for that reason implies a need¹ to conduct a field observation, which reflects a need to perform a kind of qualitative research (Cohen, Manion and Morrison, 2000). Watson-Gegeo (1988) says that qualitative research is an umbrella for ethnography and naturalistic research, that is the researcher conducts observations in where people live and work. The following is the discussion on procedures for needs assessment, in particular, in relation with principles of field observations.

1. Procedures for Needs Assessment

In literature, two terms 'needs assessment' and 'needs analysis' are prevalently used and interchangeably practiced (see, for example, Robinson, 1991:10-17). Conducting needs assessment and needs analysis implies a call for methodological perspectives. Thus, Graves (1996:12-38) cautions that it should be taken with care to differentiate needs analysis from needs assessment because needs assessment is conceptually different from need analysis (64)meroy as quoted by Graves, 1996;12). Popham (1995:3) defines (educational) assessment as 'a formal attempt to determine students' status with respect to educational variables of interest.' Meanwhile, Anderson et al. (1975) write as follows:

Assessment, as opposed to simple one-dimensional measurement, is frequently described as multi trait-multi method; that is, it focuses on a number of variables judged to be important and utilizes a number of techniques to assay them (tests, questionnaires, interviews, ratings, unobstrusive measures, etc) (Anderson et. al,1975:27)

Definitions on assessment described above indicate that assessment involves the use of a number of elicitation means and at the same time it considers elicitation of a number of variables. Meanwhile, according to The New Merriam-Webster Dictionary as aforementioned, the term 'analysis' can mean 'examination of a thing to determine its parts or elements' (1989:43). Also Patton (1990:371) states that '... analysis ... makes clear to researchers what would have been most important to study, if only they had known beforehand.' It is obvious from the quotations on the term analysis that analysis implies 'assigning values to ... data' (Pomeroy as quoted by Graves, 1996:12) collected by means of a set of different assessment instruments.

In ESP context, including this current study, needs assessment then essentially involves a number of instruments to elicit a number of variables of interest concerning learners' learning needs; whereas needs analysis as defined previously is a systematic and exploratory conduct made to uncover significant information of not only a linguistic lack on the part of learners in learning a particular language but also the process needed by learner to arrive at the purpose. Secondly, it is quite logical that need analysis comes next after needs assessment. That is, data on learners' learning needs are necessarily collected prior to assigning values to the data collected. As such, needs assessment and needs analysis necessarily constitute an integrated systematic undertaking like a research activity. This follows then that principles of research are applicable. Accordingly, prior to conducting needs assessment and needs analysis in ESP contexts, several critical points need to be settled down accurately. Several of these are adapted from Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2000:73-74) for the purpose of the current study as follows:

2. Establishment of General Aims and Purposes

The purpose of needs assessment in the present study is formulated in general as follows: 1) to identify hotel managers' roles and responsibilities in relation with a particular speech act situation in the hotel management context, 2) to identify channels or modes of communication in utilizing language expressions and functions by hotel managers in carrying out their roles and responsibilities in the hotel management context, 3) to identify language expressions utilized by hotel managers in carrying out their roles and respon-

sibilities in the hotel management context, and 4) to identify language functions utilized by hotel managers in carrying out their roles and responsibilities in the hotel management context.

3. Specifying General Aims and Purposes

Specifically, the purpose of needs assessment in the present study is formulated as follows: 1) to identify hotel managers' roles and responsibilities in relation with a particular speech act situation in the hotel management context, 2) to identify front office managers' roles and responsibilities, 3) to identify executive house keepers' roles and responsibilities, 4) to identify food and beverage managers' roles and responsibilities, 5) to identify marketing managers' roles and responsibilities, 6) to identify human resources and development managers' roles and responsibilities, 7) to identify channels or modes of communication in utilizing language expressions and functions by hotel managers on their roles and responsibilities in the hotel management context, which involves to determine specific channels or modes of communication, to identify the frequency of occurrence in the use of channels or modes of communication, and to identify the extent in the use of channels or modes of communication.

Next is to identify language expressions utilized by hotel managers in carrying out their roles and responsibilities in the hotel management context, which involves 1) to determine specific language expressions utilized by hotel managers in carrying out their roles and responsibilities, and to identify the frequency of occurrence in the use of specific language expressions utilized by hotel managers in carrying out their roles and responsibilities.

In language functions needs assesment involves: 1) to identify language functions utilized by hotel managers in carrying out their roles and responsibilities in the hotel management context, 2) to determine specific language expressions utilized by hotel managers in carrying out their roles and responsibilities, and 3) to identify the frequency of occurrence in the use of specific language expressions utilized by hotel managers in carrying out their roles and responsibilities.

4. Generating Questions Pertinent to Variables of Interest

The questions raised in conjunction with the purposes of the needs assessment outlined in the previous section in general can be formulated as follows: 1) what roles and responsibilities do hotel managers assume in relation with a particular speech act situation in the hotel management context?, 2) which channels or nodes of communication do hotel managers utilize in carrying out their roles and responsibilities in the hotel management context?, 3) which language expressions do hotel managers utilize in carrying out their roles and responsibilities in the hotel management context, 4) which language functions do hotel managers utilize in carrying out their roles and responsibilities in the hotel management context?

5. Identification and Establishment of Priorities and Constraints

Hotel managers are assumed to function in varied roles and responsibilities in the hotel management context. The priorities of the assessment of variables under investigation such as outlined in the previous section are focussed on the following functional general aspects: planning, formulating strategic planning, organizing staffing, leading, motivating and controlling, as the functions of hotel managers commonly assume (Nebel II, Eddystone C, 1991).

In addition to these, the assessment of variables under investigation are constrained to the scope deemed by hotel management to not be secret for the consumption of the public in general in which the researcher is allowed to perform observations during data collection. Due to financial and time considerations, only some hotels in some cities are targetted as the site for the purpose of the curent needs assessment.

6. Design of Needs Assessment

The needs assessment in the present study is designed to be performed mainly as a field visit in which the researcher performed casual visits to the targeted hotels as a hotel guest as well as formal visits as a researcher, and the students' report. The hotels are domestic hotels (*Majapahit* Hotel, Surabaya; *Graha Cakra*, Malang; *Santika* Hotel, Malang) and star hotels abroad (*Excelsior* Hotel, Singapore; *Mint* Hotel, Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia, ; *Ritz Carlton* Hotel, Osaka, Japan; *Concorde* Hotel, Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia).

In addition, the needs assessment involves Focussed Group Discussion (or FGD for short) (Witkin, 1984). In this strategy, a number of resources including foreign supervisor agents and those subjects who have hands-on experiences with matters related with hotel management are invited and consulted, and everyone present shares their experiences through brainstorming and question and answer activities. Those foreign supervisor agents are from Qatar, United Kingdom, and the Netherland, each one.

The researcher also used the students' reports as the result of on-the-job training in some chain hotels and domestic hotels in Indonesia (Four Season Bali, Hyatt Hotel Surabaya, Sheraton Hotel Surabaya, *Majapahit* Hotel Surabaya) and domestic hotels in Indonesia (Jayakarta Hotel, Orchid Hotel Batu, *Graha Cakra* Hotel Malang). In addition, several relevant documents from the student's reports such as hotel notes, letters, Standard Operation Procedures are collected.

7. Establishing Methodology

The current study adopts non participant observation as well as participant observation design as outlined by Spradley (1980). In the current needs assessment, the researcher utilized her visits to targeted hotels for the purpose of the current study as the general framework. The researcher tried to get the access to different situations within the managers' roles and responsibilities in the hotel management context which enabled her to assess several variables under investigation in the present study. On occasions she performs partial observation or onlooker observation as an outsider (Patton, 1990:217).

In addition, a conference adapting Focussed Group Discussion or FGD for short (Gill and Schumaker, 1987) is employed in which she performs full participation observation in an overt mode of observation that is there is awareness and knowledge that observations are being made and who the observer is, observer known by some but not by others (Patton, 1990:217) in the discussion conducted.

8. Determining Audience

The focus of the present study is the aspects linked with the use of the English language as used by hotel managers in varied roles and responsibilities in the hotel management context of par-

ticularly five-star hotels where English is believed to be most likely used as a medium of communication. As such, to get a wider scope of the data from a variety of sources, several parties of audiences are involved.

The audiences for the needs assessment are, first, hotel management which includes hotel general managers and supervisors at five star hotel who have been working at least 2 years in Indonesia, Malaysia, Singapore, Japan, and the hotel agent staffs of the United Kingdom and Qatar.

Secondly, the audiences include subject-matter specialists in hotel management. These subject-matter specialists are lecturers who have been teaching at least 5 years in the following courses: Front Office Management, Housekeeping Management, Food and Beverage Management, Human Resources Management.

Thirdly, the audiences involve the alumnae of the Diploma III Program in Hotel Management of Universitas Merdeka Malang who have been working at several five-star hotels for at least two years. Finally, audiences are those students who have completed their on-the-job training (OJT) at several five-star domestic hotels and/or those hotels abroad.

The strategy to involve a variety of audiences is a way to assure the collection of valid data. This is essentially a form of triangulating approach in terms of sources of data. In brief, the audiences involved for the purpose of the needs assessment are tabulated as shown in Table 3.1 Subjects Involved in the Needs Assessment Phase.

Table 4.1 Subjects Involved in the Needs Assessment Phase

No	Position	Number	Data Collection
1	General Manager	2	Interview Observation
2	Supervisor	10	Interview Observation
3	Subject-matter Specialist	5	Focussed Group Discussion
4	Alumnae	10	Focussed Group Discussion
5	Student Completing On-the-job training (OJT)	10	Focussed Group Discussion
Total		37	

9. Establishing Instrument

In line with the purpose of the needs assessment and the nature of the design outlined previously, one main instrument is utilized, namely the researcher herself. In addition to this, interview guidelines (Appendix 1: an interview guide with General Managers, Appendix 2: an interview guide with Hotel Supervisors, Appendix 3: an interview guide with Subject Matter Specialists, Appendix 4: an interview guide with Alumnae, and Appendix 5: an interview guide with Students) and field notes are employed. To assure validity and reliability of the instruments, prior to data collection in the needs analysis, a simulation is carried out. This is performed by doing an informal try-out in which the researcher engaged herself in hotel visits as a part of an on-the-job training program for the students regularly held by Diploma 3 and 4 Program in Tourism, Universitas Merdeka Malang. The hotels for the try-out purpose are located in Malang and Denpasar, Bali.

Upon the try-out, several revisions on observation strategies, interviewing and field note taking processes are made. It was revealed that observation and interviewing strategies needed to be suited to the hotel managers' activities and time they were available.

10. Data Analysis

When all data required are collected, data analysis are performed. As the data were qualitative in nature in the forms of such as contexts, situations, language expressions, language functions, and other related aspects such as communication strategies, the procedures for data analysis were qualitative. What follows describes qualitative data analysis performed in this study.

Several sets of data are qualitative essentially. The analysis includes the process of identifying, coding, and categorizing the primary patterns in the data'. Patton articulates 'inductive analysis' to stand for the emergence of patterns, themes, and categories of analysis from data (Patton, 1990:390) as well dimensions. Further, he maintains the importance of performing 'logical analysis' following 'inductive analysis'. That is, there comes about a need to cross-classifying 'different dimensions to generate new insights about how the data can be categorized and look for patterns that may not have been immediately obvious in the initial inductive analysis (Patton,

1990:411). These three types of analysis are interrelated for analysing qualitative data. For the purpose of the current study, the relationship of these three types of analysis can be depicted in Figure 3.2.

Through a series of analysis as shown in Figure 3.2, the emergent patterns on the data are then interpreted, in that, the patterns on the data are judged in terms of their potential in providing substantial information on variables under investigation outlined in the purpose of needs assessment as follows: 1) identification of hotel managers' roles and responsibilities in relation with a particular speech act situation in the hotel management context; 2) Identification of channels or modes of communication in utilizing language expressions and functions by hotel managers in carrying out their roles and responsibilities in the hotel management context, 3) Identification of language expressions utilized by hotel managers in carrying out their roles and responsibilities in the hotel management context; and 4) Identification of language functions utilized by hotel managers in carrying out their roles and responsibilities in the hotel management context.

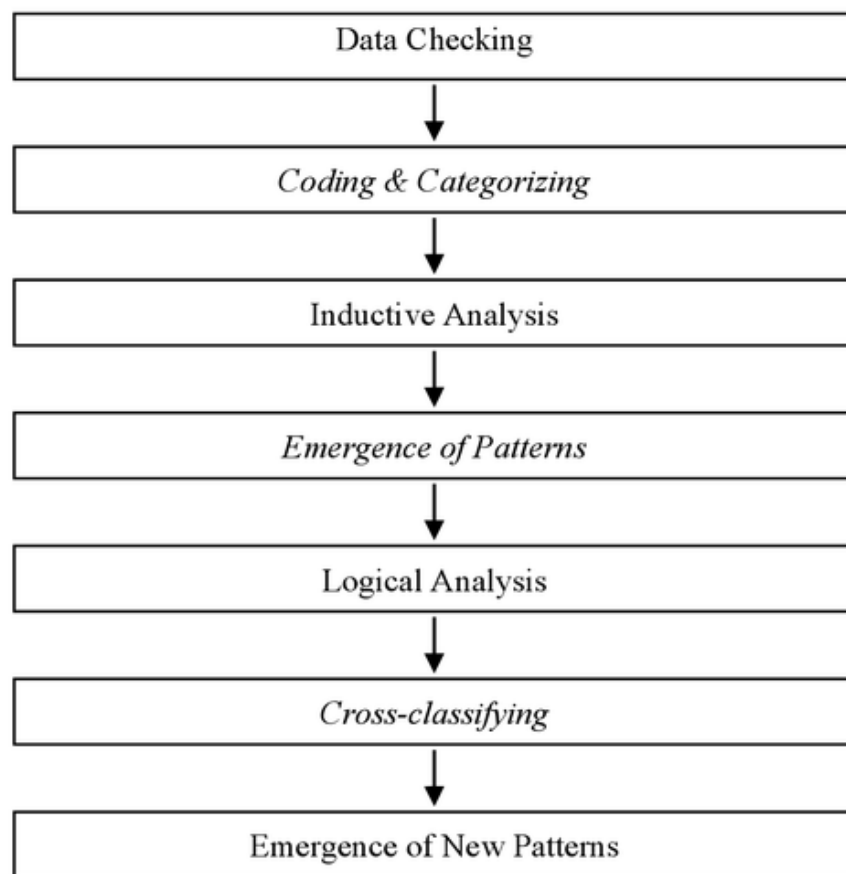


Figure 4.4 Techniques for Qualitative Data Analysis
(Source: Synthesis from Patton, 1990)

11. Verifying and Validating the Data

In order to gain valid data, data verification and validation are performed. For the purpose, data obtained are crosschecked with ESP concepts and principles and then once again the data are cross validated by having a check on the data collected by using other instruments. For example, if upon the analysis, certain expressions are deduced out of the data collected from observations, the expressions are checked with the data collected from interviewing. If necessary, further visits to local hotels are performed to assure the presence of the expressions deduced from the analysis.

Conceptually, all these points described previously are considered and based on the ideas proposed by experts. Mountford (1981:28) documents 3 critical issues in establishing needs analysis in ESP. These issues are related to perception, practice, and principle. Issues of perception relate to at least two elements who will carry out and who will serve as the source of data. Issues of practice refer to techniques used to collect data or information. Finally, issues of principle are concerned with how to assort the data and which data to select. Another perspective in needs analysis is offered by Holliday and Cooke (1983). They (1983) outline several points that are relevantly used in this matter. These are (1) what subjects the teacher thinks the learner needs to know, (2) what the situation thinks the learner needs to know, (3) what the English teacher thinks the learner needs to know, (4) what the learners think they need to know, (5) what the learners want to know, and (6) what is compatible with specific local features of the environment. In addition to these, a triangulating approach in data collection in terms of techniques for data collection and involvement of sources of information (Cohen, Manion and Morrison, 2000; Patton, 1990) as well as targets of analysis, i.e. involvement of goal analysis, job analysis and language analysis as recommended by Prince (1984).

Put briefly, in conjunction with the aims of needs assessment and needs analysis, learners' learning needs in ESP of hotel businesses as the focus of the current study are projected to those needs of English within supervisors' responsibilities and roles in hotel contexts. Of particular attention, the aspects to be examined are of two points: 'what' in terms of the following: language forms including specific registers used, language functions and notions, workplace

contexts of language use, language channels for communication: listening, speaking, reading and writing, organizational patterns of rhetoric discourse used, subject matter or content being discussed or talked about and 'how' in terms of level of occurrences of these aforementioned aspects.

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The interview strategy that is plausible for the purpose of the current study is the standardized open-ended interview (Patton, 1980:206 and Patton, 1990:288-289). By employing the participant observation design, the current study aims at revealing aspects needing further confirmation through interviews such as scope of roles and responsibilities, workplace contexts of language use, and language channels for communication: listening, speaking, reading and writing. To elicit information on these variables, flexibility in exploring other related aspects is desirable while observing time constraints and appreciating differing strategies in managerial practices in one hotel from another.

The discussion thus far presented has touched on how field observations may constitute an important part in the needs assessment process for the purposes of needs analysis. In short, therefore, the design that are potentially involved in the current study is essentially qualitative one using 'participant observation' (Spradley, 1980). Besides observations and interviews, an additional strategy of data collection is concerned with documentary observations. This attempt, still in the framework of identifying learners' needs through needs analysis, is essentially literature or document review. The focus is to address mainly the contents of already existing syllabus and other relevant documentary sources such as International Competency Standards of English in Hotel Industries (*Joint Australia Indonesia Competency Standards for the Hospitality Industry, 1999*), documents related with roles and responsibilities of hotel supervisors, and others. This strategy implies to some extent the use of content analysis (Holsti, 1969; Patton, 1990). As suggested from the review, the data sources relevant for the purpose of needs assessment include tentatively the following party of people: subjects specialists in hotel management, alumni of the hotel management department, those students just completing on-the-job training (OJT), and hotel management.

When 'review of related literature and field observations' are completed, the next phase needs to be carried out, i.e. analyzing the

data collected from reviewing documents and field work. This step is actually what needs analysis should actually mean as opposed to needs assessment thus far having been discussed. The needs analysis issues in this matter are discussed in the next sub topic: 2. Review of Related Literature Relevant to Data Analysis.

When the analysis is completed, the results are reported as a 'report of state of the art of the learners' learning needs'. This report is an important document that contains learners' learning needs. Based on the information on the report, instructional contents to be considered in the instructional material are reviewed as the basis for the purpose to map the language skills and notions, functions to be put in the textbook.

To sum up, needs assessment is a systematic process that examines several factors elicited from various sources for the purposes of managing the teaching of 48P to be accomplished in order to yield optimum outcomes. It takes the form of the framework of a research study. The current study makes good use of insights gained from reviewing principles and practices in ESP. Of particular interest are the following points: first, to get a broader view of the scope of the content in the instructional materials to be developed, there is a compelling need to maintain a close acquaintance with specific contents or subject matters and a close and mutual cooperation with subject matter specialists; second, to gain perspectives on materials delivery in the textbook to be developed, there is a need to adopt and apply relevant teaching methodologies specific to materials in ESP; third, to strengthen the already existing contents of syllabus and thus, the contents of instructional materials to be put into the textbook to be developed, there is a need to conduct needs assessment and needs analysis.

CHAPTER V

Procedures for Textbook Development

A. Procedures for Textbook Development

The main aim of the present study is to develop a textbook. This textbook is intended for students in the hotel department of tourism colleges who are in the supervisor level. Therefore, the textbook to be developed necessarily reflects their language needs within their prospective professions at the supervision level in the context of hotel-related business. The information on which to base the development of the textbook is drawn from needs assessment and needs analysis.

A model of materials design has been proposed by Hutchinson and Water (1987:108). In their model, four elements are essential constituting a kind of a guiding framework for each chapter in textbook development. These elements are 'input', 'content focus', 'language focus' and 'tasks'. In this model, as seen from the elements, an ESP textbook includes subject matter as well as language as the focus. The source of these areas of subject matter and language is derived from element 'input'. In the model, language focus is meant to be as 'the necessary language knowledge' which is essentially grammatical and vocabulary items.

Element 'task' is catered for varied exercises in communicative language use. Element 'input' serves several functions: 'stimulus material for activities, new language items, correct models of language use, topic for communication, opportunities for learners to use their information processing skills, and opportunities for learners to use their existing knowledge both of the language and the subject matter'. In this model, schematically the elements are related as shown in Figure 3.3.

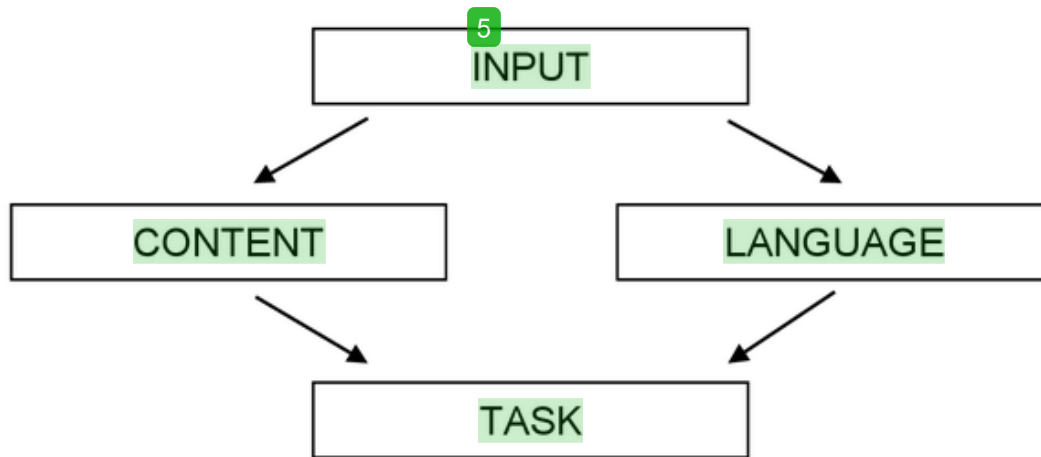
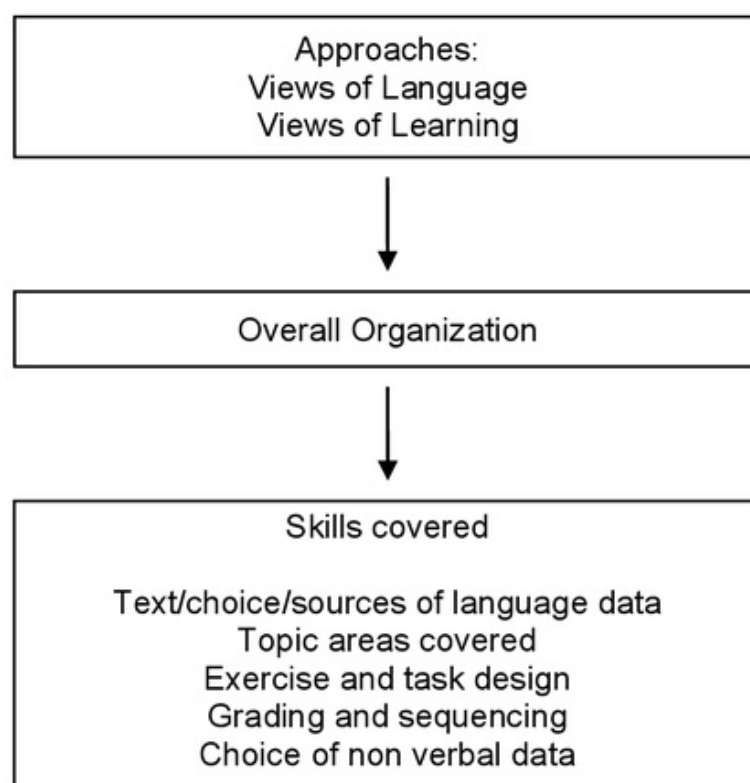


Figure 5.1 A Model of Materials Development
 (Source: Hutchinson and Waters, 1987:109)

Unlike Hutchinson and Water (1987), rather than set a general conceptual framework for materials designing, Tomlinson and Masuhara (2004) mix between principles of materials writing and operational steps for designing materials. These are clearly seen in the outline of their approach as the following:

'1) to articulate ... main theories of language learning, 2) to profile target learners, 3) to list objectives and aims, 4) to list procedures which could help to match the theories, the profile, the objectives and the aims in principled ways and 5) to develop a flexible unit framework using procedures from ...list.' (Tomlinson and Masuhara, 2004:19).

The first three are essentially principles; whereas the last two belong to steps, which in Hutchinson's and Water's (1987) model, these are best considered as principles for element 'task'. The last in the approach, however, provides too general ideas for practical purposes, which also happens in Hutchinson's and Water's (1987) model's element 'task'. Another model of materials design is articulated by McDonough (1984:66-88). In his model, three levels are recognized with components in each level as shown in Figure 3.4.



**Figure 5.2 A Model of Materials Design
(Source: McDonough, 1984:64)**

McDonough's model is essentially similar to Tomlinson's and Masuhara's (2004) in terms of a necessity to put approaches. In this model, Hutchinson's and Water's (1987) components in their model collap into the component 'overall organization'. The third level contains principles of developing materials basically. **1** this is correctly understood, then, in the third level there are **what skills to include, rules for selection of language data, what topics to use, principles of designing tasks and exercises, principles of grading and principles of non verbal data.** Rajan (1997) more specifically and operationally outlines components that a unit of textbooks need to contain.

These components include, in the order that follows, 1)introduction to the unit topic, 2)pre-reading/listening vocabulary activities, 3)guided global questions for the reading/listening, 4) reading/listening to a variety discourse, 5) comprehension activities based on the reading/listening, 6) language work in context, 7) aspects of pronunciation in context, 8) study skills activities, 9) multi-skill communicative tasks, 10) aspects of cross-cultural communication, and 11) project work.

Rajan's model is basically a modified form Hutchinson's and Water's (1987) model as he claims (Rajan, 1997). This is clearly reflected in the use of input element (introduction to the unit topic, pre-reading/listening vocabulary activities and guided global questions for the reading/listening), focus on content (reading/listening to a variety discourse, comprehension activities based on the reading/listening), focus on language (language work in context, aspects of pronunciation in context) and tasks (study skills activities, multi-skill communicative tasks, aspects of cross-cultural communication, and project work).

The framework of textbook design elaborated by Rajan is practical. This design provides not only what topics to present in each unit of a textbook but also how to sequence the presentation. This structure seen from overall textbook organization assures consistency (Ur, 1996) and maintains a quality of being organized and coordinated (Aik, 1988). However, the design does not reflect the role of principles for materials delivery in the form of functional tasks (Nunan, 1988a and 1988b).

As shown in the discussion thus far presented above, several models of materials design necessarily overlap with their shared areas of focus and at the same time they have their uniqueness. All components in the models are considered essential and useful for designing textbooks as instructional materials. This leads to a framework for designing the textbook as the main purpose of the present study as shown in Figure 2.7 Chapter II page 69.

As shown in Figure 2.7, the model consists of three levels. The first level talks about underlying approaches that characterize the development of the textbook. The second level is tentative elements and organization of each unit of the textbook, and the third level supporting principles (shown with an arrow pointing upward to the organization principles) of developing units in the textbook. The proposed model essentially includes ideas from several existing model of materials designs, in that there is a matter of 'choice' and 'synthesis' in designing the textbook (McDonough, 1984:66).

1. Procedures for the Experts Judgement

As has been outlined in the overall design of the current study (Section 3.1 Model of Development), experts judgement is employed in the current study. Specifically, the procedures are described as

1 follows. In the first phase, the final draft as a result of the textbook development phase is multiplied for evaluation purposes by experts. The product is then set in the expected final form of the textbook, namely in the state when the textbook is assumed to be ready for teaching use in classrooms. Next, the textbook is consulted first to the promoters, who are fundamentally also experts, for their comments and suggestions on contents and format of the textbook. Upon necessary revisions based on the evaluative feedback from the promoters, the textbook is prepared for further experts judgement. After multiplication, the textbook is distributed to a party of experts. In ESP contexts, there is a need for 'collaborative' contributions of ideas from subject matter and English teaching specialists. Therefore, two experts who have specialized expertise in their major relevant to the need of the expert judgment phase for the purpose of 'qualitative appraisal' of the product for the purpose of product improvement or betterment are involved in this phase. In the first group, an expert on hotel management, hotel management writer, and also a hotel consultant who has been working in a five-star hotel for about 35 years are involved. In the second party, one English expert who has concern on ESP, particularly English for Hotel Management and who holds a Ph.D. degree in English language education is involved.

Along the line with the experts judgement of the textbook, a set of questionnaire is established (For a further detailed description of the instrument, see section 3.3.4 Instrument for Data Collection. The instrument is attached in Appendix 11). Prior to its utilization, the adapted questionnaire is validated for accuracy and relevancy of contents and clarity of instructions and the rephrasing of sentences in the questionnaire. For the purpose, an expert in instrument development is involved. Necessary revisions are made based on the expert's feedback. When ready, the textbook along with the questionnaire is delivered to the experts that are already decided, the experts judgement phase begins. Since experts judgement requires critical reading and evaluation of the textbook, sufficient time allotment for the experts to perform the evaluation is set up.

2. Product Try-out

Harmer (1998:118) considers it necessary to have a pilot study for a textbook that is developed. There are beneficial points that can be drawn on from such a pilot study: to find the strengths and the

weakness through gathering opinions. This view seems to reflect Borg and Gall (1983:782) when they state that preliminary field test is 'to obtain initial qualitative evaluation of (a) new product'. Such an evaluation is basically feedback from a small party of people.

Borg and Gall (1983:782) maintain that the emphasis of this preliminary field test is not laid on 'appraisal of course outcome' as a result of using the product under development, rather put to gain 'qualitative appraisal' of the product for the purpose of product improvement or betterment. In addition, a number of different parties may be involved, depending on the nature of the materials developed, including among other things teacher colleagues (Harmer, 1998:109).

For the purpose of the current study, the preliminary field test is aimed at gaining 'qualitative appraisal' of the textbook. A scope of variables for evaluation in the field test is created. A mode of field testing conduct is to be set up. Sets of instrument are to be developed. A number of relevant people are to be involved. The following section describes in more detail strategies for conducting the try-out.

3. Design of the Try-out

With regards to the field testing mode, Bailey (1978) offers two methods: a survey and an interview. With reference to the former a set of questionnaire is essential; and a set of interview guide with the latter is necessary. Considering the methodological corridors as well as some non technical availability of resources such as time, personnel, and budget, the try-out of the current study employs a small-scale survey as suggested by Bailey (1978). In some cases, however, interviewing is utilized particularly when further confirmation is required about the responses provided by the subjects that potentially cause ambiguous interpretations. An effective technique that can be utilized for the purpose of data collection is what is called focussed group discussion (Witkin, 1984; Varkevisser, Pathmanathan, and Brownlee, 1991). According to Nielsen (1997), this is an '... informal technique that can help ... assess users need before interface design and long after implementation.' In this technique a group of participants which can be about 10 or 15 people is involved with the interviewer raising several series of questions to the group. Group members respond to the questions asked 'freely and sponta-

neously', which leads to a discussion. Because of this nature, this technique is also called 'focussed group interview' or facilitated group discussion'. The purpose of this qualitative technique is to get 'in-depth information on concepts, perceptions, and ideas of a group' (Nielsen. 1997).

In this small-scale survey, the design is established as follows. The product of the current study, which is in the form of a textbook, is first distributed to several respondents as the subjects of the try-out. There are two kinds of subjects involved: the English lecturers and the students of several tourism colleges. A number of 9 (nine) English lecturers in these colleges will evaluate the textbook developed. Considering the availability of the resources such as time, personnel, and budget; two of the English lecturers evaluate the textbook and implement the textbook during the usual teaching learning process in the course *Professional English*. By the end of the course, the English lecturers and the students are given the questionnaire concerning the aspects to be evaluated of the textbook as well as its use during the classroom sessions using the textbook.

In addition to this, for the purpose of triangulation, a focussed group discussion is established. The purpose of this discussion is to collect feedback on the contents of the draft of the textbook developed. For the purpose a group of hotel supervisors are involved.

To sum up, the try-out phase involves two main sub activities: using the book in the class during the teaching learning activities of a course and a focussed group discussion. The former is then followed with the utilization of a set of questionnaires to be distributed to both the lecturers the students involved in the teaching learning process. The latter involves hotel supervisors as the triangulating data resources during the try-out phase.

4. Subjects

The subjects of the try-out phase consist of three main parties. The first party includes 9 (nine) English lecturers who have been teaching at Diploma III and IV colleges in hotel management departments from several regions in Indonesia. They are S-1 graduates majoring in English. These English lecturers were from different levels of academic category based on the accreditation established by Directorate of Higher Education. Those included in the

leading tourism colleges are located in Jakarta, Bogor, Surabaya, and Malang; those considered as the mid/moderate tourism colleges are located in Malang, and Bogor, and finally, the one considered as a low tourism college is located in Samarinda. The second party includes sixty four students of at least the fourth semester from those Tourism Colleges. These students have passed English courses like Communicative English and Professional English. Some have joined some on-the-job training abroad and in some domestic hotels.

Table 5.1 Subjects Involved in the Try-out Phase

No	Position	Number	Data Collection
1	English Lecturer	9	Questionnaire
2	Hotel Supervisor	15	Focussed Group Discussion
3	Student (taking the course in which the textbook was utilized as an instructional resource for learning)	64	Questionnaire
Total		88	

In addition to the English lecturers, for the purpose of triangulation, a number of 15 (fifteen) hotel supervisors are involved in the present study in the try-out phase. The purpose is to provide final necessary feedback concerning the adequacy of the textbook as a learning resource for the students of hotel management of tourism colleges. The following table presents the subjects involved in the try-out phase.

5. Data Type

The data are of both qualitative and quantitative types. The qualitative data are in the form of the verbal data in the form of notes, comments, criticism, suggestions, ideas, language corrections, comments and notes made by the subjects whereas the quantitative data are in the form of figures/scores assigned by the subjects. These figures/scores range in a scale from 0 (zero) to 4 (four), each scale of which reflects the subjects' professional and evaluative judgment on the variables under interest.

6. Instrument for Data Collection

The try-out in the present study utilizes two sets of questionnaires: one set for the English lecturers and the other set for the students. The instrument used for the English lecturers is essentially the same as the one used in the experts judgement phase. Thus, it is

adapted from the World Language Standards-Based Textbook Evaluation Form (India Department of Education, 2007). The questionnaire evaluates 7 (seven) main variables under interest, namely content, exercises, communication, cultures, connections, communities, and general elements. Each of these variables is elaborated further into their corresponding relevant indicators. The following table is the elaboration of the variables into their corresponding indicators.

Table 5.2 Variables for Textbook Evaluation and Their Corresponding Indicators

No	Variable	80	Indicator
1	Content	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> a. Presentation b. Potential basis for further learning c. Authentic selection d. Real life challenge for critical thinking e. Real world tasks f. Layout g. Ease for learning h. Appropriateness of age and development i. Learner engagement j. Prior knowledge basis 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> 33 Currency and accuracy of information
2	Exercises	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> a. Interactive and task-based modes b. 108 ling for comprehension c. Top-down and bottom-up strategies d. Sufficient top-down strategies e. Unity in comprehension f. Critical thinking exercises g. Authentic materials 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> 33
3	Communication	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> a. Authentic interaction b. Balanced interpersonal writing and speaking c. Balanced presentational writing and speaking d. Authentic, accurate, and current language e. Real-world contexts/tasks f. Personalization of responses g. Use of their own form of grammar h. Age appropriateness i. Development appropriateness j. Encouragement in the use of communication strategies k. Demonstration of abilities and skills in English 	

4	Cultures	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> a. Currency and significance in visual images and information b. Authenticity in visual images and information c. Appropriate presentation of cultural information d. Emphasis on culture and language e. Activity impacts on students' further observation, identification, discussion, analysis f. Identification, experience, analysis, production, or discussion of tangible and 1pressive products
5	Connections	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> a. Opportunities to discuss and discover concepts and top 1s in hotels b. Opportunities to build upon prior personal experiences and background c. Connection between concepts, themes, and information and activities
6	Communities	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> a. Emphasis on life-long learning b. Encouragement to communicate in English c. Identification of professions and careers in the use of English d. Involvement of community as learning resources 33 Activities for betterment of communities
7	General Elements	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> a. 1alance and integration of language skills b. Opportunities for differentiation and individual goal-setting c. Consistency level in the development of language use d. Plentiful and useful activities e. Functional presentation of vocabulary f. Contextual presentation of grammar g. Appeal of the activities h. Promotion of critical thinking skills i. Organization and layout of the text j. Visual layout

As shown in Table 3.3, variable 'content' has 11 (eleven) indicators; variable 'exercises' 7 (seven) indicators; variable 'communication' 11 (eleven) indicators; variable 'cultures' 6 (six) indicators; variable 'connections' 3 (three) indicators, variable 'communities' 5 (five) indicators, and variable 'general elements' has 10 (ten) indicators. These indicators reflect the essential elements for a corresponding variable to have.

This framework essentially reflects what Tomlinson and Masuhara (2004) offer in both principles for textbook evaluation as well as the scope of the evaluation. A further scope of variables on which to develop the instrument is forwarded by Harmer (1998:119) such as: layout and design, methodology, skills, syllabus, topic, reotyping, and teacher's guide, covering areas such as follows: layout and design, activities, skills, language type, subject-content, and guidance (Harmer, 1991:281).

The indicators are then spread along a scale ranging from 0 (zero) to 4 (four) with an equal distance. A score 0 (zero) means absence of the qualities or attributes of the variables under interest whereas a score 4 (four) shows maximum presence of the qualities or attributes. By maximum presence here means that the variable evaluated about the textbook not only just exists but it exists fully or its existence also reaches a complete attribute.

In addition to this, a space is provided in the questionnaire for the subjects to give their verbal data in the form of notes, comments, criticism, suggestions, ideas, language corrections, comments and notes. In general, the instrument utilized in the present study consists of two main parts: the part for quantitative evaluation and that for qualitative evaluation.

A critical review on the instrument is performed to make sure the content validity of the aspects to be evaluated for accuracy of contents and clarity of instructions and the rephrasing of sentences in the questionnaire. For the purpose, an expert in instrument development is involved. The final version of the instrument is presented in Appendix 7.

The instrument used for the students is actually the last part of the questionnaire for the English teachers, which deals with 'general elements'. This part is relevant for the students because the part deals with aspects related with the students not only as potential users but also as learners. Their feedback as potential users but also as learners is elaborated in 10 indicators (please refer to Table 3.2 for these indicators). The instrument for the students is presented in Appendix 8.

For the purpose of Focussed Group Discussion (FGD) with hotel supervisors in the try-out phase, a discussion guideline consisting of 3 (three) main aspects are considered. The instrument for the purpose of the discussion is presented in Appendix 6 These are

language, content, and exercises within which indicators are established. These aspects relate with the attributes of the textbook as shown in Table 3.4.

Table 5.3 Attributes of the Textbook to Be Discussed in FGD

No	Attributes of the Textbook
1	Language <ol style="list-style-type: none"> a. Level of Complexity b. Relevance
2	Content <ol style="list-style-type: none"> a. Relevance b. Usefulness c. Recentness
3	Exercises <ol style="list-style-type: none"> a. Level of Difficulty b. Quantity c. Usefulness d. Relevance

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7. Data Analysis and Interpretation

As has been described in Section 3.3.3 Data Type, the data are of both qualitative and quantitative types generated out of the questionnaires. The qualitative data are in the forms of the verbal data that come from notes, comments, criticism, suggestions, ideas, language corrections, comments and notes made by the subjects. To gain 'qualitative appraisal' of the product for the purpose of product betterment, the data are treated as suggestions that the researcher needs to consider for the improvement of the textbook developed. Therefore, the subjects' comments, criticism, suggestions, ideas, language corrections are taken cautiously for accurate understanding, which ultimately aims at the necessary revisions needed to be made upon the relevant parts in the textbook developed.

The quantitative data, however, are analysed differently while still keeping the idea of gaining 'qualitative appraisal' of the product for the purpose of product improvement as the main motivation in the analysis. There are three main phases performed to analyze the quantitative data. In the first phase, there is a need to set up a set of criteria. The first and primarily important criteria relate with the indicator level, namely scores for each indicator. Thus, there is a need to have a close identification of the indicators under the corre-

sponding variable which get a particular score. The motivation behind this strategy is a view that indicators are the most operational and observable elements for the purpose of necessary revisions. Therefore, quantifying the indicators is actually an attempt made to measure the indicators.

As has been described previously in Section 3.3.4 Instrument for Data Collection, the scale in each indicator has a range from a score of 0 (zero) to 4 (four). For the purpose of quantifying the indicators by using the scale, then a set of criteria at the indicator level is established using the scoring criteria adapted from the ones set up by Sudiyono (2003). In the criteria the scores together with their score range, qualitative description, and follow-up decision are provided as shown in Table 3.5.

Table 5.4 Guideline for Evaluating Indicators of the Textbook Developed

Score	Score Range	Qualitative Description	Follow-up
4	3.1 - 4.0	Very Good	No revision needed
3	2.1 - 3.0	Good	No revision needed
2	1.1 - 2.0	Sufficient	Possibly revision needed
1	0.1 - 1.0	Bad	Revision needed
0	0	Very Bad	Replacement needed

The second criteria deal with the variable level, namely scores across indicators in a particular variable. Unlike the criteria at the indicator level, the criteria at the variable level are of secondary concern. The reason is that variables in this respect are generic and thus less operational and observable for the sake of necessary revisions. Evaluation at this level is useful for a general impression about a particular variable. The criteria at the variable level are established as follows: If the number of indicators under a particular variable rated with a score smaller than 2 (two) reaches 90% of the subjects of the try-out phase, the variable under evaluation is interpreted as being not satisfactory.

The third criteria aim at evaluating the consistency of subjects, particularly the lecturers as well as the experts in assigning the scores as their evaluative judgment over the textbook developed. For the purpose, Hoyt's ANOVA (Mehren and Lehman, 1984: 277-278) is employed. This technique is utilized to examine the agreement of the subjects, in this case the lecturers as well as the experts, in as-

signing the scores as their evaluative judgment over the textbook developed. The degree of agreement among subjects is seen from the coefficient of agreement. High consistency can be interpreted that subjects share a similar or close evaluation on the attributes of the textbook to be examined.

To examine the consistency of the scorers as the subjects of the present study, an adapted set of criteria as proposed by Sugiyono (1997:200) is utilized as shown in Table 3.6.

Table 5.5 Criteria for Determining Scoring Consistency

No	Range	Degree of Consistency	Qualitative Description
1	0.00 - 0.19	Very weak	Highly inconsistent
2	0.20 - 0.39	Weak	Inconsistent
3	0.40 - 0.59	Moderate	Sufficiently consistent
4	0.60 - 0.79	Strong	Consistent
5	0.80 - 1.00	Very Strong	Highly consistent

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APPENDIX 1**GUIDING QUESTIONS FOR THE INTERVIEW WITH HOTEL
GENERAL MANAGERS FOR NEEDS ASSESSMENT**

Date of interview :

Place :

Name :

Gender :

Age :

Hometown :

Position :

Highest degree obtained :

Foreign languages :

Overseas experience :

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QUESTIONS

1. What are your roles and responsibilities in hotel?
2. Do you keep your communication with the owner and the Regional Manager?
3. How do you acquaint with both of them?
4. How do you meet the target?
5. How do you decide the quality of the hotel service?
6. How do you meet your target?
7. How do you meet the guests?
8. How do you work your staffs?
9. Do you motivate your staffs?
10. How do you motivate your staffs?
11. How do you build your staff's character?
12. Do you learn the country's culture?
13. Do you support your staffs to have an international career?
14. How do you support your staffs to have an international career?
15. In general what trends of management are the hotel industry nowadays?
16. Do you speak formally with your staffs? In what situations?
17. Do you speak informally with your staffs? In what situations?
18. How do you say when you explain something to your staffs?
19. How do you say when you suggest your staffs?
20. How do you say when you remind your staffs?
21. How do you say when you motivate the staffs?

APPENDIX 2

GUIDING QUESTIONS FOR THE INTERVIEW WITH HOTEL SUPERVISORS FOR NEEDS ASSESSMENT

Date of interview :
Place :
Name :
Gender :
Age :
Hometown :
Position :
Highest degree obtained :
Foreign languages :
Overseas experience :
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QUESTIONS

1. How do you cooperate with your Hotel General Managers?
2. Do you find difficulties in communicating with your hotel general manager?
3. What are your roles and responsibilities in your department?
4. How do you implement Standard Operation Procedures?
5. How do you cooperate with managers of other departments?
6. How do you monitor your staffs?
7. How do you monitor your staffs?
8. How do you handle the problems of staffs and guests?
9. Do you speak formally with your staffs? In what situations?
10. Do you speak informally with your staffs? In what situations?
11. How do you say when you explain something to your staffs?
12. How do you say when you disagree with your staffs?
13. How do you say when you suggest your staffs?
14. How do you say when you remind your staffs?
15. How do you say when you motivate the staffs?

APPENDIX 3

GUIDING QUESTIONS FOR DISCUSSIONS WITH SUBJECT SPECIALIST FOR NEEDS ASSESSMENT (FOCUS GROUP DISCUSSION)

Date of Discussion :
Place :
Number of Participants :

QUESTIONS

1. What topics do you teach for students of semester IV above?
2. Do you differentiate between teaching at elementary level and intermediate to advanced levels?
3. Do you get difficulties in teaching those topics in theory as well as in practice?
4. How do you implement attitude, skills in knowledge in your teaching learning process?
5. How do you control your students?
6. Are the topics you teach already meet the requirements as supervisors?
7. Do you sometimes teach in English? Why?
8. Do supervisors in hotel speak English? With whom and on what occasion?

APPENDIX 4

GUIDING QUESTIONS FOR DISCUSSIONS WITH ALUMNAE OF DIPLOMA III IN HOTEL MANAGEMENT FOR NEEDS ASSESSMENT (FOCUS GROUP DISCUSSION)

Date of Discussion :
Place :
Number of Participants :

QUESTIONS

1. What is your impression of the teaching of hotel subjects in your campus?
2. Do you think it is necessary to teach hotel subjects in English? Why?
3. Compared to the workplace that you work now, what are your inputs to improve teaching learning process?
4. What do you think of the implementation of attitude, knowledge, and skill in campus?
5. Do you speak English everyday in the workplace? To whom and on what occasions?
6. What do you think of the personal grooming of the students and teachers when you were still studying?

APPENDIX 5

GUIDING QUESTIONS FOR DISCUSSIONS WITH STUDENTS OF DIPLOMA III IN HOTEL MANAGEMENT FOR NEEDS ASSESSMENT (FOCUS GROUP DISCUSSION)

Date of Discussion :
Place :
Number of Participants :

QUESTIONS

1. How do supervisors guide you?
2. Do they speak in English while guiding you?
3. How do supervisors monitor you?
4. Do supervisors guide you to implement attitude, knowledge and skills?
5. What do you think of hotel subjects taught in English?
6. What do you think of English teaching learning process at campus?

APPENDIX 6

GUIDING QUESTIONS FOR DISCUSSIONS WITH HOTEL SUPERVISORS IN THE TRYOUT PHASE (FOCUS GROUP DISCUSSION FOR TRIANGULATION)

Date of Discussion :
Place :
Number of Participants :

QUESTIONS

1. What do you think of the content of the textbook?
2. Do you learn something useful for your workplace from the content?
3. What do you think of the language?
4. What do you think of the picture?
5. Do you think that the textbook is too big?
6. Do you have difficulties in understanding the reading texts?
7. Do you have difficulties in understanding the exercises?
8. Do you have difficulties in finishing the exercises?
9. Does the textbook match the requirements for the work as hotel supervisors?
10. What do you think of the lay out?
11. What do you think of the colour of the illustration?

APPENDIX 7

Textbook Evaluation Guide for Experts and English Teachers

A. Content

Directions: Look through the text for contents. Read through the content characteristics and rate them according to the listed criteria, using the scale 0 through 4. Put a cross (X) on the appropriate number.

	Not at All		Partially		Completely		
	0	1	2	3	4		
• Are the contents presented either topically or functionally in a logical, organized manner?				1	2	3	4
• Does the content serve as a window into further learning about the intended areas i.e. hotel management and hospitality industries?					2	3	4
• Are the reading selections authentic pieces of language?					2	3	4
• Does the content contain real-life issues that challenge the learners to think critically about hotel management and hospitality industries?					2	3	4
• Are the activities and lessons centered on real-world tasks and examples?							
• Is the layout logical and clear?							
• Can learners navigate the materials with ease?							
• Are the materials both age- and developmentally appropriate?							
• Does the content engage learners?							
• Does the content build upon prior knowledge and provide opportunities for learners to expand knowledge by emphasizing critical thinking skills?							
• Is the information current and accurate?							

Other Comments, if any:

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B. Exercises

Directions: Read through the book for exercises and activities. Then rate them according to the listed criteria, using the scale 0 through 4. Put a cross (X) on the appropriate number.

	Not at All	Partially			Completely
	0	1	2	3	4
34				73	
• Are there interactive and task-based activities that require students to use new vocabulary to communicate?	0	1	2	3	4
• Do the instructions in the textbook tell the students to read for comprehension?	0	1	2	3	4
• Are top-down and bottom-up strategies used?	0	1	2	3	4
• Are the students given sufficient examples to learn top-down techniques for reading comprehension?	0	1	2	3	4
• Do the texts make comprehension easier by addressing one new concept at a time?	0	1	2	3	4
• Do the exercises promote critical thinking?	0	1	2	3	4
• Are activities enhanced by the inclusion of authentic materials?	0	1	2	3	4

Other Comments, if any:

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C. Communication

Directions: Browse the book for communicative activities that address each of the three standards for communication. Read through the activities and rate them according to the listed criteria, using the scale 0 through 4. Put a cross (X) on the appropriate number.

Not at All	Partially			Completely	
0	1	2	3	4	

• Are there opportunities for learners to communicate with each other, or the teacher in the target language in meaningful and authentic situations?	0	1	2	3	4
• Are the opportunities for learners to practice interpersonal writing and speaking balanced throughout the text?	0	1	2	3	4
• Are the opportunities for learners to practice presentational writing and speaking balanced throughout the text?	0	1	2	3	4
• Do the activities include language that is authentic, accurate, and current?	0	1	2	3	4
• Are the communicative activities set in a real-world context or represent a real-world task?	0	1	2	3	4
• Do the activities allow learners to personalize their responses or provide their own meaning?	0	1	2	3	4
• Do the activities allow learners to provide their own form and structure (grammar formation)?	0	1	2	3	4
• Are the activities age-appropriate?	0	1	2	3	4
• Are the activities developmentally appropriate?	0	1	2	3	4
• Do the text and supplemental materials identify and encourage learners to use strategies that facilitate communication and comprehension?	0	1	2	3	4
• Do the activities allow learners to demonstrate or showcase their knowledge of and/or skill in using the target language?	0	1	2	3	4

Other Comments, if any:

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D. Cultures

Directions: Browse the book for sections pertaining to culture. Rate these sections according to the listed criteria, using the scale 0 through 4. Put a cross (X) on the appropriate number.

	Not at All	Partially			Completely
	0	1	2	3	4
• Are the visual images and cultural information current and pertinent?	0	1	2	3	4
• Are the visual images and cultural information authentic?	0	1	2	3	4
• Is the cultural information presented in the target language whenever possible and/or appropriate?	0	1	2	3	4
• Are the connections between culture and language emphasized?	0	1	2	3	4
• Do the text activities associated with cultural images and information invite learner observation, identification, discussion or analysis of cultural practices, products, and perspectives?	0	1	2	3	4
• Are learners asked to identify, experience, analyze, produce, or discuss tangible (toys, dress, foods, etc.) and expressive (artwork, songs, literature, etc.) products of the target cultures?	0	1	2	3	4

Other Comments, if any:

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E. Connections

Directions: Browse the book to find opportunities for learners to connect their world language learning with hotel management matters. Rate these sections according to the listed criteria, using the scale 0 through 4. Put a cross (X) on the appropriate number.

Not at All	Partially			Completely
0	1	2	3	4

• Do learners have opportunities to discuss or discover more about concepts and topics studied in hotel management matters?	0	1	2	3	4
• Are there opportunities for learners to build upon prior personal experiences and existing background knowledge?	0	1	2	3	4
• Are concepts, themes, and information from intended content areas (hotel management matters) embedded in or connected with activities?	0	1	2	3	4

Other Comments, if any:

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F. Communities

Directions: Browse the book to locate sections or activities that suggest the use of the language and understanding of culture outside of the classroom. Rate these sections according to the listed criteria, using the scale 0 through 4. Put a cross (X) on the appropriate number.

Not at All	Partially			Completely
0	1	2	3	4

• Does the text place emphasis on life long learning by suggesting uses of the target language for personal and professional development?	0	1	2	3	4
• Are learners encouraged to communicate with others in English, either face-to-face outside of their own classroom, in conversation, writing, performances, or presentations?	0	1	2	3	4
• Does the text identify professions, careers, or everyday situations which require or are enhanced by proficiency in the target language?	0	1	2	3	4
• Does the text present target language/culture projects that involve interacting with members of the local community or using community resources?	0	1	2	3	4
• Does the text provide suggestions or activities that allow learners to become active participants in bettering their communities?	0	1	2	3	4

Other Comments, if any:

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G. General Elements

Directions: Browse the book to judge integration of the following elements. Rate these sections according to the listed criteria, using the scale 0 through 4. Put a cross (X) on the appropriate number.

Not at All	Partially			Completely	
0	1	2	3	4	

• Are the language skills (reading, writing, listening and speaking) balanced and integrated within each unit?	0	1	2	3	4
• Are there opportunities for differentiation and individual goal-setting?	0	1	2	3	4
• Does the level of the language remain consistent, developing at an appropriate pace, throughout the text?	0	1	2	3	4
• Are the activities plentiful, as well as useful both to teacher and learner?	0	1	2	3	4
• Is the vocabulary presented in functional and cultural contexts or clusters?	0	1	2	3	4
• Are units pertaining to grammar contextually embedded within the text?	0	1	2	3	4
• Do the activities appeal to learners' interests?	0	1	2	3	4
• Are critical thinking skills promoted or embedded in activities?	0	1	2	3	4
• Is the organization and layout of the text easy to follow?	0	1	2	3	4
• Does the visual layout of the text appeal to learners and support instruction?	0	1	2	3	4

Other Comments, if any:

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Overall Comments, if any:

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Reviewer

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 Title and Name

APPENDIX 8

Textbook Evaluation Guide for Students

Directions: Browse the book to judge integration of the following elements. Rate these sections according to the listed criteria, using the scale 0 through 4. Put a cross (X) on the appropriate number.

Not at All	Partially			Completely
0	1	2	3	4

• Are the language skills (reading, writing, listening and speaking) balanced and integrated 2 thin each unit?	0	1	2	3	4
• Are there opportunities for differentiation and 2 individual goal-setting?	0	1	2	3	4
• Does the level of the language remain consistent, developing at an appropriate pace, 2 throughout the text?	0	1	2	3	4
• Are the activities plentiful, as well as useful both 2 teacher and learner?	0	1	2	3	4
• Is the vocabulary presented in functional and/or 1 cultural contexts or clusters?	0	1	2	3	4
• Are units pertaining to grammar contextually embedded within the text?	0	1	2	3	4
• 2 Do the activities appeal to learners- interests?	0	1	2	3	4
• Are critical thinking skills promoted or 2 embedded in activities?	0	1	2	3	4
• Is the organization and layout of the text easy to 2 follow?	0	1	2	3	4
• Does the visual layout of the text appeal to learners and support instruction?	0	1	2	3	4

Other Comments, if any:

Adapted from : World Language Standards (2007)

Overall Comments, if any:

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Student

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Name

APPENDIX 9

English for Hotel Management

Table 4.37 Book Map

No	Unit	Topic	Vocabulary Focus	English Skill Focus	Activities
1	Strategic Planning	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> The GM's Role in Strategic Planning Air rail Center and Hilton Hotels Frankfurt 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> pronounce words related with the text define words related with the text 	Reading Listening and Speaking Writing	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> identify facts about strategic planning identify ideas about strategic planning discuss leader and leadership discuss strategy to face different characters discuss goals and objectives report an experience of having on the job training in a hotel summarize the competitive advantages of strategic planning in Air Rail Center.
2	The Role of the Hotel Manager	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> The Role of Hotel Manager Feng Shui and Chinese Management Style 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> pronounce words related with the text find the meaning of words related with the text 	Reading Listening and Speaking Writing	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> state the facts of the role of hotel manager explain the requirements of successful hotel manager describe what a hotel manager should perform find solutions to critical situations if the GM is absent decide program and budget in centralized and decentralized management in a hotel department create profitable department in a hotel compose a paragraph about a famous saying compose a paragraph of a hotel's philosophy

3	Service and Quality Standards	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Setting Service and Quality Standards • Service Culture Standards of Jayakarta Hotel • ASPECT 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • finds words related with the text • find synonyms • predict words and phrases by answering questions 	<p>Reading</p> <p>Listening and Speaking</p> <p>Writing</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • find topic, main ideas, and key words • analyze the strengths and weaknesses of previous GM • explain the attainable/ideal hotel program • discuss how to motivate staffs • practice service culture standards • improve weak points of staffs' performance • synthesize the case of discussion • evaluate staff's performance in a piece of writing based on guided questions
4	Room Division	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Room Division Director • Attachment of Front Desk Officer of Excelcior Hotel Singapore 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • words related with the text • find expressions related with the text 	<p>15</p> <p>Reading</p> <p>Listening and Speaking</p> <p>Writing</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • state the facts of the text • describe the duty of FOM, • explain the function of check-recheck, • explain how to build teamwork and • analyze the room rate policy • discuss GSA, receptionist and hotel rates • using mini cases to solve the problem of cashiering, payment delay, professional staff • write preparation of duties for staffs and trainees in FO • make notes on check-and recheck of the duties of FO staffs.

5	Management Responsibilities of the Executive Housekeeper	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Management Responsibilities Executive of Housekeeper • Sales Meeting of Function of Mint Hotel Kuala Lumpur • Minutes of Sales Meeting of Mint Hotel Kuala Lumpur 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • predict words related with the text • find meaning of words related with the text 	<p>Reading</p> <p>Listening and Speaking</p> <p>Writing</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • find the topic, main idea, and key words and other important things • describe the importance of production • explain the ethical conduct • explain the control process • solve the problems of increasing productivity by reducing break hours • solve the problem of the trouble maker • write a plan of meeting based on the letter of sales • make a letter of reconfirmation
6	Food and Beverage Management	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Food and Beverage Management • Guest Comment • Standard and Procedure of Food and Beverage of Jayakarta Hotel 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • predict words related with the text • find synonym of words related with the text 	<p>Reading</p> <p>Listening and Speaking</p> <p>Writing</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • using questions to define professional services, describe indisciplinary action, explain priority of menu and service, give examples of good and quality Food and Beverage Department • report daily work • report guest comments • synthesize guest comments future plans • evaluate menu • compare actions which are in line and which are not with SOP • evaluate staffs' personal grooming

7	Marketing	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Hotel Marketing • Website of hotels in Thailand • Brochure of Mint Hotel Seminar Package, Christmas of Ritz Carlton Osaka • Service Philosophy of Ritz-Carlton 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • arrange letters into words • find familiar words related with the text • ask questions about hotel marketing. 	<p>Reading</p> <p>Listening and Speaking</p> <p>Writing</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • state the facts of the text • define competitor • explain the importance of positioning in marketing • explain marketing mix in hotel • evaluate hotel marketing program • discuss up selling, • discuss incumbent for buyers • discuss the importance of marketing mix of hotel • compare three hotel brochures of Japan, Malaysia and Thailand.
8	Human Resources Management in Hospitality	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Hotel Staffing • Fax Message • Newspaper Advertisement • Letter of Vacancy from Agents of Ramada Hotel, Dubai 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • define words related with the text • predict the meaning of the words related with the text 	<p>15</p> <p>Reading</p> <p>Listening and Speaking</p> <p>Writing</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • state the facts of the text • predict the need of hotel staffing • comprehend recruitment and selection • do recruitment and selection • discuss how to attract staffs • explain the importance of hard skill and soft skill • write application letter based on vacancies.
9	Choosing the Right Control Strategy	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Hotel's Operation Control • Four Season's Glitch Report 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • define words related with the text • find words related with the text 	<p>Reading</p> <p>Listening and Speaking</p> <p>Writing</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • comprehend main purpose of control, • practice control actions • describe kinds of control. • discuss how to control staffs • discuss performance evaluation • discuss staff's wrong performance and resolution • write resolution of complaints by comprehending causes • write resolution for improvement using complaint's data

10	Social Skills	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Social Skills • Social Skills Word Diagram • Four Season's Employee Development Review 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • pronounce the words related with the text • find words related with the text 	<p>Reading</p> <p>Listening and Speaking</p> <p>Writing</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • take notes related to the text while reading • state facts on social skills • practice social skills • develop social skills • develop team building skills, • practice communication skills • develop conflict resolution • explain employee development review • describe the reasons of admiring someone
11	Personal Profile	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Herman Cain • Scheme of Skyrme and Armidon 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • define words related with the text • find words related with the text 	<p>Reading</p> <p>Listening and Speaking</p> <p>Writing</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • state the facts related with the text • describe Cain's character • explain Cain's career to top position • discuss the importance of spirit and enthusiasm in life • explain Cain's analytical abilities • compare Cain's character and your character • compare your bio data and Cain's bio data

12	Cultural Adjustment	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Cultural Adjustment • Culture Shock • Strength Through Diversity 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • arrange letters in to words • define words related with the text 	<p>Reading</p> <p>Listening and Speaking</p> <p>Writing</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • explain how to appreciate differences of character, custom, language etc • explain stereotype of certain culture, • describe feeling in a new area • explain the experience of how to adjust yourself in a new culture • explain the process of adjustment and integration • discuss interethnic and inter religious dialogue • explaining religious view's on a piece of writing
13	International Management	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • International Management in Acton • Cross-culture management • Being an Expatriate: What does it mean? 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • define meaning of the words related with the text • pronounce the words related with the text compare Cain's character and your character 	<p>Reading</p> <p>Listening and Speaking</p> <p>Writing</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • describe worldwide employment • describe multicultural experiences • explain the differences of Japanese and American style • solve the problems of international management • discuss cross-culture management • write expositions of reasons

About The Writer



Kun Aniroh M-Gunad is born in Magelang, Central Java, 27 January 1957. She graduated from the English Department of State University of Yogyakarta (1981), the Graduate Master's Program of Human Resources Management of Muhammadiyah University Malang (2000), the Graduate Program of English Education Department of Islamic University Malang (2003), and the Diploma IV Program in Tourism Management of Satya Widya University Surabaya (2004). In 2004 she had the opportunity to continue her study at the Graduate Doctorate Program in English Education Department, State University of Malang sponsored by the Department of National Education of Indonesia. In 2010 she had the opportunity to be a visiting scholar at the Department of English Education of Sungpook National University, Daegu City and a guest lecturer at the Department of Foreign Languages and International Tourism of Gyeongju University, Gyeongju, Republic of Korea. Her teaching and research interest are in English for Hotel, English for Tourism, Materials Development and Tourism Destination Management.

From the year of 2002 to 2015 she has established a joint cooperation with inter-national star hotels in several countries for on-the-job training and work placement in Malaysia, Singapore, United Kingdom, United States, Dubai, and Oman. In 2004 she had the opportunity to have a friendship and culture program in the Netherlands, Belgium, France and Germany to revitalize cooperation between Malang and Brugge with Friendship Force Malang and the Malang Regional Government. In 2006 she had an opportunity to be a national leader of the Exchange Youth Program to attend a short course on Ecotourism in Osaka and Kyoto sponsored by the East Java Government and the Osaka Prefecture Government.

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